GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites

Year XV

2022/no. 1

vol. 40

Editura Universității din Oradea

GTG

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
Oradea University Press

ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

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
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GTG
GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites

Year XV, no. 1, vol. 40

Oradea - Gdańsk
2022

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INDEX COPERNICUS: http://journals.indexcopernicus.com/karta.php?action=masterlist&id=3947
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Review accredited by **C.N.C.S.I.S.,** "**C**" Categoryhttp://vechi.cncsis.ro/cenaposs/2008/Arhiva/reviste_cat_C_08.pdf

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Price of journal:

Individual	10 €
Institutional	15 €
Annual subscription	20 €

Address of the Editorial Office:
University of Oradea Department of Geography,
Tourism and Territorial PlanningTerritorial 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

C O N T E N T S

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GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.9-19
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40101-797

TOWARDS A DEVELOPMENT MODEL OF LOCAL CULTURAL TOURISM THROUGH THE INVOLVEMENT OF LOCAL ACTORS (PROVINCE OF CONSTANTINE, ALGERIA)

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Citation: Boulhila, S., Alouat, M., Rezzaz, M.A., & Schmitz, S. (2022). TOWARDS A DEVELOPMENT MODEL OF LOCAL CULTURAL TOURISM THROUGH THE INVOLVEMENT OF LOCAL ACTORS (PROVINCE OF CONSTANTINE, ALGERIA). *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 9–19. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40101-797

Abstract: Since the nineties, cultural tourism is considered as a form of tourism that is carried out by groups of people or institutions, whose main motive is the fulfillment of an interest and knowledge more on the culture, the history and the heritage of the chosen destination. The city of Constantine, located in northeastern Algeria, is one of the oldest cities in the Mediterranean basin. It was elected "Capital of Arab Culture 2015" due to its history, cultural and architectural heritage. The aim of this study is to examine the influences of cultural tourism on local development, to highlight the perception of local actors' roles in the development of tourism and to determine their involvement in the preservation of Constantine's cultural heritage to achieve a development model of cultural tourism in Constantine. This study is based on a literature review and field surveys, the type of questionnaire includes different types of questions: open questions, Likert scale questions and multiple choice qualitative questions. A manual processing of the data was performed using the mean and standard deviation calculation. The results of this study reveal a misunderstanding of cultural tourism among local residents hence the need to develop a model of categorization of the objectives of the study (SPIP) which proposes four key principles for the development of local cultural tourism in the city of Constantine. However, unless the proposed model elements are incorporated, cultural tourism in this city would never emerge.

Key words: Cultural tourism, city of Constantine, influence, local development, heritage, local actors, tourism development model

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a vital source of foreign exchange income for many countries and contributes significantly to the economy by creating jobs and providing opportunities for development. According to the UNWTO report entitled "UNWTO Tourism Highlights, 2014 Edition", international tourist arrivals in Europe showed a solid growth rate of 5% in 2013, up by 29 million compared to 2012, giving a total of 563 million. The World Tourism Organization report in 2014 ranks Algeria 4th tourist destination in Africa and was 111th on the international tourism scene (Belkhiri, 2018) with its 2.7 million foreign tourists in 2013 which despite its clear progression compared to 2012, remains in decline in comparison to the numbers recorded in Morocco (10.2 million tourists) and Tunisia (6.3 million tourists) World Economic Forum (FEM, 2013). The black decade and maybe the influence of oil in the Algerian economy have contributed to this decrease. The absence of an intersectoral synergy has made Algeria incapable of meeting the national demand and attracting international tourists (Baouali et al., 2019). Cultural tourism is a type of tourism activity in which the visitor's essential motivation is to learn, discover, experience and consume the tangible and intangible cultural attractions/products in a tourism destination (Richard, 2013). Since the ancient Romans visited Greece and Egypt, people have traveled for what we now call cultural reasons (Perrottet, 2002). On tour operators' consumer websites, the term "cultural tourism" refers to a niche market where cultural tourism would be a clean, elegant form of tourism that is respectful of the host destinations and communities (Lekane and Schmitz, 2012). The archaeological sites and heritage assets of a territory are key elements that attract tourists who wish to discover monuments and sites outside their usual places of residence, all of which are part of the components of "cultural tourism" (Kherrour et al., 2020). People move to cities outside their usual places of residence to gather new

* Corresponding author

information and experiences, as they seek out all the major features of culture in the place they visit, including monuments, heritage sites, museums and gastronomy (Du Cros and McKercher, 2014). In many regions and cities, we observe a growing interest in the potential of tourism and culture as a major attraction and strategic force for economic growth. (Girard and Nijkamp, 2009) In the context of the cultural tourism market, an analysis of the role of the different groups involved and affected by tourism development reveals the main target actors involved in the development of the tourism industry, with tasks, objectives and activities that determine the development of the industry (Figure 1).

In addition, the non-profit organizations that are mainly civil organizations including local and regional non-profit cultural associations and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), arts institutions and cultural heritage entertainment, action groups, volunteer groups and cultural activists should not be overlooked, not to mention the academic body represented by universities, educational institutes and schools, including their teachers, scientific researchers and doctoral students with a vision of shaping the tourism industry's future development, targeting various tourism market actors planners, auditing and policy advice (Šćitaroci et al., 2019). Destination management should synergistically support local stakeholders to improve the diversity and quality of the tourism offer (Corak and Borani'c, 2017). This study highlights important aspects of the cultural tourism development in Constantine, a city located in the east of Algeria that has a unique architectural and urban heritage still largely unknown. Constantine is a city of creativity in every nook and cranny of the sites goes back in time to offer both man and the land traditions and customs that constitute a unique heritage which distinguishes it from other cities in the world that surround it. Although tourism does not occupy an important place in the political priorities of the Algerian state and cultural tourism never emerged in this thousand year old city despite all its cultural and heritage wealth. It should be known that cultural tourism is a positive image carrier for the city and for the country in general and contributes to its local development. Therefore, this work focuses mainly on the idea of establishing a local cultural tourism development model in Constantine in order to attract public interest in Constantine and make its cultural heritage and territory a tourist destination. The positive effects of tourism is the main motivation for the development of tourism in any region, affirmed by many studies already conducted on the impact of tourism on the attitude of the inhabitants. It also determines the perception of the citizens in relation to the development of cultural tourism in their city and the importance of all parties' involvement in order to preserve the city's heritage assets. The inhabitant can become the main actor in the development of cultural tourism because he plays a decisive role in the preservation of cultural heritage and can be the key element for the promotion of this type of tourism (Waridin and Astawa, 2021). Far from the inspirations and expectations of this strategic sector, the development of tourism cannot be achieved without the development of a model that combines all development objectives and involves all stakeholders. In this regard, the following four, questions will guide our study:

Does cultural tourism have an influence on the local development of a territory?

How do the local inhabitants perceive the development of cultural tourism in their city?

What is the role played by local actors in the preservation of the cultural heritage of the city of Constantine?

What is the adequate model to make the territory of Constantine and its cultural offer a tourist destination?

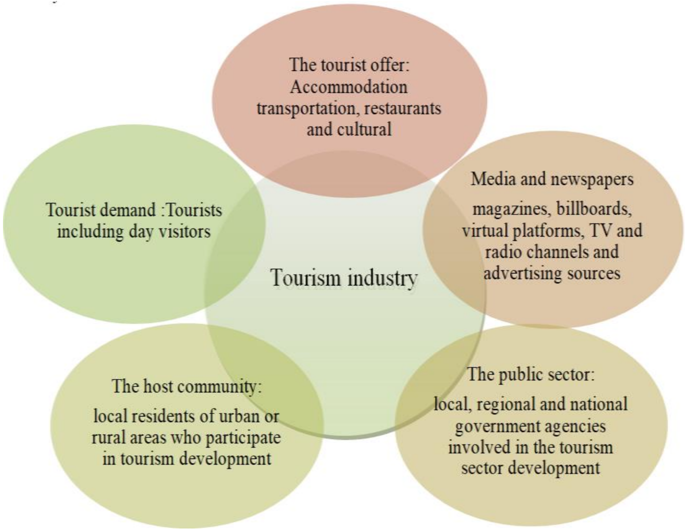

Figure 1. The main actors involved in the development of the tourism sector (by the authors)

LITERATURE REVIEW

Cultural heritage as a new economic resource:

Before addressing this topic, it is important to define cultural heritage, various researchers defined cultural heritage among the most common definitions, "UNESCO" defines cultural heritage as "the heritage of tangible or intangible property of humanity or society inherited from previous generations, preserved in the present and left to future generations." Tangible heritage includes heritage worthy of preservation, such as buildings, monuments and works of art. Intangible heritage refers to oral traditions, customs, performing arts, life experience and knowledge used to produce traditional crafts. Existing research on the exploitation of cultural heritage as a new economic resource has provided information of an exploratory nature that is mainly descriptive, and the review of the research presents various positive results on this topic. The work of (Janssen et al., 2017; Morar et al., 2020; Zuo et al., 2017) focused on the idea of using heritage assets as a service that is economically viable, increase employment, generate income for local communities and attract new investment opportunities so that local communities can appreciate their values through the improvement of quality of life as well as fostering a sense of local belonging. According to the study of (Timothy, 2014) "an associate professor at the school of community resources and development, editor of the journal of heritage tourism" in his article titled "contemporary cultural heritage and tourism" stated in turn that the trend to expand heritage products to include other features that were not previously considered as attractive product by visitors. Archaeological sites are now the biggest challenge to the local economy, bringing in foreign currency and a real source of national income (Rahal et al., 2020). Pecqueur, 2001, "a professor in urban planning and development at the University of Grenoble Alpes in his research work "quality and territorial development" has considered each good or specific offer of the territory as a quality product, by the effect of the "basket of goods" this model is based on all the goods of a territory that become subsequently "leading products" that attract and reinforces the overall quality of the territory and attract tourists. The city of Constantine is facing development challenges like all cities, although it does not lack capacities (cultural and natural) that can be used as a new economic source through the creation of projects in the tourism sector and contribution to the local economy by focusing on factors worthy of advancing and mobilizing the development cycle of this city and its territories (Naidja and Benidir, 2017).

The role of local actors in promoting tourism and preserving heritage

Territorial actors are those who build the image of a tourist destination to strengthen the attractiveness of the region with the aim of attracting the highest number of tourists. The actors' role is to integrate the territory into a tourism policy (Violier, 2008), and previous research indicates that tourism and heritage are linked and often inseparable from each other. Nevertheless, the outcome of this correlation depends on the degree of participation of the general public and the involvement of different actors in the tourism sector in promoting tourism (Lak et al., 2019). Also, tourism helps involve native peoples in exploring development options, and is considered a strategic asset to encourage development in some areas with potential for tourism attraction (Cappuci, 2016; Cárdenas-García et al., 2015; Kodir, 2018). Several authors in this topic, encourage the involvement of communities and locals in tourism development policies. Add to this literature that political decentralization of tourism development from central to local governments is important to ensure effective tourism development and to create a cohesive tourism network in developing countries. The diversity of stakeholders is a crucial factor in the tourism development process, as each stakeholder's position, knowledge and privileges will stimulate the mobilization and performance of the process (Kimbu et al., 2013). Citizen participation in heritage protection is generally achieved through associations that bring together groups to preserve cultural heritage (Drouin, 2004), the awareness of civil society on the importance of heritage in all its dimensions led to increased public involvement in the heritage conservation and positively impacted the quality of some products in historic districts and heritage sites. The current debate on the citizen's contribution to cultural heritage protection focuses on the local environment, so it is important to emphasize that heritage involves the living environment, i.e. citizens, and that the survival of heritage is not limited to preserving it, but to using it so that it can remain dynamic and alive, hence the need for public involvement in the preservation of tangible and intangible cultural heritage (Krim, 2010).

One of the approaches that can be used in the development and planning of tourism studies is the community approach model known as the participatory approach (Prabhakaran et al., 2014). This approach is based on the local community alignments to maintain the local culture and improving its well-being (Ernawati et al., 2014). The community also plays an important role in tourism development (Marlina et al., 2020). However, the community will be encouraged to participate in tourism activities if they know the positive benefits of tourism (Suwantoro, 1997; Thomas, 2007). There are several models of community empowerment development. One is to increase marketing and accessibility, improve quality and service through human resource development (Goodwin, 2002; Astina et al., 2021). The community can actively participate in land use planning (Yankholmes, 2018). Overall the local decision-making involvement is done through the determination of the objectives and resolutions of the latter. This involves the government parties to give voice to the residents and discuss with them to determine their concerns and expectations in tourism, and take into consideration the views of other stakeholders in decision-making, this will even help to raise the standard of living of its inhabitants and even the level of education improves, increasing their income, thus creating job positions, and contributes to the decrease in the unemployment rate (Brohman, 1996).

Cultural tourism impacts on the territory

Development is too often defined in terms of planning and market efficiency, at the expense of the more generalized improvement or development community residents, is considered a transformation process or change from one state to another more advanced, the term local: often refers to the notion of territory, i. e. the word local development: refers to the stage of territorial transformation (which is carried out at the level of the territory), in its multiple dimensions: political, administrative, cultural, taken in charge by the local actors (Rees and Fasenfest, 1997). Cultural tourism is probably the oldest of the "new" tourism phenomena. People have been traveling for what we now call cultural tourism reasons since Roman times, although this was not previously recognized as a distinct group of travelers. Visiting historical sites, cultural landmarks, attending special events and festivals, or visiting museums have always been part of the overall tourism experience. Indeed, there is a cultural element to all travel (Du Cros and McKercher, 2014). In the classical approach, the territory is called "space" and it is considered as a support that offers resources that can be transformed into attractive territorial products (Alloui-Ami Moussa, 2021). Cultural tourism development provides potential short-and long-term economic tools benefiting communities (MacDonald and Jolliffe, 2003). According to (Cousin, 2008), cultural tourism is "beneficial" for the territories they cover and they condemn the harmful effects of large-scale tourism in local cultural institutions national or international, because is a harmless process, honorable and respectful for the place and fit of the population. Today, the importance attached to culture and towards cultural tourist attractions is increasing, and the recognition of the originality of the cultural property can only bring value for the territory it hosts declared (Grelet and Vivant, 2014). Constantine, during the event "Capital of Arab Culture 2015", benefited from a series of renovation operations carried out on cultural and tourist infrastructures and a rehabilitation and restoration of heritage, as well as a significant number of cultural facilities and tourist infrastructures on its territory. The event policy has proved that Constantine can welcome thousands of tourists every year on its territory, and develop a model of local cultural tourism, which could positively influence the development of its territory, while respecting the criteria of sustainable tourism development and respect for heritage (Soualah and Benabbas-Kaghouche, 2017).

STUDY AREA

The city of Constantine is located in the east of Algeria at a latitude of 36.23 ° N and a longitude of 7.35 °E, thus occupying a distinct region with suitable topography, within the hill atlas between the coastline and the northern border of the desert, as it is 245 km far from the Algerian- Tunisian eastern borders, 431 km from Algiers in the west, 235 km from the town of Biskra in the south, and 89 km from the town of Skikda in the north. as shown on the map above (Figure 2). The strategic location allowed it to play an important role in the Algerian East, which it mediates geographically through historical functional relations, which increased the importance of the city on the economic, social, cultural and political levels as the meeting point of all land and air transport, and an industrial economic center at the national level, especially in the rank in the ranking of Algerian cities after Algiers and Oran (ONS, 2011). During the reign of Emperor Augustus, the region of Mauritania was ceded to Juba II and Cirta became part of Numidia, itself attached to the province of Africa Nova. The south of Cirta is meanwhile a strictly military sector where luxurious buildings were erected. At the beginning of the third century AD, under the emperor Septimius Severus, Numidia became a separate province. In the 4th century AD, it was the center of Donatism, a heretical Christian movement. Later, the emperor Maxentius succeeded in seizing Cirta and destroyed it completely in the year 311. The reconstruction of Cirta is the work of the emperor Constantine I the Great to which he gives his name. The Numidian city of Cirta thus became Constantine in 313. This new name remained until today with a few changes due to the local dialect based on the Arabic language to produce the present and official name of Constantine. Only a few rare vestiges of Roman Cirta remain, the main ones being the capitol (the current Kasbah) which represented the rampart of the old city, as well as the Triumphal Arch which was the entrance of the capitol (Thomas, 1955).

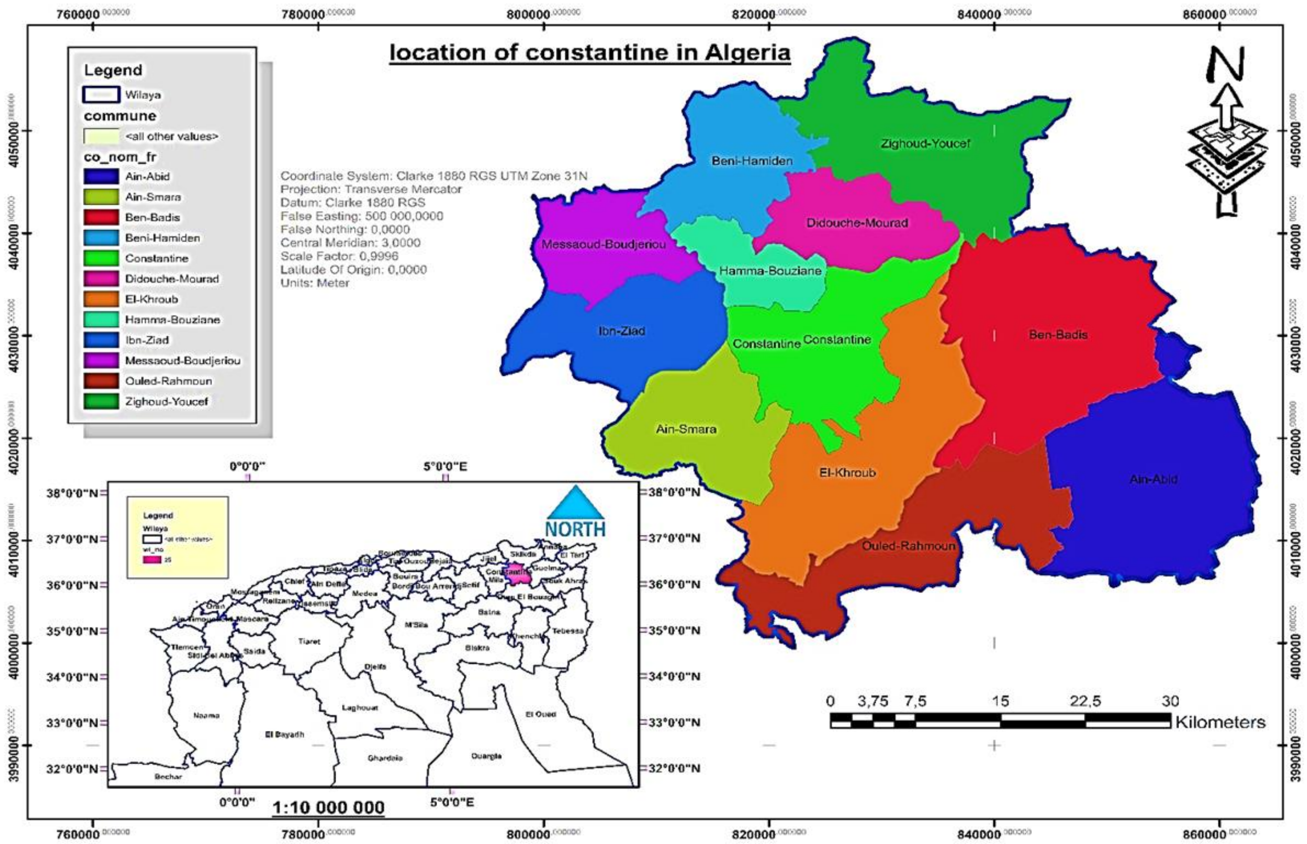

Figure 2. Geographical location of Constantine (Source: Authors, 2020)

Every square meter of the city is an open-air museum, the different civilizations that have succeeded each other on the territory of Constantine have left their mark through vestiges, some of which have resisted the effects of time, such as: « TIDDIS » Figure 3(a): One of the most important archaeological and tourist sites, is located about thirty kilometers northwest of Constantine «The monument of the dead» Figure 3(b). This funerary monument was built in 1934 to celebrate the memory of the French soldiers who died in the First World War. The medina Figure 3(c): The medina of Constantine is called the "Rock" because it is built on a limestone block. It is built in layers from the Kasbah to the lower districts of the Souika. The religious heritage: Constantine has about a hundred mosques: «The Emir Abdelkader mosque» Figure 3(d), dates back to the 1980s and is part of the Islamic University of Sciences. «The city of suspended bridges»: Among the oldest bridges of Constantine, there is that of «Bab el Kantara » Figure 3(e), built in the second century by the Roman emperor Antonin the Pious, and the bridge of« Sidi Rached » Figure 3(f), is considered the longest stone bridge in the world. **«**Gardens and orchards»: For a long time Constantine was known for its gardens and orchards, scattered around the city. This reputation is still relevant today, Constantine has many public gardens that soften the air of the city and give it a touch of green restful and soothing. Among these green spaces, the Ben Nacer garden, also called garden of the rich, located in the heart of the boulevard of Bab el oued. Without forgetting the forest of « Djebale el ouahch » Figure 3(g), with a total area of 3522 Ha, natural space of relaxation implanted in full heart of a dance forest cover .

Figure 3.The most well-known cultural and natural heritage assets in Constantine: (a) Tiddis, (b) The monument of dead, (c)The medina, (d) The Emir Abdelkader, (e) Bab el Kantra, (f) Sidi Rached, (g) Djbal El Ouahch (Source: Taken by the authors 2020)

Figure 4.Traditionnal industries: (a)Traditional local dress, (b) Brassware, (c) Chebah Essafra, (d) Jawzia (Source: Taken by the authors 2020)

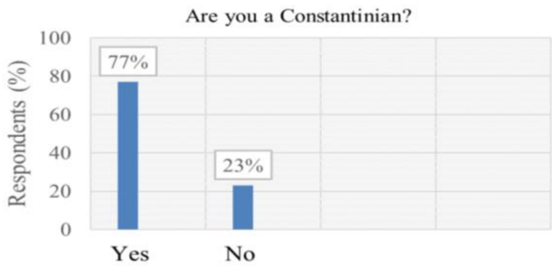

Figure 5. Origins of respondents

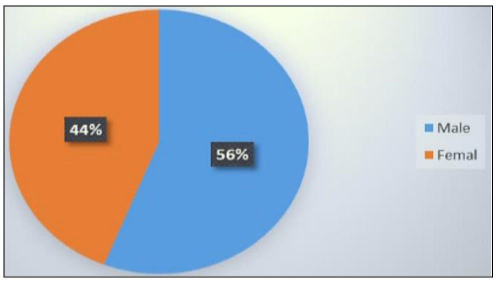

Figure 6. Repartition Male /Femal

Table 1. Cronbach's Alpha Reliability

		Number	Percentage %
Observation	Valid	305	99,7
	excluded	1	0,3
	Total	306	100,0

The city is known for its traditional Constantinian dress Figure 4(a), often associated with traditional jewelry considered to be one of the oldest crafts. Several events and local festivals contribute to the cultural animation of the city: the spring distillation of flowers and roses each year the teqtare the production of essences and aromas is amongst the traditions that have been preserved and passed on from one generation to another. Handicraft activity remains important, including brassware Figure 4(b) and copper trays with Ottoman-inspired motifs. The city also features a rich culinary heritage, both Muslim and Jewish. Among the culinary specialties that are eaten during the month of Ramadan, "Tadjine el Ain", made of prunes with almonds and meat sprinkled with fine sugar, El djari, Chorba made of dried, roasted and crushed wheat, "Chbah essafra" Figure 4(c) There are also many pasta-based dishes from Constantine, such as Chakhchoukha. The local pastry is also varied, such as "jawzia" Figure 4(d) (SDATW, 2013).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In order to understand the close relationship between local actors and cultural heritage towards a development of local cultural tourism, a survey of 20 questions was conducted online from April 15 to May 30, 2020 involving more than 300 people through social networks and groups dedicated to Ph.D. students and university researchers and several associations active in the promotion of tourism and preservation of cultural heritage in Constantine. 77 % of respondents are inhabitants of Constantine city, the remaining 23% are from different regions of the country (Figure 5). 56% of respondents are male (Figure 6). The questionnaire includes different types of questions according to the desired information. Open questions allow the respondents to answer freely and express their opinion on the subject in order to collect clear and precise information. The second category includes Likert scale questions which are often used to judge the degree of satisfaction and agreement. The third category consists of multiple-choice questions that provide the respondent with a list of answers. These qualitative questions are the most common, and their success is due to their ease of processing, which is a reliable and well-structured means of data collection. Indeed, closed questions are suitable for data analysis, whereas answers to open questions require data entry and manual processing. Other issues have disrupted the survey mainly due to COVID-19 crisis that affected people's daily life. The respondent usually does not take the survey immediately when it is sent, or must be reminded to do so at a later date. the questionnaire distributed online does not work properly sometimes because of the strong disruption of the Internet connection in Algeria, for this a telephone survey was used and it remains an effective method but also more expensive. The analysis was carried out to approximate the current situation of tourism development in Constantine and to assess the sample's awareness of cultural tourism development in the city. Cronbach's alpha (Table1) is a practical test often used when a survey/questionnaire includes multiple Likert questions to determine the scale's reliability. In general, if Cronbach's alpha is greater than 0.7, the scale is considered to be highly correlated. In our case, the results of the survey indicate a 99.7% alpha coefficient for a list of 20 questions. This suggests that the items have a relatively high internal consistency, which ensures the validity and reliability of the survey.

CHARACTERISTICS SAMPLE

The survey was distributed to 306 people and collected opinions of local population of Constantine regarding cultural tourism development in their city. The majority of respondents (77.2%) were inhabitants of the city, while residents from different Algerian provinces accounted for 22.8% of the sample indicating that the study was based mainly on the native population. 55.8% of the sample were men and 44.2% were women. The age range that dominated was 21 years to 41 years, the majority of them were in higher education (55.2% have a Bac+5 and 30.1% have Bac+2). The individuals included in our sample have a relatively high level of education as shown in (Table 2). Finally, students were the most common socio-professional category (39.2%), followed by employees (35%). These results brought us closer to the target category (Table3).

Table 2. Sample profile

Origin	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Constantinian	236	77.2
Non Constantinian	70	22.8
Gender :	Frequency	Percentage %
Female	135	44.2
Male	171	55.8
Level of education :	Frequency	Percentage %
Bac+2	92	30.1
Bac + 5	169	55.2
Primary	45	14.7
Age	Frequency	Percentage %
Less than 20 years old	44	14.3
From 21 to 41 years old	170	55.5
From 42 to 62 years old	60	19.6
63 years old and more	32	10.4
Total	306	100%

To compute the mean of a series of values presented by intervals, the following formula is used: $\bar{X}$= Sum of (centers of intervals X their coefficients) / total number.

Table 3. Socio-professional profile of respondents

Socio-professional categ ry:	**Frequency:**	**Percentage %)**
Retailer	18	06
Employee	106	35
Worker	13	4.2
Retired	32	10.4
Student	120	39.2
Housewife	10	3.2
Unemployed	07	02
Total	306	100%

Table 4. The local population perception of a cultural tourism development in the city of Constantine (Completed by authors)

The perception of the local population	Number:	Mean:	Standard deviation:
What is tourism cultural according to you	306	1.81	0.961
Constantine has all the assets to make it an international tourist product	306	4.30	0.563
what are the obstacles to the development of cultural tourism	306	3.89	0.315
What do you think of the development of this type of tourism in Constantine	306	3.73	0.445
∑Axe 01	306	3.43	0.57

The standard deviation formula by (Grenier and Modulad, 2007) is :

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{|X_i - \mu|}{n}^{2}}$$

Where "$\sum$" is the sum, "x_i "is the value of the statistical series, "μ" is its arithmetic mean, and "n" is its number of respondents.

Table 5. The role of local actors in the preservation of the cultural heritage of their city (Completed by authors)

The role of local actors	Number	Mean	Standard deviation
In your opinion, how could we raise awareness of local cultural heritage	306	4.24	0.544
Are you willing to invest to increase awareness of heritage protection	306	3.86	0.351
Tourism actors have an active role in the protection of cultural heritage in your region	306	3.96	0.253
∑ Axis 2	306	4.02	0.38
Total of the axes	306	3.94	0.47

The inhabitants of Constantine are willing to commit their time (and/or) skills to raise awareness about the cultural heritage: the mean for this variable is equal to $\overline{X}$=4.24 and it is higher than the theoretical mean which is equal to (3), with a standard deviation of σ =0.544. The mean of this variable is the highest in this axis and even exceeded the total mean so the significance is totally positive, this means that the inhabitants of Constantine are convinced by the idea of participating in raising awareness about the cultural heritage of their city. The means of raising awareness of the cultural heritage (tangible and intangible) of the city: the arithmetic mean of this variable is equal to $\overline{X}$=3.86 it is higher than the theoretical mean (2.5) with a standard deviation σ =0.351, so the inhabitants of the city know the means of raising awareness of the heritage, and even propose to organize days of awareness on the heritage of the city and involve local associations to take care of it. Evaluation of the level of professionalism of the actors in charge of heritage protection: the average is equal to $\overline{X}$=3.96 and it is higher than the theoretical average (3), with standard deviation σ =0.253, this indicates that the tourism actors have an active role in the protection of the local heritage of the city of Constantine.

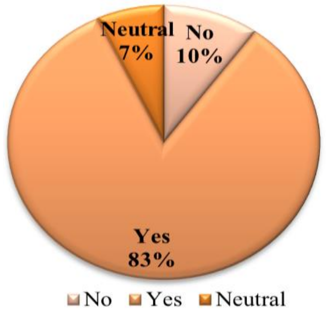

Figure 7. Economic performance of tourism (Own results, 2020)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

According to the results of the survey (Figure7), 83% of the participants answered yes and believe that cultural tourism development positively contributes to the city's economy and creates viable and profitable economic activities for the local population of Constantine. 10% from total respondents answered no, justifying their opinions by the lack of professionals and experts in this sector and the need for proper planning and a lot of resources and experience to ensure a return. 7% from total respondents preferred not to answer this question. The interest of Constantine's inhabitants for their heritage assets is reflected in their answers as shown in Figure 10. Indeed, over half (55%) of the respondents totally agree that the city of Constantine has all the assets to become an international tourist destination. 55% of respondents believe that the cultural heritage of Constantine can be a main element to promote cultural tourism, knowing that (77%) of the answers were from the inhabitants of Constantine (Table 2).42% of the respondents are willing to invest their time (and/or) skills (and/or) money) to raise awareness about the cultural heritage of Constantine, considering that 70% of the sample were employees and students, indicating that the majority do not have the means to cover these expenses (Table 3). The people of Constantine are proud of their heritage and are attached to their identity and traditions, so it is necessary to involve them in the upcoming enhancement and preservation projects of the local cultural heritage. When local citizens participate in these projects, they develop a sense of respect for their city that positively reflects on all members of the community.

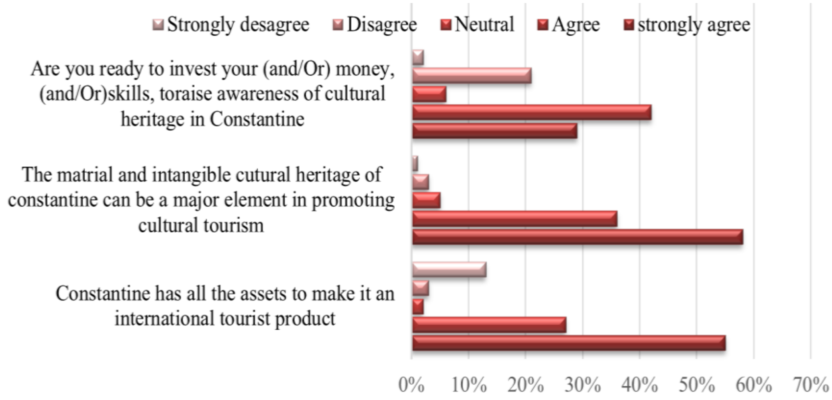

Figure 8. Perception of the local population regarding the development of cultural tourism in Constantine (Own results, 2020)

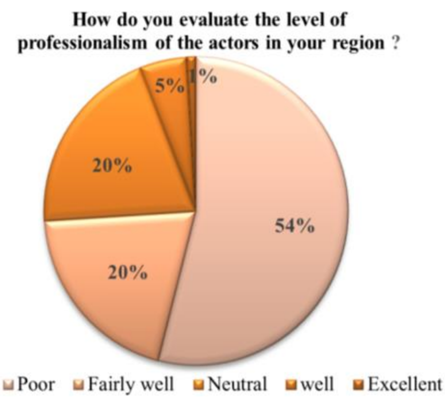

Figure 9. Professionalism level of tourism actors in Constantine (Own results, 2020)

Over half of the respondents (54%) are not satisfied with the professionalism of the tourism actors in their city. They feel that these actors are poorly trained and therefore affect the promotion of tourism in the city (Figure 9). The first national network gathering all the actors of the tourism chain engaged in the development of tourism are the travel operators responsible of planning the tourist stays. They gather many services (airlines, hotels, restaurants, tourist guides). For this reason, their professionalism must be improved and the actors must commit to keep enhancing their tourism sector to create a dynamic tourism activity and a cooperation between the main operators working in the sector. The first axis of the survey contained questions that were designed to determine what cultural tourism means to the local population of Constantine, how they perceive the development of this type of tourism in their city and how they view the heritage and cultural potentialities that exist in the territory of Constantine. Although the individuals in our sample have a relatively high level of education, the results of the study indicate that cultural tourism remains a vague concept for the vast majority of Constantine's inhabitants. In addition, they lack sufficient understanding of the meaning of cultural tourism due to the limited tourist culture of Constantine's inhabitants in particular and of Algerians in general.

The questions of this study revolved around the cultural heritage of Constantine (tangible and intangible), the results of the study enabled to confirm that local inhabitants attach great importance to the local cultural heritage and are aware of the heritage assets value of their city, and encourage the exploitation of these in the tourist activity. This would highlight the counter hypothesis that the development of cultural tourism does not depend on the potentialities that cover the territory, but on the way it is perceived by the local actors. Nevertheless, in the 2nd axis and according to the obtained results we can reject the counter hypothesis and not refuse the "null hypothesis" in this case, the local actors do not play an active role in the preservation of the heritage in the city of Constantine, because they do not promote and develop the tourist products of this region and are not committed to the protection and conservation of cultural heritage. These comments allowed us to draw a series of conclusions presented in a table exhibiting the triggering factors and the strong points and actions to be considered for the development of a cultural tourism in the Constantine city (Table 6).

Table 6. Factors to be taken into account for the development of cultural tourism in Constantine

Triggering factors	Action
Undeniable cultural tourist assets (tangible, intangible) of Constantine and the diversity of its natural landscapes and climate	Better exploitation of the tourism sector because it plays a primordial role in the economy of several countries. (A sector that creates jobs and a factor of socio-economic balance). The promotion and development of tourist products adapted to the exploitation of the diversity of the wealth. The early presence of professional practice placements in tourism programs illustrates this (Airey, 2008)
The cultural and historical archaeological heritage	Can become a major attraction for the city and a destination of choice for all types of tourists. The enhancement of the most characteristic sites and monuments of Constantine's history.
An intellectual elite interested in the development of cultural tourism	Promote post-graduate training (Master/Doctorate) focused on tourism, which should include high quality studies in the most prestigious universities. To increase the demand for training in the field of tourism and catering in accordance with international standards. The modernization of tourism activities and the training of well qualified personnel Obtain support from the Algerian state to provide funds to local and foreign individuals wishing to invest in tourism infrastructure, offering short-term and mid-term tax benefits.(Souiher et Rezzaz, 2020)
An intellectual elite interested in the development of cultural tourism	Involve the public authorities with their ideas and knowledge and engage the local population in the promotion of tourism. Encourage stakeholders to be engaged Create a political and social culture of dialogue needed by the population of Constantine. Allow the people concerned to express themselves Connecting policy makers and citizens. Implementation of programs through local community presentations To support the cooperation between tourism agents and the community involved in the development of cultural tourism. (Alves, 2018a). Harder infrastructures such as educational and research institutes cultural facilities and high-grade communication channels (Cooke et Lazzeretti, 2008)

In order to model the purpose of this study, a study purpose categorization model (**SPIP**) was conducted based on the following principles (Safing / Participating / Influence / Promoting) inspired by the Brazilian model of (Alves, 2018).

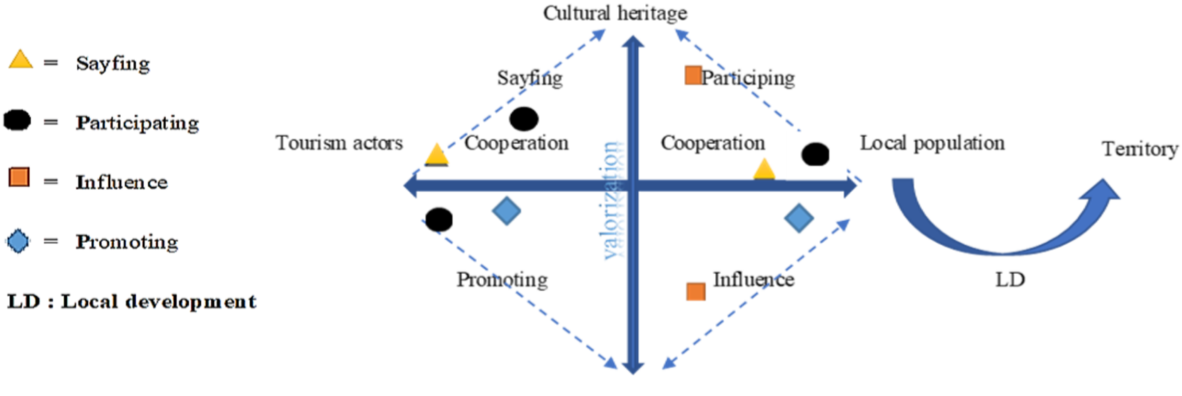

Figure10. A Principles-Based Study Objective Categorization Model (SPIP) (author’s elaboration)

The population participation in the process of tourism development, however, this approach integrates civil society through the awareness of civil society to the importance of cultural heritage. Moreover, it ensures the understanding of tourism with the development of educational and informative materials aimed at the general public with a simple language, illustrated with local real and accessible to attract the intention and interest of the inhabitants of Constantine (Hanai et al., 2011). The government has implemented many programs and plans to resolve those problems. All failed because they took a political approach based on centralised management which neglected the participation of local actors (Alouat, 2019). Understanding the relationship between information and technologies (ICT) and sustainable tourism industry is going to continue its growth and prosperity (Ali and Frew, 2014). It is also important to stimulate the use of ICT (Information and Communication Technology) in public administrations, so that information is safe and available everywhere and at any time, and to strengthen the use of ICT in tourism businesses by developing online services, as the internet has become today a fast way of use and a useful booking tool for tourists (Kelfaoui et al., 2021).How ICTs can be implemented to promote and measure well-being in tourism settings is, thus, a topic that that will continue to gain in importance (Gretzel and Stankov ,2021). Successful tourism development projects are those that involve society in decision-making, which is not the case in Constantine. There should be cooperation, between the private and the public sector (Petersen et al., 1999). Tourism education is an essential step that must be implemented in Constantine schoolchildren. This will allow children to better understand their territory and be more aware of tourism issues. This means implementing a tourist culture among the inhabitants from their young ages (Alves, 2018b).

The cohesion between all the concerned actors and the involvement of each part of the society is a very important step to concretize a model of cultural tourism development (SPIP) in Constantine, as shown in (Figure11).This model is based on the following two principles: "Sayfing, and Participating", the respect of these principles contribute to the awareness of cultural heritage protection (tangible and intangible). The illicit traffic of cultural goods and the revalorization of historical sites of the city and the improvement of the city's image. This can boost its attractiveness through the participation of the different actors of tourism, and the qualified and well-trained personnel to promote tourism. Thus the application of the principle "Promoting" because the cultural heritage specialists are considered more experienced and more competent than the other stakeholders of the destination, but without the help of the community they cannot become experts in heritage management. Even if cultural tourism has a positive impact on the territory, improves its economy and turns into a sector that creates jobs and contributes to local development. it is a factor of socio-economic balance, so the respect of all these elements contributes to the concretization of a model towards a development of local cultural tourism in the city of Constantine, exploiting their potentialities "cultural and natural" in the tourist activity while respecting the norms and the good practices for the exploitation.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study demonstrate a lack of awareness of cultural tourism among the region's inhabitants. It is therefore urgent to communicate these notions to the sector by showing the importance of cultural tourism and the extent of its positive impact on the local development of the region. The tourist culture is a notion that has become quite frequent in recent years in the vocabulary of tourism and constitutes an intrinsic product of development since it is presented as a Co-construction. This tourist culture finds its source in the traditions related to hospitality insofar as it is no longer limited to the behavior of tourists but rather as a fundamental element of the culture of the society (Kadri, 2021). All the elements of the study objectives categorization model are necessary and adequate conditions for the revitalization of tangible and intangible cultural heritage and therefore partnerships between the public and private sectors for the conservation of the historic urban environment play an increasingly essential role in the process of developing cultural tourism in the city. Interactive spaces are a way of new forms of power are created, as different social groups and individuals occupy distinct power positions in relation to different aspects of tourism development (Cole, 2006). Large built facilities located in tourist nodes have the best chance of being popular, so cultural venues must function primarily as attractions to be popular (McKercher et al., 2004).

Given the importance of this thousand-year-old city and its role as a regional capital and economic metropolis, and given its privileged geographical location, its administrative, economic, scientific and cultural weight, in addition to the other potentialities at its disposal, Constantine can welcome thousands of tourists every year, whether to work, trade, study or discover its undeniable heritage and cultural diversity, but without the association of its different elements of the model (Figure 10), tourism will not emerge in this city.

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Article history: Received: 03.08.2021 Revised: 17.11.2021 Accepted: 23.12.2021 Available online: 10.01.2022

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.20-29
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40102-798

TRAINING NEEDS ASSESSMENT FOR SMALL BUSINESSES: THE CASE OF THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY IN JORDAN

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Citation: Hyasat, A.S., Al-Weshah, G.A., & Kakeesh, D.F. (2022). TRAINING NEEDS ASSESSMENT FOR SMALL BUSINESSES: THE CASE OF THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY IN JORDAN. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 20–29. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40102-798

Abstract: This study is designed to assess and identify the status of hospitality training needs, methods and potential challenges within the hospitality industry, in order to recognize gaps and develop training programmes that address and enhance the competitiveness of small businesses within it. A qualitative approach was employed, whereby face-to-face and semi-structured interviews were conducted with 60 owners and managers of small businesses in the hospitality industry. Using thematic analysis, the study concludes that communication skills, especially foreign languages, are the most the important training need at both managerial and operational levels. Moreover, the study found that on-the-job training is one of the most important training methods. Furthermore, a lack of training budgets is found to be the most critical challenge to training. The study provides empirical evidence and practical implications for decision-makers in the hospitality industry.

Key words: labour skills, training needs, small businesses, services, interviews, qualitative approach, hospitality industry, tourism sector, Jordan

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INTRODUCTION

Despite the current negative impact of the coronavirus (Covid-19) on the hospitality industry, there is a still need for hospitality employees to continue learning and training in order to improve guest services. Training programmes for the employees are seen as one of the most important areas in the hospitality industry (Juan, 2017; Baum, 2015; Tracey, 2014). Training for employees is, therefore, vital to ensure quality of service and achieving business goals (Al-Ababneh et al., 2017; Brown et al., 2009). Thus, well-designed training is crucial for any hospitality business. Also, the fact that international guests have multi-cultural backgrounds underpins the urgency for training to prepare employees who are capable of interacting with diverse cultures, religions and ethnicities. Moreover, the quality of service in the hospitality industry does not depend only on location or brand name. It also involves the level of the employee's knowledge – at both practical and theoretical levels; such knowledge should include the employee`s attitude, professional customs, respect shown to guests and other skills that are needed to offer better quality service to guests (Brown et al., 2009; Tracey, 2014; Hartline and Ferrell, 1996; Heskett et al., 1997; Sergeant and Frenkel, 2000).

Therefore, employees in the hospitality industry play a major role in delivering service quality as part of small business performance (Al-Weshah, 2018; Juan, 2017; Baum, 2015; Tracey, 2014). Owners and managers of small businesses worldwide should start to recognize the importance of employees for their businesses, and they should acknowledge that more attention must be paid to employees' capabilities in order to empower and enhance their skills to deliver high quality service (Zhao et al., 2004; Rawashdeh, 2018). However, the hospitality industry faces many obstacles and is seen as a most competitive environment where human resources in the tourism environment play a critical role for organizations wishing to succeed with their services and efforts (Juan, 2017; Baum, 2015). Therefore, generating and supporting a competitive advantage through improving employees' skills is a key goal of small businesses in the hospitality industry (Juan, 2017; Al-Weshah, 2019a). To achieve this goal, owners and managers in the hospitality industry need to improve their employees' skills and develop more valued human assets (Rawashdeh, 2018; Kakeesh et al., 2021). Training programmes and practices for employees can be seen as a source of human resources in order to gain some advantage over competitors (Jehanzeb et al., 2013; Al-Weshah, 2017). Within this concept, there is a clear relationship between employees' skills and the need for training programmes (Al-Weshah, 2019a). This kind of relationship can be observed when a training programme improves the skills of employees in the marketplace. It can also be observed when a training programme delivers solutions to the labour market (Baum, 2015).

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Therefore, it is crucial for small hospitality businesses to keep their eyes on the pulse of the skills and training needed to prepare their employees to be competitive in the marketplace (Zehrer and Mössenlechner, 2009; Al-Ababneh et al., 2017). However, there appears to be a large gap between what is essential for employees in the hospitality industry to improve their skills and what can be gained from training centres (Al-Weshah, 2018; Hearns et al., 2007; Barrie, 2006; Kember and Leung, 2005). According to a report buplished by the Jordan Strategy Forum (JSF), most policymakers within the Jordanian hospitality industry consider the industry to be non-professional, and they believe that employees within the industry have limited skills (JSF, 2020). At the same time, most employees view the hospitality industry as a sector which they can enter without skills gained through training (JSF, 2020).

Additionally, the result of these circumstances is a high turnover rate. Yet, the general perception is that jobs in the Jordanian hospitality industry offer no motivation for would-be employees (JSF, 2020). In line with the above, the importance of this paper is to investigate small hospitality businesses in order to highlight gaps and address training needs. Generally speaking, in a dynamic industry such as hospitality, the demand for skilled workers is high (Al-Khasawneh, 2013; Al-Ababneh et al., 2017). In addition, the paper is also designed to assist in raising the standard of service quality and boosting competitiveness within the hospitality industry, improving the consumer experience and helping policymakers within the hospitality industry establish and maintain high service standards.

Aims and objectives of the study

The purpose of this study is to investigate small hospitality businesses and assess their employees' training needs, challenges and methods. Thus, this study acknowledges the gap between current and desired standards and suggests training programmes to bridge this gap and boost the competitiveness of small businesses within the Jordanian hospitality industry. More specifically, the objectives of the study are to:

- Assess the training needs in Jordanian small hospitality businesses at both managerial and operational levels;
- Explore relevant training methods that can be adopted to improve staff skills in small hospitality businesses;
- Identify potential challenges for staff training in small hospitality businesses.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Small businesses' perception of training

In all industries worldwide, human resources play a crucial role in their products in terms of quality and quantity. The service sector, including the hospitality industry, mainly depends on well-trained and educated individuals who work in different types of businesses (Becker and Huselid, 2006; Combs et al., 2006; Paauwe, 2009). Human resources are the most important element of competitive advantage within the hospitality industry. In addition, human resources are an essential feature for hospitality success, both as a means of satisfying ever-increasing customer expectations, and as a way to achieve business profitability (Becker and Huselid, 2006; Combs et al., 2006; Paauwe, 2009; Kakeesh and Ahmad, 2020). Nowadays, providing regular training for employees is one of the best ways to remain competitive in this industry (Fleming et al., 2008; 2009). On the other hand, lack of training, skills and knowledge can lead to a drastic drop in visitor numbers, a decline in repeat business, insufficient tourists for specific markets and attracting only seasonal visitors to specific destinations (Kadiresan et al., 20I5). Within this concept, human resource management (HRM) in any organization should focus on the association between an organization`s HRM systems and its performance (Huselid and Becker, 2010).

The published literature on strategic HRM emphasizes the significant positive impact of high-performance work systems along with employee training (Becker and Huselid, 2006; Combs et al., 2006; Paauwe, 2009). Specifically, research has established that organization performance is improved when training programmes are implemented for employees (Huselid and Becker, 2010). The literature on the hospitality industry also stresses how individual human resource practices can affect organization performance. For example, Tracey and Tews (2004) investigated the impact of training programmes on two measures of organization practice, i.e., employee turnover and sales growth. They collected data from managers and non-managerial staff who were working in 22 units of a national restaurant chain. The researchers found that training programmes had a very positive impact on employees who were working in restaurants, in terms of both the organization's performance and the employees' practices (Tracey, 2014; Al-Weshah, 2018). They also found that training programmes delivered to employees reduced employee turnover and increased restaurant sales (Tracey and Tews, 2004). Tracey (2014) also investigated how training programmes delivered to the employees in 16 restaurants and 15 hotels might impact on customer satisfaction. They found that training programmes had a positive impact on customer satisfaction (Tracy et al., 2015).

In line with the above, the management of people aims to obtain a competitive advantage for the organization`s performance and this is exactly what HRM is all about (Becker and Huselid, 2006). One of the most effective human resource practices is training, which is well known as one of the essential practices of HRM, it contributes significantly to organizational competitiveness. Nowadays, organizations within the hospitality industry should concentrate on training practices and activities in order to improve their performance and increase their growth (Rawashdeh, 2018). Also, it has been proven that training increases job satisfaction, and thus loyalty to the company (Chiang et al., 2005). Certainly, employees are described by many researchers as a major asset in any business organization. Overall, it is vital for any business organization to capitalize on training programmes and establish a specialized training department (Kadiresan et al., 2015; Rawashdeh and Al-Adwan, 2012; Ramendram et al., 2014; Kakeesh and Ahmad, 2020).

To this end, training is seen as the most important element for growth that policymakers – within the hospitality industry – should take into account. Such training programmes are crucial and essential for employees in hospitality organizations, as it is described as the most competitive industry within the service sector worldwide (Kadiresan et al., 2015; Jehanzeb et al., 2013). The benefits to be gained from such training programmes for owners and managers in hospitality organizations include improving and developing their employees and keeping them up-to-date with required skills and knowledge (Ramendram et al., 2014; Lee and Bugler, 2017). Moreover, when a hospitality organization provides employees with training, it contributes greatly to organizational commitment, it improves their skills and competencies, and it provides employees with future opportunities (Kadiresan et al., 2015; Jehanzeb et al., 2013; Al-Weshah et al., 2021). On the other hand, employees appreciate the investment of hospitality organizations in training programmes and see it as a sign of loyalty to them (Scheible and Bastos, 2013; Yang et al., 2012).

Table 1. Jobs Generated by Tourism in Jordan, 2019-2021 (Source: USAID Building Economic Sustainability Through Tourism Project, 2020)

Sector	2019	2020	2021
Accommodation	14,421	7,808	11,838
Food and Beverage	19,598	10,611	16,089
Land and Sea Passenger	17,538	9,496	14,397
Air Passenger	3,793	2,053	3,113
Travel Agencies and Similar	5,112	2,768	4,197
Entertainment	4,384	2,374	3,599
Other Goods and Services	32,104	17,382	26,354
TOTAL	**96,950**	**52,491**	**79,587**

Tourism employment statistics in Jordan

Table (1) shows that an estimated 96,950 jobs were generated by tourism in Jordan in 2019. However, due to the Covid- 19 pandemic tourism demand was dropped in 2020, these was filled to around 52,500 (a drop of almost 46% or around 44,500 fewer jobs required). The bounce-back is expected to be strong, and by 2021 it is estimated that over 79,587 jobs will be created by tourism in Jordan. Given the aforementioned information, Jordan must focus on promising employment sectors such as tourism to increase its economic growth. Jordan should also overcome employment challenges by focusing on creating more jobs within the Jordanian hospitality industry (USAID, 2020). To conclude, given the aforementioned information, Jordan must focus on promising employment sectors such as tourism to increase its economic growth. Jordan should also overcome employment challenges by focusing on creating more jobs within the Jordanian hospitality industry (JSF, 2020).

The challenges of training in tourism

As mentioned above, the hospitality industry as service businesses mostly depends upon human resources in order to be successful, pursue business growth and remain competitive (Becker and Huselid, 2006; Combs et al., 2006; Paauwe, 2009). The quality of service in the sector should be of a high standard and must meet customers' expectations (Kadiresan et al., 2015; Rawashdeh and Al-Adwan, 2012). Owners and managers in the hospitality industry must, therefore, take into consideration that they have to keep their employees updated by giving them annual training (Tracey, 2014). However, there are many challenges that managers and owners of small businesses face in developing such training programmes for their employees. The first most common challenge is when managers in small businesses have to develop a training programme for their employees that can meet employee needs and at the same time match their marketplace requirements (Becker and Huselid, 2006; Combs et al., 2006; Paauwe, 2009; Al-Weshah, 2018). Thus, a successful programme should develop training packages that are suitable for employees' needs and cultural differences (Tracey, 2014). Another challenge in developing a training programme in small businesses is that of choosing a trainer, who should be knowledgeable and qualified to prepare material and deliver it effectively to trainees. Another challenge is the ability of a training programme to meet trainees' needs using consistently high-quality materials across sessions, taking into account that more attention must be paid to setting out a list of criteria for the training programme that should be updated from time to time (Kadiresan et al., 2015; Rawashdeh and Al-Adwan, 2012).

Workplace diversity should also be taken into consideration by managers when talking about developing a training programme; issues such as religion, political attitudes, cultural differences and languages among employees might have a (negative or positive) impact on a training programme being developed (Al-Weshah, 2019a). Moreover, the generation gap between employees in the same hospitality business is another challenge that might prevent a training programme achieving its objectives (JSF, 2020; Becker and Huselid, 2006; Combs et al., 2006; Paauwe, 2009). Another common challenge is the high cost of training which may small businesses to embark on cost-cutting or under-investing in training activities (Young-Thelin and Boluk, 2012; Ramendram et al., 2014). This problem is especially relevant for managers in small businesses who believe that it takes time to see actual results of training, as there is no direct return on training which they can use to justify the high cost of training (Kyriakidou and Maroudas, 2010; Young-Thelin and Boluk, 2012; Ramendram et al., 2014). In the case of Jordan, the challenges do not attract people to work in the hospitality industry since they perceive the industry as having relatively low prestige. Another challenge is the cultural differences that make some workplaces, such as hotels and restaurants, an alien and very challenging environment for employees in Jordan (Becker and Huselid, 2006; Combs et al., 2006; Paauwe, 2009; Al-Weshah, 2018).

Moreover, there is low compensation for employees, and most employees in the Jordanian hospitality industry believe that the industry is neither stable nor permanent and does not offer a sustainable career path (JSF, 2020). Low skills in information technology can be seen as one of the major challenges for small businesses in the tourism and hospitality industry (Al-Weshah, 2018). In addition, there is a big difference between what students are taught at university and what are actually skills required by employers in Jordanian hospitality small businesses (Huselid and Becker, 2010). For example, Jordan's workforce and the Jordanian level of education in the hospitality industry are not competitive compared with other countries such as Lebanon and Egypt (JSF, 2020). According to the same report (JSF, 2020), poor HR procedures, unprofessional behaviour, bad hiring decisions and poor selection result in high employee turnover in the Jordanian hospitality industry. Managers and owners must organize regular seminars and training programmes for hospitality HR and communication training workshops (often their behaviour and words affect people in a bad way); all these issues will enhance their hospitality knowledge and skills, and they can develop positive attitudes along with all the employees and improve overall performance (Chiang et al., 2005; Lee and Bugler, 2017). Thus, a new approach to partnership between universities and policymakers in the public and private sectors within the Jordanian tourism industry should be developed. This partnership should be created by the universities, colleagues, tourism stakeholders and the Jordanian hospitality industry in order to provide students and employees in the hospitality industry with the better skills required for it. In addition, this kind of partnership should provide employees in the Jordanian hospitality industry with an applied framework for effective teamwork among industry policymakers (JSF, 2020).

Types of training methods for small businesses

The literature review revealed that there are weaknesses in the structure and framework of existing training methods (JSF, 2020). Additional efforts are needed to establish new training methods which should focus especially upon small businesses within the hospitality industry. A new framework for organizations should create standardized training methods where the outcomes of such programmes are monitored and evaluated for their effectiveness (Zhao et al., 2004; JSF, 2020). A training methodology should provide a great opportunity for potential employees to gain experience in a particular field or industry, determine if they have an interest in following a particular career, gaining university module credits and creating a network of contacts (Fleming et al., 2008). Training methods may also include the possibility of putting employees or potential employees forward for forthcoming opportunities, after they complete their training programme. Also, part-time work schemes are important for students at university and college by giving them real-life industry experience while getting paid, even though they are not getting any credit hours for their graduation.

Finally, both types of programmes should be equally accessible to both genders (Huselid and Becker, 2010; Fleming et al., 2008; JSF, 2020). Dewhurst et al. (2007) identified the most common different types of training methods used by small business. These can be found in Table 2. Moreover, studies that have investigated different types of training have concluded that there are five main types of training methods that most small businesses use: on-the-job training, computer-based learning, workshops, lectures and seminars, case studies (Dewhurst et al., 2007; Becker and Huselid, 2006; Combs et al., 2006; Paauwe, 2009; Lee and Bugler, 2017).

Table 2. Types of training method programmes (Source: Dewhurst et al., 2007)

	Training Method	Formal or informal training	External training or in the workplace	Training provided by internal or external trainer
1	Academic learning	Formal	External/ off-the-job training	External trainer
2	Government training programmes	Formal	External/ off-the-job training	External trainer
3	On-the-job training provided by local educational institutions	Formal	In the workplace	External trainer
4	Employees given on-the-job training	Informal/formal	In the workplace	Internal trainer (in-house)
5	Learning by practice	Informal	In the workplace	Internal trainer (in-house)
6	Private on-the-job training by internal staff	Formal	In the workplace	External trainer
7	Private on-the-job training by external provider	Formal	External/ off-the-job training	External trainer
8	Distance learning	Formal	Workplace/external training	External trainer
9	Electronic-learning	Formal	Workplace/external training	External trainer

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research Approach and Sample

In this study a qualitative approach was employed, whereby face-to-face interviews were conducted with the targeted sample. Related tourism businesses were chosen to meet the main aims and objectives of the study. There was no list of classified business available at the Ministry of Tourism and Antiquities (MoTA), which led the researcher to adopt a judgmental sample and develop a list based upon their knowledge of the nature of business and its relationship to tourism. Therefore, a judgmental sample of interviewees was selected by the researcher to achieve the study objectives, making sure that all the study`s population was represented. At the beginning 100 participants have been contacted as they gave us initial approval to participate in this study. A qualitative approach was chosen, whereby face-to-face interviews were conducted with the target sample via semi-structured interviews. A judgmental sample was identified amongst tourism and hospitality employers in five geographic areas in Jordan (N=100), namely, Amman, As-Salt, Aqaba, Irbid and Petra. The identification process of the sample was as follows. The participants were general managers and owners from different service businesses: 6 general managers from hotels, 14 general managers of traditional restaurants, 20 owners of fast-food restaurants, 20 general managers of coffee shops, 12 owners of herb/ spice shops, 6 general managers of tour operators/ agents, 4 owners of souvenir shops, 10 owners of sweet shops, 4 general managers of guest houses, and finally 4 owners of handicraft shops. The interviewees were purposively selected and contacted by phone to arrange a face-to-face interview. Following this request, an email was sent confirming/ requesting an interview appointment. This procedure continued until the planned sample size was reached from the target population within the five geographical areas. However, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, only 60 interviews (N = 60) were completed. This was done over a period of six weeks and yielded a sample of 60 research participants (60% response rate, see Figure 1).

Figure 1 shows the businesses types since it is important to understand the nature of the hospitality businesses represented through the interviews. Thus, the above figure shows that the sum of coffee-shop businesses is 14 in the total sample, followed by traditional restaurants with 11 and 8 for herb/s pice shops. Also, there were 8 sweet shops and 8 fast-food restaurants that took part in the study. Also, interviewees from 4 guest houses, 4 souvenir shops, and 2 handicraft shops participated. Finally, there was only 1 tour guide in the selected sample. The researcher interviewed the general managers of fast-food restaurants, coffee shops, tour operators/ agents and guest houses, and the owners of traditional restaurants, herb/spice shops, souvenir shops and sweet shops. However, since this research does not seek to evaluate the state of the Jordanian tourism industry with all its subsectors, a large-scale random sample was not suitable. Instead, the aim was to identify the status of training needs, methods and potential challenges within the hospitality and tourism industry in order to recognize gaps and develop training programmes that address and enhance the competitiveness of small businesses within the industry. The researcher in this study believes that the numbers of the actual sample are representative for this kind of study. Access to the target sample was easy to negotiate as the researcher had already established a good professional relationship with key stakeholders within the Jordanian tourism industry. Moreover, all interviewees in this study were owners of general managers of the businesses (34 and 26, respectively).

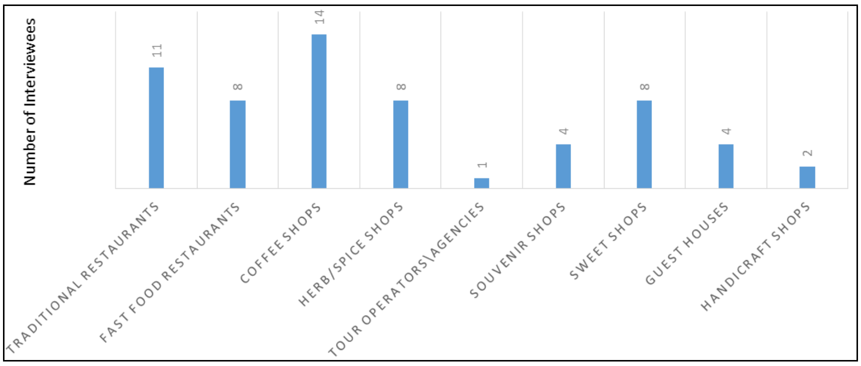

Figure 1.Service Business Type and Number of Participants (Source: developed by the authors)

Table 3. Distribution of categories over areas/zones (Source: Developed by the authors)

Location activity	Hospi -tality	Tourism	Travel	Total
Irbid	4	4	4	12
Amman	8	4	4	16
As-Salt	4	4	0*	8
Petra (Wadi Musa)	4	4	4	12
Aqaba	4	4	4	12
Total	24	20	16	60

* As-Salt City does not have any travel agencies

Data interpretation and presentation

To analyze qualitative data, a textual and thematic analysis technique was utilized to handle and screen the data, then conduct a comprehensive analysis (Al-Weshah, 2019b). Also, a cross-interview analysis technique was used to develop different themes based on the interviews (Al-Weshah, 2018). The results were handled qualitatively using previously determined fields for discussion. The discussion includes listing the perspectives of stakeholders summarized in tables. The interpretation of general trends is discussed in depth to raise different issues that affect developing training programmes and enhancing the competitiveness of small businesses within the hospitality and tourism industry. In presenting the findings, great care has been taken to ensure that where a quotation is used, this is done to illustrate the main thrust of the analysis and bring clarity to the concepts being represented. On the few occasions where a quotation represents an atypical or idiosyncratic view, this is made clear. When presenting quotes, the interview number is shown at the top of each quote. The participants' own words are presented verbatim, using direct quote marks. However, there is some clarification to ensure normal speech. This is not considered to have any detrimental effect.

Interview format

Semi-structured interviews were conducted based on purposive sampling. The population of this survey was divided into three categories depending on enterprise classification and size: hospitality, tourism and travel. Moreover, the sample was also divided into five main geographic areas/ zones: Irbid, Amman, As-Salt, Petra and Aqaba. A purposive sample from the above categories was targeted in each area (Table 3). In terms of hospitality, the researcher used a random sampling technique (40% of the total population), which resulted in 24 participants. In terms of the other two categories (tourism and travel), the researcher also used a random sampling technique which was 60% of the total population within the two mentioned categories in all areas, as shown in Table 3. Each interview was in two main parts; the first part related to general information, this included questions related to demographic data such as interviewee position, type of business, interviewee being an owner or manager, gender diversity of employees (male or female), and employees' age groups. The second part of the interview comprised study questions. The first group of questions covered training needs and requirements. The questions were specific to whether businesses are interested in providing training for their employees, this group included the following topics: Customer Relations, Communication Skills (Foreign Languages), IT skills, Tour Guiding, Leadership, Marketing, Financial, Services, Human Resources and Food Services Management. The second group of questions covered methods and challenges/ barriers as identified by the businesses, this included the following topics: Training methods assessment at the managerial and operational levels, training methods in small hospitality businesses and training challenges/ barriers in small hospitality businesses. The total number of survey questions was N =15, this was divided into two groups in the survey, the first group contained N = 11 questions, while the second group contained N = 4 main questions, as mentioned above. The interviews were conducted personally by the researchers; the interview schedule was developed based on some previous studies and reports (Dewhurst et al., 2007; Kadiresan et al., 2015). Moreover, the interview schedule was also updated after discussions with some experts in the area. Each interview lasted for 25–30 minutes.

Findings

Demographic data of interviewees

The following four figures provide a representation of the interviewees' demographic data. As shown in Figure 2, 70% of the interviewees (42 participants) were male, while 30% of them were females (18 participants). This indicates that there is no relevant diversity for employees in terms of gender. Figure 3 and figure 4, below, show the interviewees who participated in the study in terms of educational levels and experience in years.

Analytical framework

The interviewees were asked almost the same questions but slightly modified based on their background and level of management. Based on data screening and thematic analysis, the study came up with four main themes, specifically, training needs assessment at the managerial level, training needs assessment at the operational level, the training methods adopted, and potential training challenges in small hospitality businesses. These themes are analyzed in detail using a cross-interview analysis approach (Al-Weshah, 2019a; Al-Weshah, 2019b).

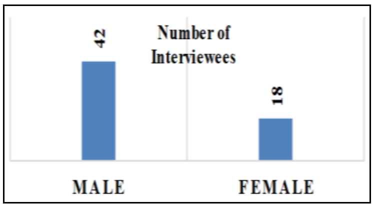

Figure 2. Interviewees' Gender (Male/ Female), (Source: developed by the authors)

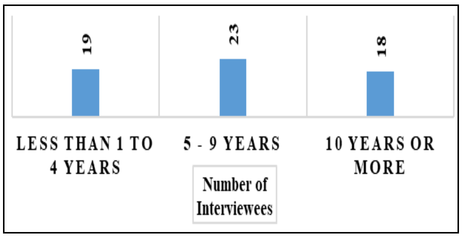

Figure 3. Experience in Years (Source: developed by the authors)

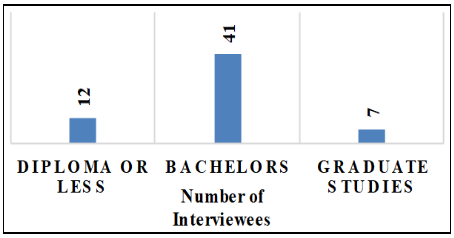

Figure 4. Educational Level (Source: developed by the authors)

Training needs at the managerial level in small hospitality businesses

The interviewees were asked to identify training needs areas at the managerial level, their answers are shown in the following table. As shown in Table 4, more than 50% of interviewees stated that the most crucial training need at the managerial level in small tourism business is communication skills (especially spoken foreign languages), as mentioned by 11 and 12 interviewees, respectively. For example, interviewee No. 4 stated that:

"We need more training in building long-term customer relations, effective communication skills, and human resource services"

Table 4. Training needs assessment at the managerial level, (Source: Developed by the authors)

Training needs area	Interviewee Nos.	Total number of interviewees who mentioned this need
Customer relations	1, 4, 5, 6, 11, 13, 14, 17, 20, 22, 23, 24, 27, 31, 33, 34, 42, 45, 50, 55, 57	21
Communication skills (foreign languages)	1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16,17, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 30, 32, 33, 35, 38, 40, 42, 43, 45, 50, 52, 54, 55, 57, 58, 60	33
IT skills	8, 11, 14, 19, 22, 31, 35, 41, 45, 48, 53, 58	12
Tour Guiding	3, 5, 8, 10, 12, 15, 16, 21, 28, 29, 34, 40, 42, 45, 48, 53, 55	18
Leadership	6, 10, 14, 15, 16, 26, 28, 31, 34, 41, 42, 46, 48, 53	15
Marketing	1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 18, 20, 21, 25, 26, 27, 30, 32, 33, 36, 39, 40, 41, 43, 45, 49, 52, 53, 55, 56, 59, 60	31
Financial services	3, 9, 13, 15, 16, 26, 28, 32, 38, 40, 42, 44, 47, 55	14
Human resources	4, 8, 16, 17, 20, 24, 28, 33, 38, 41, 42, 45, 52, 57	11
Food service management	2, 3, 5, 7, 10, 13, 14, 15, 21, 23, 24, 27, 31, 33, 34, 42, 45, 48, 52, 55, 56, 58, 60	23

Interestingly, marketing skills are classified in the second rank of training need areas at the managerial level in small tourism business. On the other hand, human resource services and IT skills are the least important training needs areas at the managerial level in small tourism business. Interviewee No. 53 expanded on this point, saying that:

"The most important skills in our business are leadership skills, tour orientation, computer skills, and marketing skills"

These findings are supported by the notion that high-performance systems have a huge impact on the overall performance of the organization (Becker and Huselid, 2006; Combs et al., 2006; Paauwe, 2009). Thus, service quality standards should be high and must meet customers' expectations and lead to their satisfaction (Kadiresan et al., 2015; Rawashdeh and Karim Al-Adwan, 2012).

Training needs at the operational level in small hospitality businesses

The interviewees were asked to identify training needs areas at the operational level, their answers are shown in the following table. As shown in Table 4, and as stated by 40 interviewees, the most important training needs at the operational level in small tourism business are communication skills (especially spoken foreign languages) and customer services, respectively. On the other hand, the least important training need at the operational level in small tourism business is communication skills (foreign languages). Training needs at the operational level were highlighted by interviewee No. 8 who stated that:

"We have to focus on improving some skills in staff training in our guesthouse such as customer service, foreign languages, tour guiding and hospitality skills."

Moreover, interviewee No.12 stressed that:

"Waitering and catering skills along with tour guiding are common areas for training that we need in our restaurant."

These findings are supported by Kadiresan et al. (2015) and Rawashdeh and Al-Adwan (2012) who stress that employees are considered a key asset of an organization. Therefore, it is vital for organizations to invest in them.

Training methods in small hospitality businesses

The interviewees were asked to identify proposed training methods; their answers are shown in the following table.

As shown in Table 5, and as stated by 37 interviewees, the most common training method adopted for staff is on-the-job (OTJ) training. Meanwhile, the least important training method adopted for staff training small tourism business is exchange visits with other experienced businesses, being mentioned by only 11 interviewees. For example, interviewee No. 1 commented on training methods, saying that:

"Continuous training on the job and regular classes and meetings are critical methods to develop our staff skills."

While interviewee No. 28 mentioned that:

"We prefer to use different training methods such as internal meetings and seminars, funded training by regional and international agencies, and some exchange experience and visits."

These findings are supported by the work of Dewhurst et al. (2007), Becker and Huselid (2006), Combs et al. (2006) and Paauwe (2009), who mention that there a number of training methods that most small businesses use, such as OTJ training, computer-based learning, workshops, lectures and seminars and case studies.

Table 5. Training needs assessment at the operational level (Source: Developed by the authors)

Training needs area	Interviewee Nos.	Total number of interviewees who mentioned this need
Customer services	2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 25, 26, 29, 30, 31, 33, 35, 36, 37, 40, 41, 43, 44, 45, 48, 51, 52, 54, 55, 58, 59, 60	38
Communication skills (foreign languages)	1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16,17, 18, 20, 21, 23, 24, 25, 27, 29, 30, 32, 33, 35, 36, 38, 40, 42, 43, 44, 45, 49, 50, 52, 54, 55, 57, 58, 60	40
IT skills	1, 7, 14, 15, 19, 26, 29, 37, 40, 42, 43, 49, 53, 57	14
Tour Guiding	3, 5, 8, 10, 12, 15, 21, 28, 30, 35, 41, 45, 48, 53, 55, 56	17
Housekeeping	2, 6, 13, 16, 18, 28, 29, 31, 33, 37, 39, 41, 44, 48, 51, 53, 59	15
Hospitality skills	1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 11, 12, 15, 19, 20, 22, 24, 25, 28, 30, 31, 34, 36, 39, 42, 45, 48, 50, 54, 55, 59, 60	28
Waitering Skills	2, 4, 5, 7, 10, 12, 14, 17, 20, 23, 24, 27, 30, 32, 34, 37, 42, 46, 48,53, 55, 56, 58	23
Catering Skills	1, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, 12, 15, 19, 20, 22, 24, 28, 30, 31, 34, 36, 42, 45, 48, 54, 55, 57, 58, 60	25
First aid	6, 11, 14, 18, 28, 29, 33, 37, 38, 41, 44, 49, 51, 53, 57	13

Table 6. Training methods (Source: Developed by the authors)

Training method	Interviewee Nos.	Total number of interviewees who mentioned this particular method
On-the-job training	1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 25, 27, 29, 30, 31, 34, 35, 36, 38, 40, 41,43, 44, 45, 49, 51, 53, 54, 55, 56, 60	37
In-house classroom and seminars	1, 2, 5, 7, 9, 10, 12, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 28, 30, 31, 33, 37, 42, 45, 48, 53, 56, 57, 59, 60	24
National institutes for tourism training	2, 4, 5, 8, 10, 12, 14, 17, 20, 23, 24, 27, 31, 32, 36, 37, 41, 46, 47, 54, 55, 57, 58	25
Regional institutes for tourism training	3, 6, 8, 10, 12, 15, 23, 28, 30, 33, 40, 45, 53, 55, 56	16
International institutes for tourism training	3, 6, 8, 10, 12, 15, 16, 21, 28, 29, 30, 34, 41, 42, 45, 48, 53, 57	18
Exchange visits	7, 12, 14, 18, 28, 29, 33, 36, 47, 51, 53	11

Training challenges/ barriers to small hospitality businesses

The interviewees were asked to explore the potential challenges of training, their answers are shown in the following table. As shown in Table 6, and as stated by 41 interviewees, the most common training challenge is lack of a training budget; 29 interviewees reported that there is a clear gap between academic learning of tourism and actual needs of the sector. For example, interviewee No. 5 claimed that:

"One of the most important challenges for our staff training is the high cost of training for some specialized skills."

Moreover, interviewee No. 20 claimed that:

"Our business faces many training challenges, such as a small training budget, a practical gap for fresh graduates."

In line with the previous interviewee, interviewee No. 43 said that:

"We (as hospitality service providers) cannot empower our employees due to many barriers, such as lack of training awareness by our management and lack of available time for our busy staff."

These findings are supported by Huselid and Becker (2010) who found that there is a big difference between what students are taught at university and what is actually required by employers in small business. The finding is also supported by Ramendram et al. (2014) who state that organizations that do not offer training programmes because they consider it to be a demonstrative problem and an economic burden on them. Also, this is supported by the findings of Kyriakidou and Maroudas (2010), Young-Thelin and Boluk (2012), Ramendram et al. (2014), who found that small businesses underinvest in training activities and embark on cost-cutting when it comes to training needs assessment.

Table 7. Training challenges (Source: Developed by the authors)

Training challenge	Interviewee Nos.	Total number of interviewees who mentioned this challenge
Lack of training budget	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 27, 28, 30, 31, 33, 34, 35, 36, 38, 40, 41, 43, 44, 45, 48, 49, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 60	41
Lack of effective training	3, 7, 12, 16, 18, 27, 29, 32, 36, 38, 41, 44, 47, 52, 53, 58	14
Training time	2, 5, 14, 16, 19, 25, 28, 30, 31, 37, 39, 42, 43, 48, 50, 52, 57	15
Gap between academic curriculums and actual needs	1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 11, 12, 15, 19, 20, 22, 24, 25, 28, 30, 31, 34, 36, 39, 42, 45, 46, 48, 50, 54, 55, 59, 60	29
Lack of training awareness	1, 5, 13, 16, 19, 21, 23, 25, 29, 30, 31, 36, 39, 41, 42, 43, 48, 50, 52, 57	17

CONCLUSIONS AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study is to investigate small hospitality businesses and assess their employees' training needs, challenges and methods. Thus, this study recognizes the gap between the current standing and the desired one and suggests training programmes that bridge this gap and enhance the competitiveness of small businesses within the Jordanian hospitality industry. To achieve this end, a qualitative approach was employed, whereby face-to-face interviews were conducted with a number of owners of small hospitality businesses. Also, a textual and thematic analysis technique was utilized to handle and screen the data collected, then conduct a comprehensive analysis. The first objective was to assess training needs in Jordanian small hospitality businesses at both the managerial and operational levels. The study found that the top training needs at the managerial level are communication skills (foreign languages), marketing skills, food service management and customer relations, while the top training needs at the operational level in small hospitality businesses are hospitality skills, catering skills and waitering skills.

The second objective was to explore relevant training methods that can be adopted to improve staff skills in small hospitality businesses. The study found that a greater focus should be placed on training methods, mainly hands-on training methods. It also found that seminars and workshops within the hospitality business services are essential as they are considered effective methods to boost employees' skills. Also, it is highly recommended to form some partnerships with national training institutes. Thus, the most important training methods recommended by study are a focus by hospitality service businesses on on-the-job training, in-house classrooms and seminars and national institutes for tourism training.

The third objective was to identify potential challenges to staff training in small hospitality businesses. The findings reveal that the top training challenges that should be given careful consideration are lack of a training budget and the gap between the academic curriculum and actual needs. The study identified a number of training challenges in small hospitality services that managers should pay more attention to overcome them. One of the recommendations is to develop a budget that is appropriate and matches training needs and requirements. Also, it is highly recommended to bridge the gap between education and the labour market through building partnerships with universities and collaborating with educational institutes in order to provide decision-makers with insights into the latest market trends, labour-market needs and qualifications. The fourth objective was to make some recommendations and highlight practical implications for small hospitality businesses. The findings of the current study provide some key insights associated with training needs assessment, training methods and training challenges in small tourism businesses.

First of all, clear and specific training objectives must be specified for tourism training programmes. Also, training needs assessment should be an ongoing process in order to stay up-to-date with current and upcoming trends, and thus meet customers' expectations and retain them as loyal customers. Another recommendation for small hospitality businesses is to adopt personal development plans. This can be accomplished by implementing a follow-up mechanism, having formal off-the-job development programmes, training workshops and a competence-based approach.

Moreover, the use of personal development plans is acknowledged and stated within the literature on training and development as a critical practice to identify training needs and facilitate learning and training. Finally, it is recommended that training programmes are associated with employee promotion so that training boosts employees' job satisfaction and motivation, which results in better performance. It is also important to assign sufficient financial resources in order to provide updated and participatory training materials to employees.

Practical implications

Important procedures can be adopted by small businesses to assess and provide relevant training to employees according to their needs and the nature of their jobs. Training programmes should be based on employee promotion; accordingly, training helps to motivate employees, which results in better performance. As some Jordanian business have a limited training budget, it is important to provide adequate training courses for employees free of cost or with a minimum charge by different governmental organizations or funded training by international tourism and development NGOs. Also, it is advisable to form partnerships with these NGOs and governmental organizations to maintain sustainable long-term collaboration. Another effective strategy to reduce training costs and address the work pressure on employees is to change the culture, so small businesses should promote the ideas of teamwork, peer-to-peer skills and knowledge-sharing and improve employees' interpersonal communication. It is also necessary to select training methods that are digestible and easy-to-apply for employees at the same time, so that small businesses can encourage their employees to become more engaged with training, such as having on-demand courses which employees can take at their convenience. Similarly, businesses might find governmental or non-for-profit organizations and institutions that have online and offline platforms that offer programmes and several courses for free, such as Edraak, Do it, Jordan Chamber of Commerce and The American Chamber of Commerce in Jordan, and thus small businesses can become involved in strategic partnerships with these parties. Many necessary steps should be taken to ensure that training methods are appropriate for employees' capacity. This can be achieved by getting feedback from employees or trainers.

Also, through having clear KPIs to measure improvements in employee performance, e.g. reducing the number of customer complaints by 5% or increasing the number of processed orders by 10%, and so on. In addition, clear intended learning outcomes should be incorporated into any training programmes. These ILOs will assist businesses to achieve their KPIs. Also, some training assessment systems can be implemented to help small businesses determine their training requirements and select potential employees to participate in training according to the requirements of each training programme without any nepotism or discrimination in terms of trainees' gender, race or nationality.

Another recommendation is to have a flexible training timetable which can be achieved by running some training online or developing recorded training programs to be followed by employees at their convenience. As a result, employees will become more motivated to participate in training programmes without affecting their job responsibilities. Many procedures can also be adopted to follow up and monitor employees' performance and how received training has affected their productivity. This can be achieved, as mentioned before, by linking objectives with KPIs that measure the effectiveness and productivity of training in quantifiable terms. Finally, training allowances and incentives can be provided to motivate employees to take part in future training. For example, businesses should develop data-centric processes via which they can track the performance of each employee and their progress.

This includes, but is not limited to, the number of courses and training session each employee has enrolled in, how many courses he or she has completed successfully, and how courses and training taken are reflected in their performance; and based on that, he or she will get some sort of reward.

Limitations and future research

There are a number of limitations to this study. The first potential limitation is the possible lack of generalizability of the findings, since the study is limited to small hospitality businesses in Jordan. Thus, comprehensive future research is required on different small businesses in different service sectors, such as finance, banking and travel, and any other similar industries. Another recommendation is perhaps to run a comparative study on different service industries. Moreover, in this study, a qualitative approach was employed with semi-structured interviews; therefore, future studies could adopt a quantitative analysis and hypotheses testing approach that might further increase the understanding and assessment of relevant training needs. Also, using focus groups and questionnaires as data collection methods in future studies could be fruitful.

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Article history: Received: 17.08.2021 Revised: 16.11.2021 Accepted: 24.12.2021 Available online: 10.01.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.30-36
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40103-799

IMPACT OF THE PANDEMIC COVID-19 TO THE INDONESIA SEAS

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Citation: Ihsan, Y.N., Purba, N.P., Faizal, I., Anya, A., Mulyani, P.G., & Anwar, S.K. (2022). IMPACT OF THE PANDEMIC COVID-19 TO THE INDONESIA SEAS. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 30–36. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40103-799

Abstract: This paper presents the effect of the COVID-19 pandemic on the Indonesian seas from April to October 2020. Data were mainly obtained through literature studies focusing on coastal and ecosystem services, noise observation in the ocean, and in-situ data for atmospheric conditions. The results of this study found that the pandemic has given the oceans and ecosystems time to recover from anthropogenic stresses even though the tourism and fisheries sectors have experienced strong economic shocks. A decrease in the amount of pollution in several major cities in Indonesia was also found during the pandemic period.

Key words: ocean-atmosphere interaction, ocean health, marine pollution, pandemic COVID-19, carbon

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INTRODUCTION

The coronavirus (COVID-19) has become the largest pandemic in 21 centuries. It becomes a lasting history to humankind due to its effect on daily life (Bates et al., 2021; Canning-Clode et al., 2020). Until now, this pandemic is still rising and affecting global countries and territories around the world. Since the World Health Organization (WHO) declared the coronavirus pandemic on March 11, 2020, there have been significant decreases in human activities. Most countries around the world went into lockdown to reduce the spread of COVID-19. Several studies showed that the coronavirus pandemic is expected to end in December 2020 (Zuhairoh and Rosadi, 2020). However, until July 2021, we are still facing this issue with a new more contagious variant. Global leaders believe that vaccine is the best way to build herd immunity. In the world, only about 25% of people who have received one vaccine (Ritchie et al., 2020). Meanwhile, in Indonesia, no more than 10% of people have been vaccinated. As an archipelagic country, almost 34 provinces in Indonesia are affected by covid-19. It is difficult to see how this problem may be solved with plenty of various cultures, regulations, and pandemic levels.

This COVID-19 has been of interest not only to health researchers but also environmental scientists. Theoretically, with the reduction of human activities, natural environmental improvements are expected. This reduction in activity is interpreted as a slowdown in everyday human activities (mobility), also known as "anthro-pause" or great pause (Rutz et al., 2020). With this pandemic situation, it is believed that environmental impacts will be reduced. As we all know, human actions cause environmental devastation (Partelow et al., 2015), including destructions of the largest biota (Gaynor et al., 2018), and ecosystem including coral bleaching (Gusviga et al., 2021) (Figure 1). This study summarizes the condition of the marine environment before, during the pandemic and future predictions of Indonesia territories. Since humans limit their activities at sea, the reduction or absence of anthropogenic conflicts may also promote an ideal opportunity for studies on marine wildlife behaviour and ecology (Bates et al., 2020). Understanding the connections between human activities and interactions with the ocean is critical (Bates et al., 2021). Several studies on the impact of the pandemic on marine environments have previously been conducted. The pandemic appears to offer hope for better ocean health (Zambrano-Monserrate et al., 2020). The worldwide response concerning the COVID-19 pandemic has led to a rapid reduction of air pollutants, especially in big cities (Forster et al., 2020). Before the pandemic, the Indonesian Ocean Health Index (OHI) had a score of 65 with a rank of 137 out of 221 countries (Halpern et al., 2012), one of which

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includes marine pollution. The absence of human influence in the seas during the pandemic allows the ecosystems and nature to recover. Furthermore, an overview of the current situation and predicted implications for biodiversity conservation has been provided, emphasizing that it is premature to predict the overall impacts in the field (Corlett et al., 2020). This paper will focus on several aspects, i.e., i) coastal and ecosystem services, ii) noise observation in the ocean and its relationship to the presence of biota, iii) carbon systems and ocean acidification, and iv) future challenges.

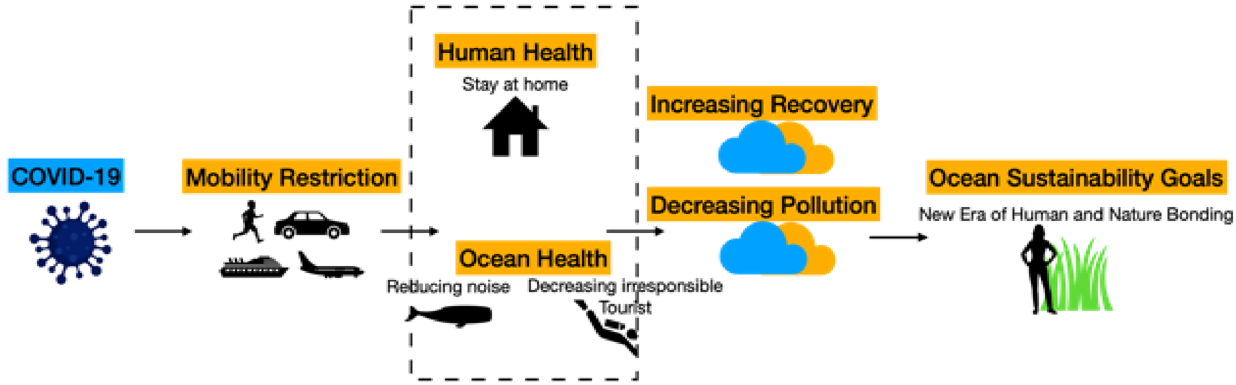

Figure 1. Relationship between Covid-19 pandemic with ocean and human health for ocean sustainability

MATERIALS AND METHODS

In the literature review process (Knopf, 2006), we followed a systematic approach in selecting papers with keywords "COVID-19, OCEAN, MARINE". First, we searched those keywords in Publish or Perish software from 2020 to 2021 and obtained 964 results. Afterwards, we manually selected papers that were most relevant to our topic. This step led to a total number of 123 articles. They were reviewed individually for analysis. Secondly, we conducted online group discussions with experts from NGOs, marine stakeholders, marine staff, and academic experts. The participants came from different regions in Indonesia to find out the effect of the pandemic in various locations. We also communicate by phone and email to several marine/environmental experts. Eventually, we discussed in online seminars on national and international levels specific to ocean and covid-19. There was a total of 64 online conferences and workshops from April to October 2020. To support this research, we also used OFFL data to analyze CO and NO_2 levels from November 2019 to December 2020 (Omrani et al., 2020). The downloaded image data were obtained from the satellite Sentinel-5P.

The presented data consists of two options, i.e. Offline data (OFFL) and Near Real-Time (NRTI) data. CO and NO_2 data levels in Indonesia are satellite image data from Sentinel-5P. Data retrieval is done by downloading image data through a cloud-based computing device, i.e. Google Earth Engine (GEE). The analysis was done by comparing the opinions of the presenters, reports, conducting a literature analysis, and from primary data.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Coastal and Ecosystem Services

Beaches and coastal areas are among the most important natural capital assets (Yang et al., 2021). In most locations in Indonesia, they provide services that are critical to the survival of coastal communities and possess core values. However, irresponsible people have caused many destruction and pollution (Garcés-Ordóñez et al., 2020). For example, snorkelling and diving activities are examples of tourists' activities at sea and interact directly with ecosystems and mainly caused damage to its area (Nyström et al., 2000). Despite the fact that the number of visitors to the beach is increasing, the infrastructures are inadequate, and people's habits harm the surrounding habitats and ecosystems.

During the pandemic, the decreasing number of tourists has caused a notable change in the appearance of numerous beaches in Indonesia, such as Kuta beach in Bali, Gili, Lombok, and various islands in Pulau Seribu, Jakarta. Local authorities at the time closed frequented locations to avoid crowds. The same condition also happened to beaches in Acapulco (Mexico), Barcelona (Spain), and Salinas (Ecuador), where they all look cleaner with crystal clear waters (Zambrano-Monserrate et al., 2020). Furthermore, several discussions with a member of the Indonesia Recreational Diving Business Association (PUWSI) reported that in April 2020, 26 businesses experienced a decrease in the number of visitors in their operational areas. Almost all tourist areas are closed from April to August 2020.

However, in a global context, many beaches are still polluted in other cases due to anthropogenic debris from terrestrial areas (Patrício Silva et al., 2021). Furthermore, on several beaches in Indonesia, there was a rise of Personal Protective Equipment (PPE) waste in rivers and beaches in Jakarta bay (Cordova et al., 2020). This is especially the case in island areas such as Seribu Islands in Jakarta. This case due to pandemic events result in the emergence of garbage coming from hospitals. But cases like this are not found on Pangandaraan beach or Pelabuhan Ratu. This is due to the river's mouth in these two regions is not as much as DKI Jakarta, which has 12 river estuaries. Another report also stated that the pandemic causes negative impacts on the ecosystem by 17%. This is seen in some areas of illegal fishing and destructive fishing. The decline in diving tourism activities affects the rise of illegal fishing in the surrounding waters, including the national park area. Destructive fishing is increasing due to the absence of activities/routines at diving sites. Illegal fishing occurs as there is no tourism activity in the area, causing tourism workers to carry out other jobs, catching ornamental fish. A report and communication with the RARE Indonesia agency conducted questionnaires to small fishers in Kepulauan Seribu and around Southeast Sulawesi stated that small fishers experienced a decrease in the activity restrictions demand, which decreased their fishing frequency and reduced fish prices. However, their daily needs can still be fulfilled from the sea. However, there was an increased income in some regions, such as the Maluku islands and North Maluku.

In an example of the recovery case, Thailand's Department of National Parks has announced the closure extension of the Maya Bay coastal area so that damaged coral reefs can heal and recover. The beach is closed to allow the ecosystem and biota to recover, accompanied by human care. Humans do limit themselves to activities in nature during the pandemic, but there is no treatment for nature like what is done in Thailand. Gili-Lombok (Archie-Personal communication) stated that the number of visitors dropped dramatically to 90%, and more biota like manta rays were found around the reef. However, marine debris is still widely found because it comes from anthropogenic waste. Furthermore, almost all tourist areas experience a decrease in the number of tourists due to the rules of the local government to close tourist locations.

Several seminars on pandemics and ocean services discovered that the pandemic gave coral reefs time to recover. This occurs in various places like Raja Ampat and numerous diving sites in Papua waters. There are also improvements in ecosystems of the conservation waters of Savu, East Nusa Tenggara. Prior to the coronavirus pandemic, ecosystems, especially coral reefs, directly impacted marine tourism activities such as physical contact when tourists dive or snorkeling. These disturbances cumulatively contribute to suppressing coral reefs (Shokri and Mohammadi, 2021). Recently, there has been no scientific monitoring due to a lack of funding and data before the pandemic.

2. Noise in The Ocean

The pandemic hit several shipping industries. However, most of the effects have yet to be measured. The decreased activity in the Indonesian fishing sector that catches fish is around 30-40% (Indonesian Tuna), China and Africa 80%. Before Covid-19, shipping lines around Anambas Island and the South China Seas (SCS) were crowded with large vessels carrying goods, survey ships, and fishing. During Covid-19, the pathway experienced a very significant decrease in density (Figure 2). Based on the analysis of vessels activities and types of gears (including drifting longlines and nets, purse seines and trawlers), ocean fishing is reduced by 12% (Bates et al., 2021).

However, based on a recent publication, the shipping activities around Indonesia increased in April 2020 (March et al., 2021). This may occur since there are three international routes in the Indonesian waters. There was a vast reduction of fishing vessels. From reports and discussions with stakeholders, it is seen clearly in several Indonesian waters, such as the Java Sea, South China Sea, and northern Sulawesi. The decrease was also caused by the reduced demand for fish exports from Indonesia. Previous research had also suggested that export demand from Australia to other countries was decreased during the pandemic (Plagányi et al., 2021). In the ocean, noise could be generated by water column dynamics and human activities such as ship engines (Erbe et al., 2020). Naturally, marine biota can tolerate noise from water columns. However, this kind of noise is one of the primary sources of disturbance for the biota and the environment, altering the natural conditions of the shallow ecosystems and causing health problems (Zambrano-Monserrate and Ruano, 2019). Due to propagation, the sound is much faster in the ocean than in the air (4:1). It means that the range of a single sound source is much broader, and its effect can be worse than we initially thought. The forms of disturbances that occur due to sound varies, depending on the type of marine life.

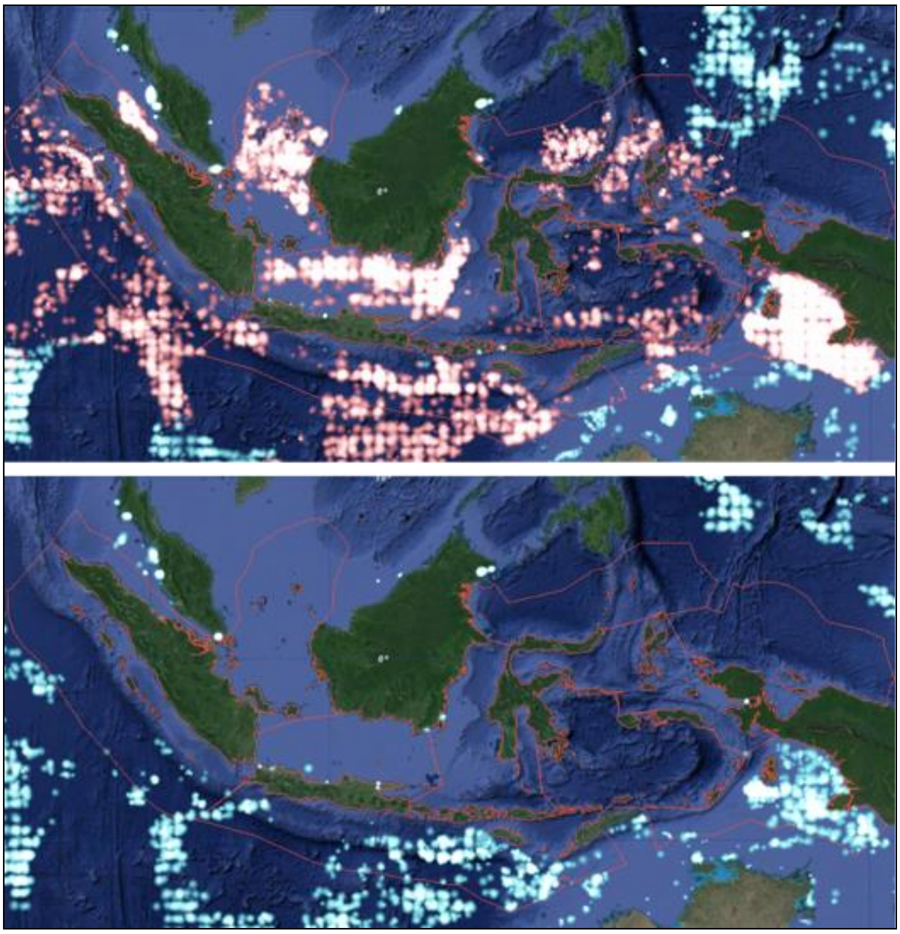

Figure 2. Snapshot of vessel activities around Indonesia seas with night light vessel detections (orange dots) and VMS (Vessel Monitoring System; blue dots). The top figure represents July to December 2019, and the bottom illustrates July to December 2020 (Source from https://globalfishingwatch.org/map)

The most suitable marine biota to be studied for this theme is animals that use high decibel sounds to communicate, one of which is whales.As humans retreat, animals quickly move in to fill the empty spaces (Bates et al., 2021). Based on a discussion with experts in Indonesia, an interesting rare phenomenon of Orca whales was seen on Anambas Island. This phenomenon may have been related to the drastic decrease in shipping activities in the South China Sea, including exploration vessels firing high-decibel signals into the ocean. Meanwhile, people in Papua have reported the emergence of large numbers of fish in previously absent areas due to ship noises. But this case does not occur in all places, for example, in the waters of the Strait of Malacca, which also experienced a reduction in shipping lanes found no appearance of biota. Of the three international routes that pass through Indonesia (ALKI), the discovery of biota was found on one path only.

3. Atmospheric Pollution Trend

Before 2020, CO_2 emissions rose about 1% per year over the previous decade (Zhang et al., 2017). The rest of the world is expected to grow by +0.5 per cent in 2019. A change habit in the land and ocean carbon sink behaviour will take the same amount of time to detect and much longer if it emerges slowly (Friedlingstein et al., 2019). Based on previous researches, carbon emissions dropped by 17% in early April 2020 (Le Quéré et al., 2020). The highest contributing factor which decreases emissions come from surface transportations. In a global context, about 5% of emissions returned rapidly in June (1%-8% range) (WMO, 2020). In 2020, several countries had reported improvements in air quality. Research in Korea found that air pollution dropped by 45.45% following the COVID-19 restriction (Ju et al., 2021). Meanwhile, air pollution (NO_2) declined by 51% (Tobías et al., 2020). The decrease in air pollution also occurs in New York (Zangari et al., 2020).

During the COVID-19 restrictions in Indonesia, air quality in crowded cities such as Jakarta and Semarang improved due to reduced human activities in industries and transportations. Densely populated provinces started to impose mobility restrictions in early April, and since then, the measures have been on-off depending on local authorities' evaluation of the COVID-19 situation. However, Indonesia's Meteorology, Climatology and Geophysics Agency (BMKG) has few changes in other regions. These cities already have relatively clean air quality. The results of image data on carbon monoxide (CO) and nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) from the Sentinel-5P satellite in Indonesia's territories were visualized. They showed pixel points of different colours in each area at a certain period. The visualization depicts CO and NO_2 content in the air from November 2019 – December 2020. The pixel dots of various colours represent CO and NO_2 concentrations; red indicates high pollution. The lighter the colour (or towards yellow, green, then blue), the lower the CO and NO_2 concentrations in the area. The CO concentration values ranged from 0.02 – 0.05 mol/m^2 and the NO_2 concentration values ranged from $3x10^{-5}$ – $6x10^{-5}$ mol/m^2.

The visualization results of Indonesia's carbon monoxide (CO) content show that CO concentrations tended to be high in November 2019. The high CO concentrations in November 2019 were concentrated in the western part of Indonesia, especially in Jakarta, South Sumatra and a little part of Central Kalimantan. In the same period, the CO concentration level is low in the eastern part of Indonesia, i.e. Papua. It is indicated by the visualization results in yellow and blue. From December 2019 to April 2020, the CO content has begun decreasing, characterized by the visualization results that appear yellow and blue with no red areas. In the western region, the CO was still concentrating the eastern part of Indonesia, according to the CO concentration in November 2019. The CO concentration decreased from May to December 2020. Overall, the Indonesian regions have relatively low CO concentrations. In this period, the visualization is dominated by blue colour, although there is still a bright yellow colour cantered around Java island, especially Jakarta. There is no specific pattern in the visualization of CO concentrations in Indonesia in each period. However, there is a very significant change from November 2019 to December 2020, which is noticeable from November 2019 until January 2020.

The visualization results of nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) in Indonesia show that the NO_2 concentrations tend to be high in western Indonesia during November 2019 – December 2020. High levels of NO_2 concentrations were concentrated along the Java island, especially in the west of Indonesia and the Malacca Straits. In contrast, in other parts of Indonesia, the NO_2 concentration level was relatively low throughout the same period, indicated by the visualization results in yellow and blue. There are significant changes in the concentration of NO_2 content between December 2019 to March 2020, especially in areas along Java island. The level of NO_2 content was initially very high in the region, then began to decrease (marked by a colour change from red to yellow). After March 2020, NO_2 in Java Island increased again, but the coverage area with high NO_2 was not as vast as in November 2019. On the contrary, high NO_2 concentrations in the Malacca Strait region increased from March 2020 to May 2020, marked by an expansion of the red area. The western part of Indonesia outside of Java and the Malacca Strait also experienced an increase in NO_2 content, seen from the change of blue to yellow. Other regions in Indonesia (central to eastern) appear stable and have a relatively low NO_2 range, but an increase is still visible, especially from March to May 2020. Overall, the visualization of NO_2 concentration does not show any significant changes when compared to CO.

Indonesia's Meteorology, Climatology and Geophysics Agency (BMKG) https://www.bmkg.go.id/kualitas-udara/informasi-partikulat-pm10.bmkg measured on PM10 concentrations in 8 locations from September to October 2020. The locations were Indrapuri, Kemayoran, Pontianak, Cibeureum, Medan, Pangkalanbun, Pekanbaru Kota and Sidoarjo. The results showed that the PM10 concentrations in September were still below the threshold (<150 µg/m^3). Meanwhile, on October 1, the highest daily average concentration of PM10 was 73.21 µg/m^3 in Kemayoran on October 1, 2020. The lowest level was in Pekanbaru Kota on October 3, 2020 at 5.27 µg/m^3. October's highest PM10 level was lower than in September (99.35 µg/ m^3), also found in Kemayoran. Based on observations in the second and third September and the first ten days of October 2020, there are fluctuating levels of PM10 concentration in Kemayoran. Kemayoran once experienced a maximum hourly value of >200 µg/m^3. In general, the average PM10 concentration was still in the range of 50-100 µg/m^3, which were considered in good to moderate levels. The air quality improvements had also positively affected corals in waters near tourist sites in Raja Ampat, Papua. Based on the report, damaged corals in the area had been gradually recovering since tourism was halted in line with the restrictions. The damaged corals had started to grow and shown signs of suitable condition, such as new coral polyps appearing with healthy colours.

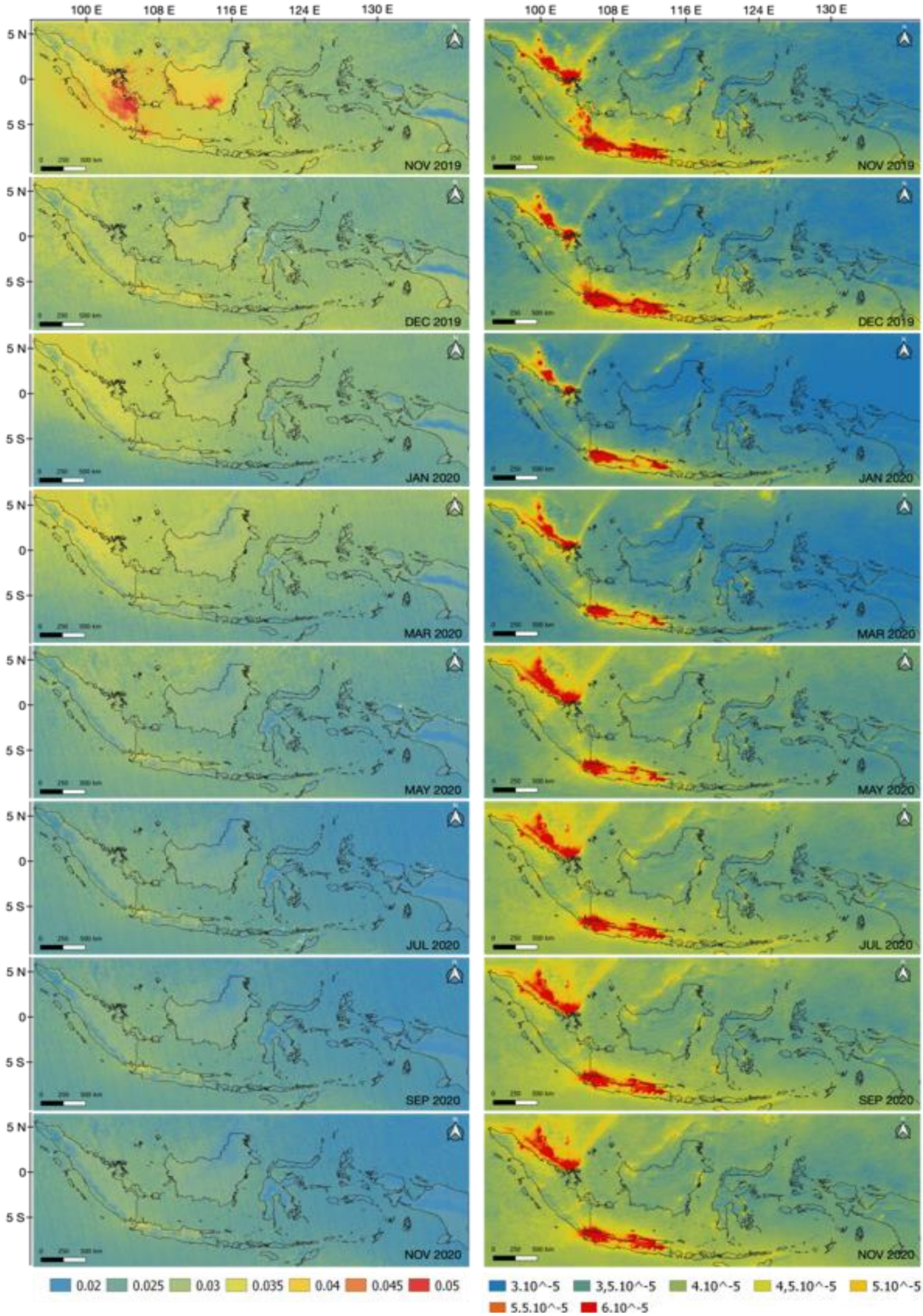

Figure 3. Carbon monoxide concentration (left) and Nitrogen monoxide concentration (right) in mol/m^2 over Indonesia area (Source: Sentinel-5P Satellite CO and NO_2 Imagery Data)

This improvement, however, might be attributed to lower carbon emissions and a considerable reduction in tourist activities. Until July 2021, the COVID-19 pandemic is still ongoing, and there is no certainty when it will end. The word "new normal" is still a discourse, but we do not know when it will be implemented due to raising a new coronavirus variant. Meanwhile, the government is still focusing on human recovery activities and fulfilling the vaccine to 250 million people. This resulted in budget cuts in various sectors, especially in the marine sector. By 2020, the ministry of Marine and Fishery Affairs budget will be cut by approximately 1.84 Trillion. The report found that several programs were delayed or cancelled. With many priority programs that are not implemented, monitoring of ecosystems and the sea becomes constrained. This research also found both positive and negative impacts of the pandemic situation on Indonesia's ocean and ecosystem. Overall, reduced human activities on the beach and sea allow time to naturally restore the environment and biota. The decrease in visitor numbers due to the closure of tourist sites has reportedly positively impacted ecosystem restoration. On the other hand, there is also a decrease in the number of marine supervisors in charge of monitoring environmental damage due to human activities. It is not known exactly the percentage of recovery from coastal ecosystems because there is no comprehensive monitoring data. For cases in Indonesia, the application of restrictions on human movement is not the same for each region. This results in beach visits still being allowed in some areas, but elsewhere there is no activity in tourist areas. This also results in different ecosystem recovery for each location.

Then, the reduction in marine noise isn't fully understood yet. The activities of shipping are mainly caused by noise in the Indonesian sea. Although noise is one of the disturbances to marine biota, not many reports mention the emergence of species in some locations that are ship lines. Some reports indicate the appearance of whales and dolphins more often than usual, especially in the dense waters of ship activity. Although further research is still needed, there have been reports of marine species in areas previously populated by human activities. This is a positive impact, and the movement of marine species in Indonesian waters should be studied deeper. As we know, the Indonesian waters are strategic routes for both national and international shipping. Indonesia's territorial waters are also one of the densest areas of fishing activity (Figure 2). The decline in fishing in the sea is due to the decrease in international demand for fish. The same is true of other countries (Plagányi et al., 2021) The resulting impact is the increasing quantity of fish in the ocean, especially in the south of Java, which has been overexploited. Furthermore, there is an improvement in the pollution content in the atmosphere. This can be seen from the decrease in the amount of carbon monoxide in the atmosphere. It is known that atmospheric and ocean interactions result in the continuous transfer of energy and material. CO is one that results in the acidification of the sea to make coral bleaching occur (Figure 3). The decline occurred mainly in major cities in Java and Sumatra, such as Jakarta, Medan, Surabaya. Both islands have the most densely populated areas in Indonesia.

Overall, it is too early to justify the effect on ocean health due to a lack of data. It is too early to build a conclusion about the systematic impact. Many forum meetings' predictions are mostly based on partial data or existing data. Limited access and time are problems for monitoring at sea (Perillo et al., 2021). Furthermore, monitoring funds are limited due to budget cuts made by the government to prioritize the management of COVID-19. The COVID-19 pandemic directly contributes to the UN 2030 Sustainable Development. The SDGs' achievements and targets are delayed due to the pandemic (including priority programs), especially those related to Goals 13 (Climate Change) and Goals 14 (Life Below Water). Before the pandemic, Indonesia was ranked 137th out of 221 countries. This must be a priority given the reduced monitoring during the pandemic. The use of IoT-based technology must be pursued so that monitoring and observations can be carried out remotely (Purba et al., 2019). This is because Indonesian ecosystems play an essential role in ecosystem connectivity (Salsabilla et al., 2020).

Finally, raising funding in research is urgently required to support the government programme. This includes monitoring programmes, infrastructure, and information system technology (Rutz et al., 2020). The COVID-19 outbreak has indirectly become an opportunity for fishers to revise their mindset and hunting patterns or take from nature for commercial gain. The sustainability principle has been neglected so far, has become a highlight after the rapid spread of information by holding webinars across the country. Globally, reforming marine health policy should be a top priority. New policy decisions will be required, focusing on reconnecting with the environment and, in particular, ocean health (Laffoley et al., 2021). Indonesia, which currently has high marine wealth, is a challenge in and of itself. One issue that needs to be addressed as quickly as possible is the damage to ecosystems caused by global warming (Gusviga et al., 2021).

CONCLUSION

In general, the covid-19 pandemic has had an enormous impact on Indonesia's oceans. This impact can be seen from three things: the recovery of the shallow ecosystem, noise reduction in the ocean, and pollution reduction in the atmosphere and the sea. Although at this time, the impact cannot be explained comprehensively because of data limitations. Based on this research, a quantitative scientific investigation is urgently required. The fact is that ocean health is intimately tied to human health. Regular monitoring is needed to see changes in the ecosystem. Furthermore, after the normal era, studies on this issue are critical to managing ship routes, especially in the high waters of biodiversity and fish migration routes. It is expected that after the pandemic is over, the government will focus on improving the environment.

Acknowledgement

We wish to thank all hosts and institutions who held online seminars and provided essential insights with many new perspectives. We also express our gratitude to Universitas Padjadjaran; this article is funded by RPDP Grants 2020, 1735/UN6.3.1/LT/2020. We sincerely appreciate Ahmad I. Anshory, Dannisa I. Handyman, Rahal Balazam, Joana Viviani, Agung Ramos, Egi Pamungkas, and Fahmi Ghiffari for their aids.

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Article history: Received: 31.07.2021 Revised: 29.11.2021 Accepted: 27.12.2021 Available online: 12.01.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.37-48
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40104-800

THE EMERGENCE OF A NEW RELIGIOUS TRAVEL SEGMENT: UMRAH DO IT YOURSELF TRAVELLERS (DIY)

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Citation: Atikah, R.S., Tan, A.L., Trupp, A., Chong, K.L., Arni, A.G., & Arumugam, V.M. (2022). THE EMERGENCE OF A NEW RELIGIOUS TRAVEL SEGMENT: UMRAH DO IT YOURSELF TRAVELLERS (DIY). *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 37–48. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40104-800

Abstract: This research examines the rise of a new religious travel segment – the Umrah Do It Yourself (DIY) travellers. While Hajj is the fifth pillar of Islam, Umrah is a minor Muslim pilgrimage that can be undertaken at any time of the year, while still playing a crucial role in the completion of Hajj rituals. In the past, Umrah was managed by an authorised travel agent, who makes all the necessary pilgrimage preparations, from flights to trip itineraries. Recent years have seen an upsurge in travellers who prefer not to utilise the services of such agencies, but instead, to make their own arrangements. The decision by the Saudi Arabian government to launch a Tourist e-Visa in September 2019 has opened a window of opportunity for the legalization of Umrah DIY journeys. The objectives of this study are (i) to explore the travel motives that contribute to the success of the Umrah DIY, and (ii) to explore the factors that support and facilitate the decision for the Umrah DIY. The data were obtained via 20 semi-structured interviews with Umrah DIY travellers. The findings show that flexibility, spirituality, and budget have a crucial impact on travel motivation. Additionally, the findings suggest that information sources, travel quality, companionship/new friendship, and familiarity facilitate the choice of Umrah DIY travel. This research contributes to the growing scholarship on the Muslim travel market beyond Hajj and to studies on independent religious travel. Findings provide an opportunity for suppliers and industry participants to understand the travel motives of this new segment as a basis for producing relevant religious tourism products and services.

Key words: Umrah, Do-it-yourself (DIY), e-Visa, travel motives, religion, Muslim travel

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INTRODUCTION

Religious tourism is broadly defined as travel activities that are related to religious purposes, including visits to holy and sacred places, such as churches, temples or monasteries, to perform pilgrimages or attend events and festivals of religious significance (Kim et al., 2020; Pintér, 2014). Within the scope of religious travel, Islamic tourism and pilgrimages have developed into one of the largest tourist segments globally. However, its academic conceptualisation and exploration from a Muslim perspective have only just begun to grow in recent decades (Eid and Gohary, 2015; Kim, 2020; Luz, 2020).

Existing research on Muslim pilgrimages is focused more on Hajj (Kusumaningtyas, 2019; Almuhrzi and Alsawafi, 2017; Raj and Bozonelos, 2015) rather than on the Umrah. Hajj is only performed once a year in the month of Dhul-Hijjah, and pilgrims must wait for a quota vacancy. While Hajj is the fifth pillar of Islam and has defined rituals from a temporal and practical standpoint, Umrah is voluntary and can be performed at any time, except on Hajj days, and maintains the practice of rituals in much the same way. In Islam, religious and spiritual journeys can be divided into three types: Hajj, Umrah, and Ziyara (Hassan et al., 2015; Haq and Wong, 2010; Timothy and Olsen, 2006). While the Umrah is part of the pilgrimage to Mecca, it is a minor pilgrimage that Muslims can undertake at any time of the year (Heidari et al., 2018), and represents a major form of travel for Muslims worldwide. It can be completed more than once (Hassan et al., 2015), and can be repeated, based on a person's physical and financial capabilities.

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Both the Hajj and Umrah travels have largely been organised in a tightly structured manner in the form of packaged group tours (Haq and Jackson, 2009). According to Hassan et al. (2016), Umrah package travellers are individuals who purchase products (Umrah travel packages) from local tour operators and travel agents for religious and spiritual motives, which typically include lodging, transportation, an itinerary, and food. However, it has been observed recently that there is a trend towards more independent and Do-it-yourself (DIY) Umrah travels (Almuhrzi and Alsawafi, 2017), as evidenced by the DIY Umrah Facebook forum in Indonesia wuth 10,000 members. In this forum, information related to DIY Umrah is shared among members (Lailatul and Melinda, 2018; Fakhruddin and Ubaidillah, 2021). For DIY activities, individuals create, change, or produce something independently (Wolf and McQuitty, 2011). Beyond any other forms of 'creation', DIY projects typically require a great deal of innovation, designing, knowledge, skills, and time.

Fakhruddin and Ubaidillah (2021) noted that for most people, the expenses for Umrah are still extremely high, and with an alternative to a regulated visit to the Holy Land via DIY travel, the cost is seen as a viable. When people perform Umrah independently, they can also invite a few friends along or join other Umrah backpacking groups, which is beneficial for newcomers. This way of travel can also reduce the overall costs, e.g., through the sharing of accommodation or transport. Moreover, Wang et al. (2014) suggested that the advent of technology has facilitated further opportunities for DIY Umrah travellers, where online platforms and applications offer travellers a chance to participate in the sharing of travel journeys, and they are given instant access to the experience. Furthermore, Umrah and Hajj virtual simulations enable DIY travellers to learn about cultures, places, and people online without the help of professionals (Ryoko, 2012). Understanding the motivations for visiting religious places has significant implications for the marketing of religious tourism (Almuhrzi and Alsawafi, 2017).

For travel and destination marketers, understanding why and how people travel is critical for developing appropriate marketing strategies. As stated earlier, much of the literature of religious travel in Islam has focussed on the Hajj with little attention to Umrah and particularly to the DIY aspects of Umrah travel. Existing research on Umrah DIY travel is scarce (Lailatul and Melinda, 2018; Fakhruddin and Ubaidillah, 2021). As the numbers of travellers who want to experience deeper spiritual connection in the religious travel without a rigid tour itinerary increase, it is timely to investigate DIY Umrah travel as a new religious travel segment. This is one of the first studies to assess the emerging phenomenon of fully independent and self-arranged travel in the context of Islamic pilgrimages by addressing the following research objectives: firstly, to explore the motivational factors for DIY Umrah travel among Muslim pilgrims; and secondly, to examine the factors and conditions that support and facilitate the selection of DIY Umrah. The findings will contribute to the growing body of knowledge on Islamic travel and lead to a better understanding of a new and emerging type of DIY Umrah travellers who prefer to develop their own itineraries rather than follow a pre-set travel protocol. This research was based on a qualitative inquiry involving semi-structured interviews with 20 participants to examine a concept that was coined recently for religious travel. Following this introductory section, the literature review, methodology and discussion on the findings will be presented.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review is organised into three bodies of scholarship which inform this study: 1) Islamic Tourism and Pilgrimage Travel, 2) Umrah Travel, and 3) DIY Travellers. This funnel approach to structuring the existing research begins with scoping background literature related to religious tourism as a general topic area and progresses to discussing literature more relevant to the specific subtype of religious and independent travel. Furthermore, the theoretical underpinning will be presented to guide the conceptual foundations of this study.

Islamic Tourism and Pilgrimage Travel

Religious tourism has been investigated from a broad range of contexts, but for this study, it was most relevant to consider the perspectives on pilgrimage tourism and Islamic tourism. Islam, with over 1.9 billion followers in 2020, represents the second largest belief system worldwide (Pew Research Centre, 2021). Di Giovine and Choe (2019) mentioned that a pilgrimage is one of the earliest forms of human travel and a key foundation of contemporary tourism. The writers explained that although a pilgrimage may be done individually, it is most often organised in groups at specific periods of the year. Recent research shows that Islam is the most frequently researched creed, and Islamic tourism is the most studied form of religious travel (Kim et al., 2020). This is remarkable since scholarly interest in Islamic tourism has only just been growing in recent decades (Luz, 2020). Existing studies have examined Muslim tourist satisfaction (Battour et al., 2011), Islamic hospitality (Stephenson, 2014); halal tourism (Rasul, 2019), Islamic brand equity (Shafaei, 2017), the attributes of Muslim destinations (Cuesta-Valino et al., 2020), and the perceived values of Muslim tourists (Eid and Gihary, 2015).

Pilgrimages, whether religious or secular, are gaining popularity across the world. The Hajj and Umrah are forms of pilgrimages that Muslims all over the globe are obligated to perform to bring good fortune (Almuhrzi and Alsawafi, 2017). In this globalised era, it is difficult to avoid the sense that at most pilgrimage sites, the profane effects of tourism are just as prominent, if not more so, than the religious. The pilgrimage environment is characterised by religious congregations, where tourists engage in communal experiences that reflect themselves and their faith. Therefore, the ideal experience, where tourists feel a sense of escapism from the pressures of everyday life, is a product of their ability to project, develop, and ratify their self-concept (Lochrie et al., 2019). In Islam, pilgrimage tourism refers to religious travel to Mecca, such as the Hajj and Umrah pilgrimages, which include visits to three mosques: the al-Masjid al-Haram, the Messenger Mosque, and the Al-Aqsa Mosque. In Islam, travel must be "purposeful," and Muslims are encouraged to travel for religious purposes (Almuhrzi and Alsawafi, 2017). Whilst past research on Muslim pilgrimages and religious travels largely focused on the Hajj, this study followed recent calls to explore Muslim perspectives and religious travels beyond the Hajj (Almuhrzi and Alsawafi, 2017; Luz, 2020). One important reason to explore Umrah travel is that it is one of the largest examples of religious pilgrimages today. As Muslims are called to perform their religious obligations, religious tourism and pilgrimages have become increasingly popular, and the demand for Umrah among Malaysians is on the rise (Othman et al., 2021). In 2019, 19 million pilgrims performed Umrah, including almost 7.5 million pilgrims from abroad (Gornall, 2020).

Almuhrzi and Alsawafi (2017) discovered that attaining inner harmony, integrating and seeking opportunities to grow in spirituality, engaging with family and friends about the meaning of life and so on are the motivations for Umrah travel among Oman travellers. Furthermore, a study conducted by Wu and Mursid (2020) on Indonesian Muslim Umrah travellers to Makkah found that quality, price, emotions, social connections and physical and non-physical Islamic attributes are the values that lead to participation in Umrah. Although the results from both studies are inconsistent, they show that the participation of Umrah travellers promotes both hedonic and emotional values, and that there are significant variations between senior and young travellers, where senior travellers see the educational purposes and feelings of national identity related to sacred sites as important, while these are less motivating for young travellers (Irimias et al., 2016). Often, Muslim pilgrims plan and eagerly anticipate performing both Umrah and Hajj, and are willing, in particular, to use their savings and incur expenses (Nurul'Ain and Khairul Faezi, 2019). As a result, senior travellers are more likely to go on this journey as they have saved their money and are financially equipped. The pilgrimage environment is characterized by religious congregations – with tourists engaging in communal experiences that reflect them and their faith. Therefore, the ideal experience, where tourists feel a sense of escapism from the pressures of everyday life, is a product of their ability to project, develop, and ratify their self-concept (Lochrie et al., 2019).

Umrah Travel

There are several compelling reasons to consider an Umrah pilgrimage. A major reason is that pilgrims are expected to fulfil their religious duties (Bashir et al., 2017). It is more advantageous to perform Umrah during Ramadan than at any other time of the year in terms of the extent of Allah's rewards. This belief originated from two reasons: first, there is an old hadith or saying of the Prophet Muhammad which suggests that undertaking Umrah in Ramadan ('Umrah in Ramadan equals Hajj with me') brings good fortune and rewards; and second, Muslims believe that it was during Ramadan that Muhammad first received verses from the Qur'an, marking it as an auspicious occasion (Hassan et al., 2016). Over the last years, the number of foreign pilgrims performing the Umrah has increased from 6,532.074 in 2017 to 7,457663 in 2019 (General Authority for Statistics, Saudi Arabia, 2021). Malaysia has experienced an increase in demand for Umrah among travellers (Othman et al., 2019). Prior to 2019, most international travellers were required to utilise travel agencies from their home country to make Umrah reservations due to the rules of the Saudi Ministry. However, in September 2019, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia launched tourist e-Visas for citizens of 50 countries, including Malaysia, which contributed to an increasing demand for Umrah. This tourist visa, which is valid for up to 90 days, allows people to enter Saudi Arabia for leisure purposes. Muslims who obtain such a tourist visa can also travel to perform Umrah without the assistance of travel agents or agencies, as long it is outside the Hajj season. However, males appear to have travelled more frequently to perform Umrah, which can be explained by the views of Islamic sects on women travellers, which hold that a Muslim woman should not travel alone on a pilgrimage without being accompanied by a Mahram (husband, son or other family members like father, brother, etc) (Almuhrzi and Alsawafi, 2017).

These dynamics have been recently interrupted by the COVID-19 pandemic. Ebrahim and Memish (2020) stated that due to the COVID-19 pandemic, for the first time in eight decades, Muslim pilgrimages to holy sites in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) have been halted. The decision by the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to suspend Umrah pilgrimage services comes at a high cost to the Saudi economy, including the airline, transportation, and hotel sectors, and has had a negative impact leading to employment issues and affecting the livelihood of native and immigrant workers in holy towns. According to Muneeza and Mustapha (2021), all commercial, social, and religious activities that involve actual meetings and gatherings of people have been halted, and all these activities are now being conducted online. Cancellations would have a significant impact on pilgrims from all 180+ nations, as well as the transportation and hotel industries that cater to pilgrims in the home countries. However, protecting the lives of millions of pilgrims is the main duty and honour of the Custodian of the Two Holy Cities in Islam, namely Makkah and Madinah, and is the main national priority of the KSA. Above all, a pilgrimage is a lifetime dream of Muslims, and many save their entire lives to achieve their eternal dream. According to Finatri et al. (2020), the pandemic has not dampened the enthusiasm of Umrah tourism consumers, who continue to await a statement from the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia welcoming Umrah pilgrims once again.

Do It Yourself (DIY) Travel

Do-It-Yourself (DIY) travel is related to free independent travellers (FITs) (Kireineko, 2011). However, while FITs often make little or no preparation for their trips (Tianhong, 2018), this phase of preparing a journey is important for pilgrims who will be performing Umrah. DIY is an activity in which an individual creates, changes, or produces something. Unlike any other form of 'creation', DIY projects typically require a great deal of innovation, designing, knowledge, skills, and time. With the aid of technology, such as the Internet and social media as rich sources of information, and mobile applications, DIY travellers can acquire the skills needed to learn about cultures, places, and people online without the help of professionals (Ge and Gretzel, 2018; Ryoko, 2012). Whilst other forms of independent and self-organised travels such as free independent travellers (FIT) are related to the DIY concept, DIY puts a stronger emphasis on the time and effort needed to plan and arrange a trip, along with the criteria of independence and flexibility (Tianhong, 2018). DIY was chosen as the most suitable term for this research context since Umrah requires the planning and completion of many details, which have to do with both the actual travel as well as the performance of Umrah.

Umrah requires pilgrims to complete rituals in a specific order, including ablutions, *tawaf*, *Sa'iy*, and *taqsir*. Umrah pilgrims intending to make Sa'iy must make their way out of the Al-Masjid Al-Haram towards the Masaa (Ahmad et al., 2014). This proves that knowledge of the location and rituals must be well understood by the pilgrims to ensure that their worship is accepted. Traditionally, Umrah pilgrims perform their Umrah under the guidance of *Mutawwif* (professional guides), who are provided in travel packages. *Mutawwif* are important since Umrah requires the fulfilment of a series of rituals, including travelling from one location to another. DIY travellers, who have emerged as a relatively new group of travellers, can be characterised as prosumers in the sense that they choose to complete some services themselves rather than pay someone else to perform them (Wolf and McQuitty, 2011). DIY prosumers in tourism define their travel from a very individualised perspective, and they design their travel arrangements based on their personalised expectations and experience (Niezgoda, 2013). These individuals typically shun organised travel to pursue a personal and meaningful travel experience. Therefore, it can reasonably be inferred that this group has been experiencing an ongoing evolution since it first emerged due to advancements in information technology with regard to travel behaviour.

There is limited research connecting Umrah and DIY travel. Almuhrzi and Alsawafi (2017) show that over 50% of interviewed Umrah travellers from Oman performed Umrah via self-arranged transportation, preferring to travel with family or friends. Research conducted by Lailatul and Melinda (2018) focuses on the businesses that provide services for Umrah backpackers in Indonesia. Fakhruddin and Ubaidillah (2021) conceptualise independent Umrah travellers in Indonesia as backpackers and show that they do not perform worship independently but rely on various travel parties. However, there is lack of studies exploring the experiences and motivations from the perspective of Umrah DIY travellers.

Theoretical Foundation

The study used Heinonen et al (2010) Customer-Dominant Logic (CDL) as the underpinning theoretical model to guide the study's methodological development. This theory promotes the use of customer logic mechanisms to assist businesses in developing significant positioning in the minds of their customers. Understanding the customer's logic is proposed as the foundation for the company's marketing and business logic. The customers are no longer a part of the service delivery process. Instead, they are the primary source of business growth and value creation. It is a common way of looking at what customers do with services to achieve their own goals. Value creation, according to the CDL, is based on co-production and customer cocreation. Several previous studies have echoed the importance of CDL in tourism businesses; Rihova et al. (2018) emphasised the importance of value formed when tourists cocreate with each other in tourism settings and opportunities for facilitating this process. According to Lamers et al. (2017), practise theories can be successfully applied in tourism research as an alternative to the dominant economics-driven perspectives, particularly in tourism policy. The CDL was used in a recent study by Fan et al. (2020) to investigate tourists' experiential value co-creation via online social contacts. In conjunction with this study, which focuses on UMRAH DIY travel, which has traditionally been dominated by Service-Dominant Logic (SDL) as opposed to CDL, this attempt to crisscross into travellers' perspectives is logical and justified in terms of the DIY nature as opposed to Group travelling nature.

METHODOLOGY

Due to the exploratory nature of this study, a Hermeneutic Phenomenology approach was adopted to capture and analyse the travel motivations and subjective realities of the respondents. Hermeneutics focuses on individual and group’s subjective experience and is an attempt to reveal the world as experienced by the subject through their life stories. It can be carried out through empirical (collection of experiences) and reflective (analysis of their meanings) activities (Van Manen, 1990). An interview guide was used to cover a broad range of topics related to Umrah DIY. The interview guide consisted of three main sections, where open-ended interview questions were used, except for the section on the sociodemographic information (Brdesee et al., 2013). In the first section, respondents were asked to share their socio-demographic characteristics, such as gender, age, educational level, occupation, and household income. In the second section, participants were asked about their understanding of DIY travel and as well as their past experiences on travelling independently and DIY. The final section included questions about the respondents’ motivations and reasons for participating in Umrah DIY travel to gain an in-depth understanding of the participants’ travel motives and its underlying dimensions. The inquiry also sought to gain an understanding of the planning process as well as the participants' own thoughts and views about Umrah DIY.

Snowball sampling and convenience sampling were used to recruit the participants, who must have performed Umrah DIY at least once and had to be Malaysians. The participants were approached via Umrah DIY Facebook forum page, where members post and share their experiences of performing Umrah DIY. The potential participants were invited via a private Facebook message explaining the background and purpose of study, and there were also a few participants who helped recommend family members and friends who had experienced Umrah DIY. Although a total of 45 participants were contacted via private Facebook messages, only 20 participants were finally able to take part. The sample size was determined based on the recommendation by Creswell (1998) that the sample size for qualitative research should be in the range of 5 to 25, while Morse (1994) suggested a minimum sample size of 6 for phenomenological studies. Once the interview times were agreed upon, the interviews were conducted using online meeting tools, where MS teams and Google Hangouts Meet were used due to the ongoing Movement Control Order (MCO) as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. Each interview lasted between 45 minutes up to 2 hours, depending on the setting and the participant's responsiveness.

The interviews were recorded during the online meeting and were subsequently transcribed between March and July 2021. The interviews were conducted in Bahasa Malaysia as all the participants were Malays, and the transcripts were later translated by the first author. To manage the interview transcripts effectively, NVivo was employed to assist in the initial classification and management of the data, thereby enabling a systematic and more in-depth approach to be used for the analytical process. The transcribed and translated interview data were arranged and coded according to common themes to facilitate the analysis and for comparison with the scholarly literature. For the thematic categorisation, a two-cycle coding was carried out, as proposed by Saldaña (2021). Descriptive coding was used in the first step to capture and categorise the range of views shared by the research participants. This coding method is appropriate for almost all forms of qualitative studies and includes a summary of the key concept in a passage of data in one word or a short sentence (Saldaña, 2021). Pattern coding was used in the second cycle to group the descriptive codes into a smaller number of themes (Saldaña, 2021). This coding approach was used to extract big themes from the data and to scan the data for motives or interpretations (Miles and Huberman, 2014). It allowed the researcher to build a meta-code (Saldana, 2021). The data were examined for similarities and differences across the interviews to create an understanding of the broad conditions that influenced the travellers to embark on Umrah DIY.

The trustworthiness of the data and findings were ensured by following three principles (Patricia et al., 2009): (a) attention to detail in data generation and analysis; (b) careful documentation of the thematic analysis using narrative accounts, and (c) stringent data maintenance and supervision to ensure the privacy of the study participants. In addition, this study also performed a check of the data by the respondents, where the findings were returned to the participants after the data analysis. Validation by the participants was one way to explore the credibility of the findings. The results or findings were returned to participants for them to confirm that they were consistent with their experience and accurate (Gunawan, 2015). The anonymity of the participants is a critical component of an ethical research. In presenting and discussing the findings, pseudonyms were used to report the experiences of the participants. The research flow of the study is summarised in Figure 1.

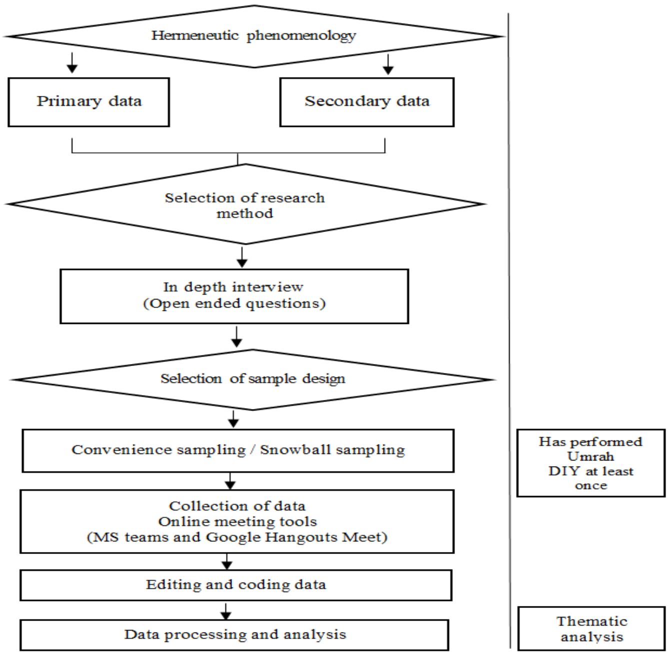

Figure 1. Research Flow

Table 1. Demographic profiles of the respondents

Characteristics	*n*	%
Gender		
Male	7	35
Female	13	65
Age		
20 - 29	2	10
30 – 39	11	55
40 – 49	5	25
50 - 59	2	10
Education		
High school	1	5
Diploma	0	0
Degree	15	75
Master	2	10
Ph.D	2	10
Household Income		
B40	3	15
M40	10	50
T20	7	35
Prior Umrah experience		
No experience	9	45
1	6	30
> 1	5	25

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Respondents' Profiles

As shown in Table 1, the ages of all the participants varied from 26 to 58 years, with 10% of them being between the ages of 20 and 29 years, 55% between the ages of 30 and 39 years, 25% between the ages of 40 and 49 years, and 10% between the ages of 50 and 59 years. The average age of the participants was 42 years. Thirteen of the participants were females, while the remaining seven were males. Most of the participants were holders of at least a Bachelor's degree, while 10% of the participants received their PhD from the United Kingdom, which is considered as a high level of education. In Malaysia, the income classification method is used to determine household income. Malaysians are placed into three different income classification brackets in Malaysia, namely, the B40, M40 and T20. Those in the B40 group earn between RM 2,500 and RM 4,850 per month. After the B40 comes the M40 group, which represents the middle-income earners, who account for 40% of the population of Malaysia. M40 households are defined as those earning between RM 4,850 and RM 10,959 per month. The participants' household incomes were generally in the M40 range. Representing the top 20% of income earners in Malaysia, the T20 group is categorised as those who earn from RM 10,960 to more than RM 15,039. Around 35% of the participants were from the T20 category, which covers the high-income earners. Finally, 15% of the participants belonged to the B40 category, which is the lower-income group.

According to a survey of 198 Umrah travellers conducted by Hassan et al. (2015), most of the participants in the study were earning between RM 3,500.00 and RM 4,999.99, which fell within the B40 category, while another study of 190 Umrah travellers by Hassan et al. (2016) also found that most of the participants were within the B40 category. A study among 384 Umrah package travellers by Othman et al. (2021) also found that most of the participants belonged to the B40 category, which was slightly different from the findings of this study, which identified 50% of Umrah DIY participants as being from the M40 category. From the interview session, 11 of the participants had performed Umrah at least once before participating in Umrah DIY; and 9 of the participants had no prior experience of performing Umrah but were very familiar with the Do It Yourself travel journey, where all of them had travelled locally and abroad independently without the aid of travel agents.

Umrah DIY Travel Motivations

The findings revealed that three important motivational factors contributed to the performance of the Umrah DIY: flexibility, budget travel, and spirituality. The sections that follow describe the findings connected with these themes and their relevance as Umrah DIY travel motivations. It was also noticed that a sense of motivation promoted the desire to return to the location and advise others.

Flexibility

One of the themes that emerged from the data analysis was flexibility. The participants expressed a sense of freedom while opting to embark on the Umrah DIY since the itinerary was tailored to their comfort and time arrangements. Flexibility is one of the primary reasons that drives independent travellers (Rosenberg, 2018). En Azli, one of the participants, had no prior experience in performing the Umrah, but he used to travel abroad when he was single and was studying medicine in Dublin, Ireland. Since he was now married, he preferred to go on DIY travels. He had never used a travel agent before, either when travelling locally or internationally. He selected Umrah DIY and emphasized that the primary reason for his choice was its flexibility. For him, the fact that he had no prior experience of Umrah was not important because he was fully aware of Umrah procedures and had been preparing for this journey since his years as an undergraduate:

"I understand the rituals in Umrah. So, when we know what to do during Umrah and how to perform it, we also know when we purchase the package, there are additional activities that aren't linked to Umrah, which inspired me to look for a DIY solution. Flexibility and freedom are the factors that lead a person to prefer to undertake Umrah on their own rather than through a package tour. It is not necessarily due to the price, as the package tours offered by travel agencies are generally fair." (Male, 40)

Encik Azli highlighted that a DIY travel allowed him to have a room to himself rather than having to share a room with other people. Having his own personal space was very important for his comfort and privacy. Apart from that, Encik Azli had no interest in other attractions or activities such as the date market or purchasing souvenirs. His self-arranged travel activities enabled him to fully concentrate on his core interest, which was spending as much time as possible at the mosque. A similar experience was shared by Dr Salma, a dentist, who had performed Umrah before with a travel agency. She stated:

"*I appreciate the time flexibility since I've been on Umrah trips with travel agents, where they'll drop by to purchase dates, raisins, and scarves. I despise shopping and purchasing small items, which is why I don't like to join a travel group; they will spend a lot of time shopping, and I will usually be waiting in the bus." (Female, 36)*

Dr Salma stated that during the planning stage, she would cut out everything related to shopping and fill it with *ziarah*, which she did throughout Madinah, visiting the Masjid al-Nabawi (Mosque of the Prophet), museums and other nearby locations. It appears that travellers choose DIY for their religious journey to focus on their main aim, which is to perform prayers and visit historical places linked with the prophet. According to a previous study by Wang et al. (2016), the main objectives of religious travellers are to strengthen their religious faith, visit the historic origins of their religion on a faith-based vacation, experience distinct cultures, and visit holy landmarks. The importance of flexibility drives believers to explore and immerse themselves in locations that enhance their appreciation of creation and faith in Allah (Nassar et al., 2015).

Deeper Spirituality

Another subject that developed was Deeper Spirituality, which is the journey of the traveller's transformation. Looking back on the interviews, spirituality was strongly connected with phrases like "life-changing" or "rewarding" experience by the participants. Most of the participants felt closer to Allah, and appreciated the travel to perform Umrah, which encouraged them to consider returning to Makkah and Madinah again, whenever the chance allowed. According to Robledo (2015), spirituality is concerned with an individual's search for meaning in life. In a broader sense, spirituality refers to the individual's experience and connection with the transcendent dimension of reality. It is an inner route that allows a person to uncover the essence of being as well as the deepest values and purposes in life. Di Giovine and Choe (2019) further explained that a pilgrimage is an extraordinary experience that leads to spiritual and personal cleansing and rebirth. Pilgrimage sites, however, continue to resound with significance for pilgrims seeking meaning, healing, consolation, and forgiveness, in accordance with the goals of spiritual travellers. The pilgrimage trip is also spiritual in nature, with the pilgrim striving for a mystical encounter or meaningful experience. This was observed when one of the participants discussed performing Umrah for the second time after missing it on the first occasion. According to Dr. Salma:

"I miss Makkah because it allows us to fully forget about work and focus on prayer. That's the distinction between here and there. Here, we will still worship, but we also have to work. I've got the opportunity to pray five times at the mosque without worry over there" (Female, 36).

This is similar to the experience of Puan Zaleha, who had the opportunity to learn how to recite the Al-Quran at Masjid Nabawi with a prominent Ustazah during Umrah DIY trip. However, as compared to Umrah travellers who travels with the help of a travel agency pre-arranged package group tours, DIY travellers feel deeper and closer to God during her Umrah DIY trip. This was possible by staying at Madinah for three weeks, which would not have been possible on a package tour, which normally lasts for 14 days for the whole trip. In describing her experience, Zaleha stated:

"Umrah is not a vacation. That is the first thing people should understand about Umrah. So, by doing it myself, I was able to fulfil my inner desires, and what I wanted from the Umrah was fulfilled, that is, I was able to study the Al-Quran with an Ustazah in Masjid Nabawi near Madinah, where I had the opportunity to study for three weeks. It is not possible for us to do this if we go under package since you will only be there for three days, but I could stay in Madinah for three weeks. I could also study near Quba's Mosque and join the Arab and Malaysian students learning the Al-Quran around 4-5 times a week." (Female, 51)

Her experience was memorable because of DIY since she had more time to focus on her Al-Quran recital and to be in the mosque with others who were working to improve their recitation. According to Luz (2020), millions of Muslims visit a variety of sacred sites, which, as explained earlier, was a pre-Islamic custom that was eventually recognised even by religious academics. Writers referred to them as a substitute hajj, which motivated sacred travels and the obtaining of blessings from holy or pious individuals. As a result, this type of religious journey is essential, not only because it is what the majority of Muslims pursue, but also because it allows researchers to study Islam in all its complexity, as well as its local/national/regional variety and influences.

Budget Travel

All travellers have their own yearly budget that they set aside for travel. According to Sørensen (2003), this explains why independent travellers are obsessed with budgeting, often overly so, and definitely to an extent that exceeds the necessity to budget when travelling long-term. However, most of them have credit cards and are better placed financially than their appearance suggests. The capacity to travel cheaply, on the other hand, indicates road competence; it indicates that they know their way about and understand how to get products and services at inexpensive rates. Umrah DIY is seen as a more affordable pilgrimage as Umrah package tours can be quite expensive. Some of the participants compared the prices of packaged tours with the cost of a self-arranged budget travel. The experience of Puan Aishah, who was working in the oil and gas industry and had no prior experience of Umrah, showed the importance of planning with an appropriate budget:

"First and foremost, there must be a budget. Budget was in line with my expectations. Then, there's the time factor." (Female, 38)

Puan Aishah stated that her major reason for choosing Umrah DIY was to save money and time, which certainly impacted her decision to conduct Umrah. She emphasised that it was essential that she be happy and peaceful when travelling for Umrah. She did not have to adhere to the agency's schedule or wait for other members of the group to travel, which would have undoubtedly made her feel uncomfortable and been a waste of time. She disliked waiting for others, and preferred to stick to her own schedule and budget. While comparing the costs of Umrah packages and DIY travels, Puan Nadia, another first-time Umrah performer, stated that with good preparation, she was able to save on half the cost of the travel package:

"I believe that DIY is less expensive. Let's assume it's now RM 6,000 with a package, but I can get it for RM 3,000 with DIY Umrah. Apart from that, time is no longer an issue as we may go wherever we choose and eat whatever we want." (Female, 42)

By conducting a Umrah DIY, travellers can save a significant amount of money by selecting their own hotel, transportation, and activities. A similar experience was shared by En. Ali, a very experienced Umrah traveller who used to operate a travel agency before the pandemic and now runs an online business:

"The budget is critical. I once stayed at a hotel near the clock tower in Mecca. I used to bring my family, and the cost if you go with the package is RM9,000, but I was on a tight budget at the time, and I was able to stay near the clock tower for less than RM 4,500. However, if you go under the package, it is RM 9000." (Male, 34)

These illustrations show that a significant amount can be saved when travelling with Umrah DIY. According to Kotze and McKay (2020), such budget-minded travellers are constantly searching for ways to lower their travel budget. This sort of traveller will frequently use public transport, choose low-cost lodgings, and have a flexible extended trip schedule.

Factors that Support and Facilitate the Selection of Umrah DIY

In addition to the motivational factor discussed above, the findings suggested four additional factors that supported and facilitated the choice of performing the Umrah in a DIY mode: information sources, travel quality, companionship/new friendship, and familiarity. The themes below emerged throughout the Umrah DIY planning process, where participants were asked to describe why they chose Umrah DIY and to share how they planned their travel. The themes varied according to the motivating elements, in that they emphasised how essential the themes were in facilitating the success of the Umrah DIY journey. The factors helped the travellers in their planning as well as facilitated their journey. A few of the participants stated that without the facilitating factors, completing their Umrah DIY journey would have been almost impossible. According to Yoo et al. (2017), since the early days of computer networks, information technology (IT) has played an essential role in tourism. Applications, such as for flight bookings and hotel reservations, not only make it easier to have direct interactions with service providers, but also greatly facilitate and support the trip for tourists. Interactivity is a feature that allows users and administrators to conduct instant activities such as providing real-time feedback, active conversations, meetings with other people who share the same interests, and exchange information. According to Tsai (2010), self-confidence and external resources, such as available facilities, are examples of supporting conditions, which may lead independent travellers to join and advise others on the journey.

Information Sources

The availability of information regarding Umrah DIY travel is an important facilitating factor in organising the planned trips and reducing perceived and actual risks. Wang et al. (2014) mentioned that external media, such as the Internet, travel advice, and word-of-mouth, are not the sole sources of information. Internal factors such as memory and personal experience also play a role in the formation of risk perception. However, the advancement of technology has altered the behaviour of travellers, who now rely on the Internet to search for information, plan their trips, and make purchases. The development of social networking platforms like Facebook and Telegram has also influenced how individuals purchase travels (Cosma et al., 2013). Whilst online applications, social media, and the Internet play a crucial role in organising travel details and familiarising oneself with the procedures of Umrah, several of the respondents in this study engaged in additional and specialised training courses for Umrah. One of the interviewees, Dr Salma, attended an Umrah course twice during the preparation phase to ensure that she completely understood Umrah rituals. Umrah course is designed to educate future pilgrims on the rituals and religious components of the pilgrimage. The courses are usually free, and are conducted by *Tabung Haji*, which is the Malaysian haj pilgrims fund board, or by private travel agencies. Anyone who is interested may simply join to gain knowledge and prepare for the religious journey. Dr Salma's spouse, a convert, attended Umrah course four times to prepare for his first Umrah. Dr Salma also joined a Umrah DIY Telegram group, which she said was highly informative because there were many tour guides and people who had already completed Umrah DIY and were eager to share their itineraries and experiences with the group.

"*Some people feel that hiring an agent for the first time is a smart decision, but I felt secure enough to follow my husband when I brought my mother because I had done it the second time and my mother had performed the Umrah several times. Besides that, I joined a Umrah DIY forum on Telegram. The group is extremely educational since there are many tour guides in there, and then there are individuals who exchange itinerary details in the group, so I can get a lot of ideas from there." (Female, 36)*

Dr Salma believed that it was critical for pilgrims to attend Umrah courses provided by Tabung Haji or other relevant organisations to ensure that pilgrims are fully prepared for the trip. Since DIY travellers undertake Umrah without a package, there will be no *Mutawwif* (tour guide) to provide advice throughout the journey. Aside from that, she discussed her experience in searching for information via the Internet and Telegram during the preparation phase to construct her itinerary. Similarly, Puan Zaleha, whose daughter had taken over the family business after her retirement, conducted Umrah DIY with her husband in January 2020 while waiting for tips and guidance from experienced travellers. Despite having experience in performing Umrah, organising a DIY trip was difficult because she did not speak Arabic. Yet, when she learned that it was possible to conduct Umrah independently, she decided to grab this opportunity. She consulted other Umrah travellers and gathered travel information online to prepare herself for the journey.

"When I heard the Arabs are allowing us to perform the Umrah DIY, I felt like going as both my husband and I are retired, and we have let the children take over the business. I didn't feel like rushing as there was a need to gather information from other travellers. I followed a few group pages on Umrah DIY and asked for tips and guidance from experienced Umrah DIY travellers. After 3 months of gathering information and reading about other travellers' experiences online, we are confident." (Female, 51)

The findings showed that information on Umrah DIY was freely available online, especially through social media groups such as Facebook as well as Telegram groups, which were used to exchange experiences and advice, thereby assisting DIY travellers to overcome their fear of performing Umrah independently. This was consistent with Marder et al. (2021), who stated that travellers will have quick textual and visual access to information online, and will be able to refer to photos posted by destination managers and other travellers. Tourists or user-generated material may be available on a wide range of social media platforms, including both travel specific (e.g., TripAdvisor, Yelp) and general sites (e.g., Facebook, Instagram, Telegram).

Travel Quality

There is a link between the source of information and the quality of travel. Essentially, travel quality includes adequate sanitation and hygiene, transportation quality, retail centres, lodging, excellent restaurants, and recreational activities. According to Boz and Karakas (2017), the effect of the destination image on travel quality falls within the scope of 'good reputation.' As a result, it is reasonable to conclude that a good reputation for travel quality is beneficial in gaining the perception of quality from travellers, particularly when it comes to independent travel. Dr Salma was pleased with the services that were available at the hotel since they offered playground services, where she could leave her children while she went for prayers:

"*There are several hotels close to the Haram Mosque. They provide children's playground services. We can take the playground package if we only come along with our spouse and no one else can assist in taking care of the youngsters. It is not costly, only RM 40 per hour". (Female, 36)*

With such services being provided by the hotel, travellers are not only able to focus on their prayers, but they also have peace of mind knowing that someone is caring for their children. In addition, another tourist, Puan Aimi, who works as a systems engineer, stated that the amenities provided in Saudi Arabia made it possible for her to perform Umrah on her own. According to Doheim et al. (2019), Makkah has evolved into a digital city with the development of its infrastructure to provide services to its citizens and travellers (e.g., health, real estate, safety and security), with advanced technology for more efficient performance, as well as having an environmental city with technology.

"The facilities are excellent. Everything is simple in terms of arranging hotels and transportation. That is why I want to do my own Umrah." (Female, 35)

She emphasised that it was not a problem to decide on Umrah DIY because Saudi Arabia is a well-developed country, coupled with great facilities, and it was her second time performing the Umrah. She was confident about embarking on Umrah DIY because all the information on hotels and transportation could be found online. She was able to compare hotel prices via Agoda, which aided her in her decision. Transportation was easily accessible, thanks to Uber, which she had downloaded before arriving in Saudi Arabia.

Companionship / New Friendship

Social media has created a new way for people to engage with each other, and friendships have evolved as a result. In past generations, a friend was someone with whom one could naturally connect with in everyday situations, whereas friends made through the Internet may be somewhat unknown. Shuo, Ryan and Liu (2009) noted that one of the factors that inspire pilgrims is social contact, which is centred on religious events, social engagements with friends and other religious believers, and the enjoyment of the journey and the satisfaction of intellectual curiosity. This could be observed in Umrah DIY journey, where most of the participants met new friends through the DIY Umrah Facebook forum and other online media who shared the same goal, which was to complete Umrah without the assistance of an agency. Some of them even planned their itinerary together, while others discussed the trip online. Puan Laila, a stay-at-home spouse, participated in Umrah DIY with her daughter. As she was afraid of travelling, she decided to look for another person on Umrah DIY Forum who would be going on the same day as her. Coincidentally, another woman was planning to complete her Umrah alone. As a result, they booked the same hotel and flight.

"I first intended to take my daughter. People said it was risky for both of us to go alone. So, I looked for someone else to join us as well. Then, it just so happened that a woman also wanted to do the DIY and agreed to join me. So, we boarded the plane and booked a room together, but we didn't perform the Umrah together. Both of us followed our own schedule in terms of the Umrah but did make time to grab lunch or dinner together." (Female, 42)

The constraints with regard to pilgrimage travel include poor health, and lack of time due to work commitments. Shuo, Ryan and Liu (2009) also suggested that potential tourists who are widows or single sometimes do not travel since they do not have a travelling partner. Another factor that interferes and makes it more difficult for them to travel is that they need to care for their own elderly parents while also planning to meet their own needs. This limits their travel time and may cause them to reconsider spending money on a trip. In this context, one of the recognisable constraints to Umrah DIY travel is the lack of a companion. For Puan Laila, having companions, including her daughter and new friend, Puan Habsah, increased her confidence in the journey. One of the respondents, En Hadi, a schoolteacher, emphasised that to complete Umrah DIY, it was necessary for him to be more sociable as there was no one to lead them. He mentioned that two ways he used to make acquaintances and seek information to simplify his Umrah travel were to approach strangers for information and meet locals for guidance.

"*The first day I entered Raudah, I prayed, 'Oh God, help me on my journey and let me visit the prophet's sites here.' And then, in Raudah, magically, I met a US citizen, Muhamad, who resides in Jeddah. We talked and he asked whether I would like to visit the area as he noticed that I was traveling without an agent. Then, he informed me about his friend, who could show me around at a very cheap price." (Male, 32)*

En Hadi was happy to meet Muhamad, who was willing to refer him to a local friend. He learned a lot about the history and places that most travellers had yet to see and that only locals would know about.

Familiarity

Individuals with more travel experience are more inclined to purchase trips online (Amaro and Duarte, 2013). The frequency of travel has a favourable impact on online searches, online purchases, and customised orientations. There was evidence of this as one of the interviewees, Puan Aimi, was highly experienced with DIY travel, having visited Korea, Maldives, Indonesia, and Thailand without the need of an agent. Although she did not purchase a tour package for her trip to Indonesia, she hired a driver to take her around the city. Furthermore, this was her second Umrah, having previously completed her first Umrah with a package tour. As a result of her familiarity with the rituals and locations, she was confident in doing Umrah DIY.

"That depends. Some are do-it-yourself, while others are pre-packaged. For example, I've visited Korea, Maldives, Indonesia, and Thailand with DIY, but in Bandung, I occasionally hire a driver." (Female, 35)

Although she arranged some trips on her own, but occasionally she would hire drivers or purchase pre-packaged trips to facilitate her journey. A similar experience was shared by another traveller, Puan Zaleha, who was familiar with the DIY concept because, as a businesswoman, she would have to go to countries like Indonesia and Thailand to purchase goods. As for the Umrah, she had performed it 5 times with a travel agent.

"Because of business, I've always travelled overseas from a young age, even as far as Indonesia. It's very common for me to go to buy goods to trade, then, I will travel to Thailand as well. For the Umrah, I have gone there about five times." (Female, 51).

Performing Umrah five times would undoubtedly have allowed Puan Zaleha to become familiar with the rituals and locations in Makkah and Madinah. Choosing to do the Umrah DIY will not be a problem if you are well-versed with the area. Similarly, En Aiman, who was a teacher at a religious school, had performed Umrah before with an agent and enjoyed travelling either solo or with friends to other countries. He decided to perform his second Umrah independently by DIY as he was familiar with the rituals and preferred to travel solo.

"I would usually travel with friends or solo. My solo trip to London was a DIY and I have performed the Umrah before with my family through a package." (Male, 26)

En Aiman appeared to be a person who enjoyed travelling, and despite being single, he had visited a few countries on his own. As a religious teacher, he was also knowledgeable about the rituals, and understood Arabic, which contributed to his confidence in doing Umrah DIY.

Table 2. Importance rankings of Umrah Do It Yourself selection

Rank	Umrah Do It Yourself selection	Coding references
1	Flexibility	41
2	Information sources	30
3	Familiarity	22
4	Travel quality	21
5	Companion / New friendship	21
6	Budget travel	18

As indicated in Table 2, the rankings were identified based on the coding references, which were essentially the textual identifiers linked to the theme. "Deeper Spirituality" and "budget travel" had the fewest coding references (18), followed by "companion/new friendship" and "travel quality" (21). Following that, the third most important reason for Umrah DIY was "familiarity", with 22 coding references, followed by "information sources" (30), while the most important reason was "flexibility", with the most coding references (41).

CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was to explore the complex motivations and dimensions of Umrah Do-It-Yourself (DIY) travel and the factors that facilitate the decision-making for a more independent form of pilgrimage. With the revision of the E-Umrah Visa policy by the government of Saudi Arabia in 2019, there has been a growing trend towards DIY by international pilgrims who perform their Umrah independently instead of going through travel agencies. Flexibility, budget travel and deeper spirituality were the themes that emerged to explain why Umrah DIY opt to plan and manage the most important travel in their lifetime by themselves. Findings further showed that internet sources including user-generated content on social media platforms were the main factor that supported this shift from a pre-packed Umrah tour to a Umrah DIY. According to Othman et al. (2021), the advancement of the Internet allows online communities with the same interests to search, connect, and share their travel experiences via different social media platforms. Previous studies have shown that most travellers would refer to past tourist reviews shared on online platforms before deciding on their trips (Collie, 2014; Gretzel and Yoo, 2008; Vermeulen and Seegers, 2009; Ye et al., 2009). This was also observed in the current study as Umrah DIY travellers used the platforms on social media to consult and learn from the experiences of other DIYers on how to plan and support their process of decision making in planning for the Umrah visit. This was especially apparent among those experienced travellers who had visited the holy sites before or experienced DIY travellers as they looked for a more distinctive and immersive travel experiences.

Theoretical Implications

Theoretically, this research contributes to the intersecting terrain of religious and independent travel. Previous studies on Muslim pilgrimage focused on Hajj and existing research on Umrah tended to concentrate on identifying several sets of practices for service quality and the criteria for selecting an Umrah travel agency (Bashir et al., 2017; Muhammad and Artanti, 2016; Muslim et al., 2020). The only studies on Umrah DIY were found to have focused on the feasibility of Umrah backpackers among young Indonesian travellers (Lailatul and Melinda, 2018; Fakhruddin and Ubaidillah, 2021), and Hajj backpackers regarding the possibilities and obstacles of religious travellers (Kusumaningtyas, 2019). Findings highlight budget conscious travellers and the need for flexibility as it has also been documented for other forms of independent travel such as backpacking. However, Umrah DIY travellers look for a deeper spiritual and religious experience and at the same time appreciate the forming of new social relationships during their individual journeys. As tourists seek ways to maximise their experiences, this study may help in the creation of DIY travel options for Umrah pilgrims. Findings highlight a strong desire for flexibility and independence, as most of the participants were not in favour of following a fixed itinerary provided by the travel agency or travelling in groups. Some respondents are not interested in sightseeing, shopping, or visiting museums, which will be provided in Umrah package travel by the travel agency. The ability to be flexible has allowed Umrah DIY traveller to meet new people while also focusing on the core objective of Umrah, which is performing the rituals. When conducting Umrah DIY, there is a deeper contact with Allah because the attention has shifted primarily to prayers and the travellers would rely solely on Allah to ease the journey because there is no agency to guide or assist.

As this study was exploratory in nature, it provides a useful direction for future research to investigate the theoretical development in customer dominant logic (Heinonen et al., 2010). From a theoretical marketing perspective, the study suggests that the ultimate goal of marketing should be the customer experience and the resulting value-in-use for customers in their specific context, rather than the service. As a result, the central question is how Umrah operators, the public sector such as the respective ministries, and promotional boards can support ongoing activity and experience structures for Umrah DIY travellers. Besides, in line with developing a conceptual model based on customer dominant logic, the outcome of this study suggests that perceived flexibility and sense of independence are important variables in customizing Yi and Gong’s (2013) measurement scale towards customer value co-creation behaviour in the context of Umrah DIY intention.

Practical Implications

The findings of the study provide valuable information to local governments, managers of the pilgrims' sites and future Umrah DIY travellers. The findings showed that the combination of advanced technology and shift in the visa regulations have created a new wave of Umrah DIY travellers who are increasingly accustomed to using social media and other internet sources to plan their spiritual tours. As such, the Saudi Arabian Government should play the leading role in developing successful marketing packages to promote the Umrah E-Visa to realise the Vision 2030 blueprint to tap on tourist markets beyond religious pilgrims as part of an economic revolution plan especially after tourism industry is badly hits by Covid-19 pandemic. Umrah DIY travellers with positive travel experiences in the country can also promote the image of the destination beyond the religious image and may be a source of return travellers. In addition, the findings can support managers of pilgrimage sites, especially those providing hospitality facilities such as hotels and transportation to understand the preferences and expectation of this new group of Umrah travellers. The managers can use the findings of this paper to repackage their products to cater to their demand. Lastly, as this paper also sought to explore the factors that support and facilitate the decision to choose Umrah DIY, this helps to provide some useful guidance to prepare the future Umrah travellers in planning for their spiritual journey using the DIY approach.

Limitations and Future Research

This study was not free of limitations. The first limitation of this study was related to the recruitment of a sufficient sample that fitted the criteria of performing Umrah travels using the DIY approach at least once. As the introduction of the e-Umrah visa was only initiated in 2019, and was suspended in 2020 due to the outbreak of Covid-19, few Malaysians are aware of it and have undertaken Umrah journeys using the DIY approach. Secondly, due to continuing concerns about Covid-19, the interviews were mainly conducted online via the Zoom platform. Even though the online platform was a safer approach for conducting the interviews during the pandemic, there were technical issues, such as poor connectivity during the interview, which complicated the interview process as sometimes there were delays in the transmission and the researchers were unable to hear or communicate with the respondents efficiently and vice versa. In addition, some respondents were not comfortable about speaking in front of the screen, while some of them turned down the invitation. On comparing the benefits as well as the drawbacks of online interviews, face-to-face interviews are still regarded as a better approach for future researchers to conduct the interviews in the context of Malaysia. In addition, as this was one of the first studies to explore the phenomenon of Umrah DIY, besides looking into the motivations as well as the factors that facilitate the selection of the DIY approach, perhaps future researchers could extend the study investigating the barriers and challenges that are encountered by Umrah DIY when planning and performing Umrah, and the sociodemographic factors that might influence the motivation to travel using the DIY approach, for example, the demographic factors, such as age, gender, and socioeconomic status.

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Article history: Received: 28.08.2021 Revised: 29.11.2021 Accepted: 27.12.2021 Available online: 12.01.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.49-55
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40105-801

INVESTIGATING THE EFFECT OF COVID-19 GLOBAL TRAVEL RESTRICTIONS ON TOURISTS' TRAVEL BEHAVIOR, HABITS AND INTENTIONS "APPLIED STUDY ON SAUDI TOURISTS"

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Citation: Refaat, S.A., & Arafa, H.F. (2022). INVESTIGATING THE EFFECT OF COVID-19 GLOBAL TRAVEL RESTRICTIONS ON TOURISTS' TRAVEL BEHAVIOR, HABITS AND INTENTIONS "APPLIED STUDY ON SAUDI TOURISTS". *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 49–55. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40105-801

Abstract: Covid-19 pandemic posed new global restrictions affected movement and tourists' travel behavior and habits. This study aims to investigate and monitor these effects to understand the new features of tourists' behavior in general and Saudis in particular. The study depending on closed-ended questionnaire directed to 374 Saudi air travelers to investigate their travel habits and behavior before and after the pandemic, using t-test and chi- square to analyze it. The study resulted that covid-19 travel restrictions affected travelers' preferences, habits and intentions, especially concerning destination choice, reservation methods, tourist activities, and means of transportation, accommodation and trip duration.

Key words: travel restrictions, covid-19, travelers, behaviors, habits, tourism

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INTRODUCTION

"In April 2020, 100% of the world's tourist destinations have imposed travel restrictions in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) has predicted that the number of international tourists will fall by up to 80% this year. An estimated 120 million tourism jobs will be at risk" (UNWTO, 2020b). According to Seyfia et al. (2020) in an effort to contain the advancement of the novel coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, many states have introduced unprecedented peacetime measures ranging from border closures and travel bans to the suspension of visa exemptions, as well as internal mobility restrictions, including full lockdowns and quarantine for incoming passengers. Covid-19, the pandemic is changing individuals' behavior. Worldwide, the restrictions put in place to limit the diffusion and impacts of Covid-19 have had a widespread impact on people's lives in general, and in travel and tourism in particular (Haque, 2020). The world's governments have taken a number of measures to mitigate the direct effects on the tourism sector, although it is expected that this pandemic will change the shape of the travel and tourism sector in the future, especially with regard to health safety (Kampel, 2020). This study aims to monitor and analyze the effects of the closure wave and global restrictions on movement and mobility imposed by the Covid 19 pandemic on the change in the behavior and travel habits of tourists, and the study focuses on Saudi tourists in particular, especially with partial decisions to open airports and allow travel according to specific terms and conditions.

LITREATURE REVIEW

Travel and Tourism in the Corona Virus Era

Jamal and Budke (2020) state that "the travel and tourism industry is one of the largest in the world, with globalization, threats and challenges have magnified with the ease of travel and the rapid movement of goods, knowledge, finance and disease". However, Deb and Nafi (2020) mention that health issues and climate change have become the biggest challenges for the tourism industry, and now the Corona pandemic, which began in the Chinese province of Hubei quickly, has spread to the rest of the world, threatening a global economic recession. Gallo et al., 2021: 1033 explain that "there is no doubt that the current period is very difficult for business and economic development. The current outbreak of the disease has had dire economic consequences around the world. It is a period that requires major changes so that markets can recover in general after the pandemic. It will depend largely on the quality of decisions at the state and institutional level, which is an opportunity to learn from the crisis and develop future scenarios". Deb and Nafi (2020) point out that the tourism industry is facing a crisis and exceptional challenge that has not happened before, as hotels and resorts have been closed and travel agencies and airline companies have been suspended due to the health conditions affected by the COVID-19 pandemic (Orlik et al., 2020). "In the past years, the tourism industry has witnessed a remarkable growth in the number of tourists around the world and in tourism revenues. With

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international tourist arrivals increasing 4 % to become 1.5 billion globally in 2019, experts had been expecting 2020 to be another successful year for tourism until the scenario changed with the coronavirus outbreak" (Bakar and Rosbi, 2020).

At the end of 2020, according to UNWTO Barometer, December 2020: 1 "International tourist arrivals fell by average 72% in January-October 2020 over the same period last year, curbed by slow virus containment, low traveler confidence and important restrictions on travel still in place, due to the COVID-19 pandemic". The COVID-19 pandemic has severely affected the economic development of all countries of the world, even the economies of the most developed countries such as the USA, UK, Japan and Europe (Kumudumali, 2020). Since there is a basic and direct relationship between pandemics and travel, tourists might cancel their trips and avoid travel (Sultana et al. 2020).

Air Transport and the Ramifications of Covid-19

Sheard (2014) states that Air transport including airports and aircraft manufacturing is closely related and considered as a major catalyst for other economic activities, especially the tourism industry. OECD (2020): 2 adds that "flights to a large number of destinations are an essential factor in international tourism", according to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2020): 1 "The COVID-19 outbreak represents the first global pandemic to affect passenger air transport, which began in the late 1950s. The infamous 1918 influenza pandemic and others had little impact on commercial air travel, where international air travel was not as extensive as it is today". Elias (2020) displays that the COVID-19 pandemic has had a major impact on civil aviation with more stay-at-home travel restrictions and quarantine after travel from certain regions. These public concerns have led to a significant drop in demand for air travel since March 2020. Expectations indicate that passenger air travel will not return to normal levels until 2023. A significant decrease in the demand for passenger air transport threatens the existence of a large number of companies in various sectors of the air transport industry and threatens the survival of many jobs (OECD, 2020). According to ICAO report (2021): 5, 6, 11 "Estimated impact of COVID-19 on global scheduled travel for 2020 compared to 2019: A 50% decrease in airline seats, and a 60% decrease in the number of passengers". Moreover, there is "54% global decrease in passenger demand, - 40% in global passenger capacity and – 84.3b $ in global net profit for air lines companies". As evidenced by the field interviews managed by Sanchez et.al (2020) during and after the pandemic, whatever the type of flight, traveler confidence will decline due to health circumstances and lower income levels for individuals due to the economic crisis will reduce the demand for air travel. Airlines will need difficult recovery plans to return safely and securely to business again. "The resumption of international flights requires global cooperation, consultations, and coordination of policies and risk management measures required between governments to support the opening of the skies" (Rooley, 2020: 2).

Travel &Tourism Movement and International Travel Restrictions

Camitz and Liljeros (2006) begin that when pandemics occur, at the beginning of pandemics, travel and movement restrictions are always important to monitor the speed of transmission of the pandemic between geographical areas, so that effective ways to confront it can be identified. Quilty et al. (2020) add that some countries have also put travel restrictions and quarantines to prevent the spread of infection, so preventing infected travelers from transmitting stops additional chains of transmission. And if it does not prevent the spread of the epidemic, it will at least delay its spread in other regions. Since its detection in China in December 2019, the novel coronavirus (COVID-19) has spread swiftly around world. As of August 23, 2020, more than twenty-three million people have been infected and over 800,000 deaths have been reported by World Health Organization (WHO, 2020). Numerous countries have adopted measures unprecedented since the end of the Second World War to contain the advancement of the virus and to reduce the number of cases and deaths. Seyfia et al. (2020) report that many countries and regions have implemented strict border controls and severe restrictions on international travel, including restrictions on tourism-related motilities extended the suspension of inbound travel for all foreigners to mitigate Corona pandemic transmission. The profound disruption to travel and trade has threatened the survival of many travel agencies, airlines and allied sectors, with huge negative economic and social impacts (Petersen et al. 2020). Since the World Health Organization declared a global health emergency on January 2020, about 180 countries have put in place a number of health restrictions that have mainly disrupted international travel, including entry bans, visa restrictions and quarantine for arrivals (WHO, 2020).

In this context, Niestad (2020) declares that the EU countries began to ease their travel bans from 1st July 2020 that had been introduced in response to the crisis to give a much-needed boost to virus-ravaged economies (e.g. Italy, Spain, France) and in particular the tourism sector. According to (Deloitte, 2020), although some European countries where the first wave of the pandemic was under control began lifting COVID-19 restrictions (e.g. France, Austria) in early June, some other countries which were still greatly affected and in which the death toll from the coronavirus was rising at an unacceptable rate (e.g. Brazil), extended the suspension of inbound travel for all foreigners to mitigate the spread of COVID-19. Some other countries outlined strict new travel restrictions and introduced a 14-day mandatory quarantine on arriving travelers (e.g. UK) in an effort to prevent a second wave of the virus. However, such measures may also be met by reciprocal responses. Nevertheless, the enforcement of quarantine on international travelers clearly has implications for the relative attractiveness of countries to tourists after lockdowns have been eased (Seyfia et al. 2020).

In the case of tourism, Budiasa and Nadra (2016) explain that Globalization has contributed to the boom in tourism, with the expansion of reservations and all tourism business, and the emergence of comprehensive tourism programs, airline tickets and low-cost hotel rooms via the Internet, which led to attracting people to travel significantly. However, Adams (2014) explains that however, the phenomenon of globalization, despite its positives, also brings us some threats to the security, safety and welfare of the societies of the world that has become intertwined, such as warnings and travel restrictions to confront global pandemics, and they will remain in our view, despite their importance, unfair measures that cause a lot of harm. According to UNWTO seventh reports till first of September 2020: 1, 3 "115 (53% of all tourist destinations globally) have relaxed international travel restrictions. This represents an increase of 28 destinations compared to July 19, 2020. Also, 93 destinations (43% of all global destinations) keep their borders completely closed to international tourism. This is a decrease of 22 destinations compared to July 19, 2020". Moreover, "the eighth report of the UNWTO in December 2020: 1, 5 shows that a total of 152 tourist destinations have eased restrictions on international tourism, up from 115 on September 1. Meanwhile, 59 destinations kept their borders closed to tourists, a drop of 34 over the same two-month period", it is normal for destinations that have low indicators in health, hygiene and environmental performance tending to keep its borders closed. According to UNWTO Secretary-General Pololikashvili (2020), lifting travel restrictions are essential for the tourism industry to recover from the social and economic impacts of the pandemic. Governments play an important role to work together to lift restrictions once it is safe to do so.

The Effects of International Travel Restrictions on Traveler's Behavior, habits and intentions

Haque (2020) shows that Covid-19 pandemic has changed individuals 'behavior, worldwide the restrictions put in place to limit the diffusion and impacts of Covid-19 have had a widespread impact on people's lives. According to different researches, there are three stages of consumer behavior: panic, adapt and new normal. According to Shi et al. (2019) at the early stage (panic), different governments-imposed restrictions along with fears of contracting and spreading the virus, such as reducing the using of mass transport modes, increased amount of working from home, e-learning, and a reduced number of public activities and events results in travel demand drop at highest rate. Under the (adapt) stage, people are changing their day to day behavior: they might be more inclined to perform activities at home, work from home and avoid crowd, and also changing behavior in travel mode choice. People might also be more interested to get home delivery of goods purchased online (e.g., food, clothes, accessories, groceries) which resulting in fewer shopping trips. The decreased level of individual mobility is not the only impact, though. People in general are increasingly adapting their daily behavior as lockdowns are prolonged. In the third stage (new normal), people have a new focus on the home as a place of stability and safety in the current deeply uncertain economic landscape. People are focusing their spending on in-home comfort and entertainment such as food preparation products. No doubt these behavioral changes decreasing the catchment area they travel around, spending more time in their local neighborhood or fostering local neighborhood trips which could be the 'new normal' for cities in the long run (Haque, 2020). Puttaiah (2020) displays the main question in minds nowadays, will these changes in behavior last after COVID-19 subsides, or will people (consumers or travelers') old habits die hard? All consumer behavior has strong location and time dependencies. Behavior can differ significantly from one location to another depending on cultures, geographies, etc. The pandemic is making this dimension of behavior more complex; for example, since physical movement is restricted, people are migrating into virtual worlds at an unprecedented rate and are exposed to newer influences. This could require us to go beyond traditional methods of modeling their behavior.

Moreover, Puttaiah (2020) argues that behavior and habit changes are also directly linked to the extent of exposure to new environments. Research shows that it can take between "18 and 254 days to form a new habit; on average it takes about 66 days". People more quickly adopt habits that do not significantly change existing routines. Today, people are settling into new patterns of behavior for considerable lengths of time in response to the multiple waves of this pandemic. This is fertile ground for new habit formation especially in travel and tourism, the future of the global tourism industry will certainly be affected by the residual impacts of the pandemic, and for a while there will be a possible relationship between (expected or perceived risks) and (travel intentions) of tourists after the Corona crisis. In light of the fact that Covid-19 is considered the largest global health crisis affecting tourism in the modern era, the impact of these crises on the behavior of tourists does not have clear evidence or previous experiences of results (Matiza, 2020). However, it is certain in tourism that the expected risks in the mind of the tourist are related to his inclinations and decisions towards travel and tourism (Adam, 2015). Research that has examined the impact of perceived risks in tourism indicates that they are multidimensional and include, for example: food safety, weather, social, psychological, financial and service quality risks, and inevitably influence tourist decision-making (Cui et al., 2016). In another view, "the perceived risks in the tourism sector are also multi-dimensional: but may reach 11 risks, including: financial risks, health risks, psychological risks, social risks, crimes, terrorism and political risks" (Matiza and Slabbert, 2021: 581). Matiza (2020): 3 focus that in the context of Covid-19 crises, "three risk typologies can be specified: (Health), (Psychological) and (Social) risks that will be the most influential on tourists' travel decisions in the near future after the COVID-19 pandemic". In addition, it can be seen that travel and tourism risk refusal is higher when tourists consider international tourism compared to domestic tourism, this is referred to as (the bias for the homeland as it is safer than the outside) (Wolff et al., 2019). Puttaiah (2020) points out that the expected emerging changes in consumer behavior in general and in tourists and travelers' behaviors in particular during and after Covid-19 crises will be as following:

- "Increased digital adoption: people shifting to digital platforms for day-to-day needs" Puttaiah (2020): 2
- "Change in mobility patterns: less use of public transport, more remote working etc.," Puttaiah (2020): 2 and greater tendency for domestic tourism hoping for fewer travel restrictions and less safety risks.
- Advanced priority of health and safety: before, during and after travel and tourism different decisions, interpersonal behavior, social distancing, wearing masks, increased hygiene, healthy eating etc.

Habits, preferences and behavior of Saudi Outbound tourists before and after covid-19 pandemic

Outbound travel from the Middle East has grown remarkably from 30 million tourists in 2008 to about 41 million tourists in 2018 with an average annual growth rate 3% (UNWTO Tourism Dashboard, 2021). Saudi Arabia was the

Middle East's largest source market for international tourism (Ayeh, 2017). The number of outbound tourists generated by the country grew from 4.1 million in 2008 (UNWTO Tourism Dashboard, 2021), to over 27 million in 2019 (UNWTO, 2020 a), spending more than $15 billion (UNWTO Tourism Dashboard, 2021). According to Picodi.com analytic survey report (2016) which was conducted on June 2019 on Saudis to investigate the habits and preferences of Saudi travelers before covid-19 pandemic, the majority of Saudis used to prefer going abroad over domestic travels, the most preferred countries to visit were the UAE, Bahrain, Jordan, Singapore, Malaysia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Austria, Germany, Switzerland, Australia and Los Angeles. However, other destinations which used to be highly preferred by most Saudis like Egypt and Lebanon, lost their attractiveness because of economic and security instability after the Arab spring revolutions in 2011 (AL-Feky, 2016). According to figures in Picodi.com (2019) "Time to Relax, Analytic report" about habits and preferences of Saudi travelers before covid-19 pandemic, the majority of Saudi travelers prefer to organize their trips by themselves and in advance (63 to 73%), travel with families in shoulder and low seasons, travel for sightseeing and beach vacations, visit new places, use taxies and private cars, and trying destinations local food. An average Saudi spends $794 per person on a holiday, which places Saudi Arabia in the top ten vacation spending nationalities.

Because of the wide spread of corona virus, the Saudi authorities announced an official prevention for citizens and residences from travelling abroad and posed very tight restrictions on the international travelling movement from and to the country from the first quarter of 2020 till 17 may 2021. This long period of travel prevention and travel restrictions affected Saudi travelers' traveling behavior, preferences, habits and intentions.

The official statistics announced by the Saudi ministry of interior after two days of the validity of the official permit to Saudi citizens to travel abroad (17 and 18 may 2021), stated that the majority of travelers from different Saudi land, sea and air ports preferred to travel to a domestic or regional destination compared to long distance destinations. The first five preferred destinations for Saudi air travelers are UAE (1938), Egypt (1545), Qatar (299), USA (233) and UK (165) (Saudi ministry of interior, 2021). Hany Al-Omairy (member of the Saudi society of travel and tourism) stated that the official permit of travelling and reducing travel restrictions refreshed travel agencies business by 30%, and stimulated demand for visiting relatives, business and honeymoon trips. As well he claimed that a big party of Saudi travelers prefers to communicate travel agencies to ask about travel conditions and procedures and organize their future trips, while another party prefers to delay their vacation arrangements until travel restrictions are totally removed. Moreover, he stated that despite there is a greater preference for domestic destinations after the validity of the travel permit, the most preferred destinations for Saudi tourists are UAE, Bahrain, Egypt, Indonesia, Georgia and Ukraine (Alarabiya.net, 2021).

METHODS AND MATERIALS

The research was conducted using a questionnaire to assess the effect of Covid-19 global travel restrictions on tourists' travel behavior, habits and intentions, distributed to Saudi travelers who are travelling from Jeddah and El-Riyadh international airports to spend their vacations abroad. The study was conducted on the first two days of the validity of the official permit to Saudi citizens to travel abroad (17 may and 18 may 2021), after an approximately one year and 4 months of official prevention of travelling abroad due to covid-19 pandemic. Five points Likert scale was used ranging from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) may be, (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree. The method relies on data collection on a questionnaire via e-mail or in person by the researchers. The collected questionnaires were processed and analyzed statistically using SPSS v20.

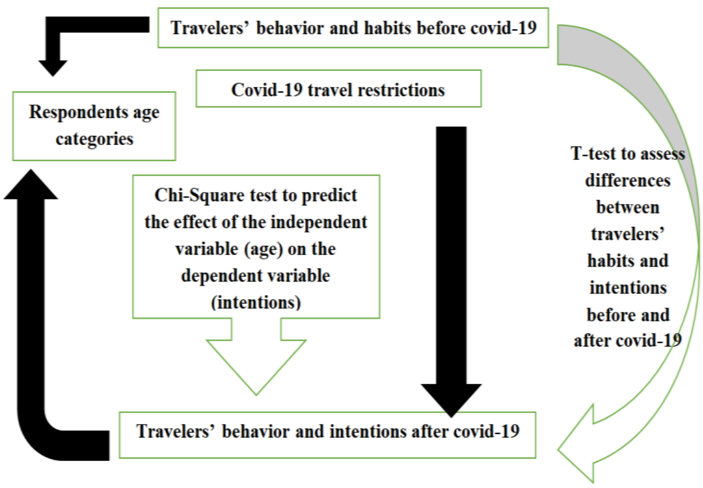

Figure 1. Research methods

A. Research Measures

The research comprised three phases. The first phase includes the demographic data of the respondents, the second phase displays respondents' travelling habits and behavior pre covid-19 pandemic, while the third phase investigates respondents' travelling habits, behavior and intentions post covid-19 pandemic.

B. Sample Selection

The study was conducted on a purposive sample of Saudi citizens or who were travelling abroad to spend a vacation, to investigate their travelling habits and behavior pre covid-19 and post covid-19 pandemic, and clarify and analyze the differences and changes in travel behavior due to the new permanent travel restrictions related to the pandemic. The study was conducted on a sample of 450 travelers from 4735 travelers by air on the first two days of the validity of the official permit of travelling abroad (Saudi ministry of interior, alarabiya.net 20 may 2021), having 374 valid and accurate forms.

C. Discussion and Data Analysis

The researchers use both descriptive and inferential statistics to test and determine the effect of covid-19 travel restrictions on travelers' habits, behavior, preferences and intentions while travelling for a vacation. Mean scores, standard deviations are calculated for all factors in the research. **Chi-Square** at a significance level of 5% is used to find relationships to predict the effect of the independent variable (age) on the dependent variable (traveler intentions), As well T-test at a significance level of 5% is used to assess differences between travelers habits before and after covid-19. The collected data were analyzed using the statistical package for social science (SPSS v 20). Figure 2 shows that the study was conducted on three age groups of Saudi travelers (18-30), (31-50), and (50<).

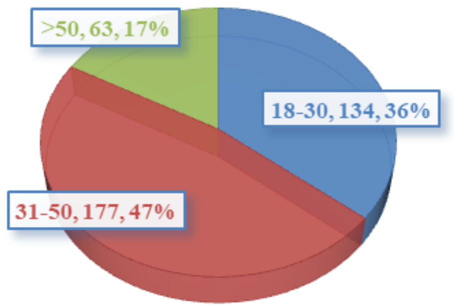

Figure 2. Respondents Age Categories

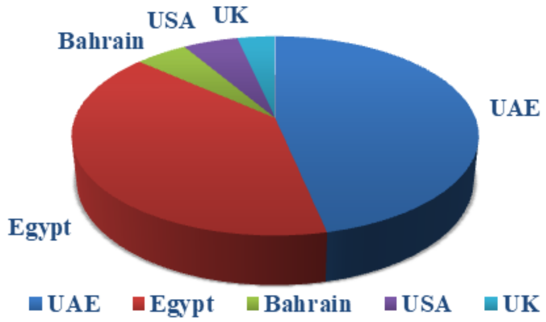

Figure 3. Respondents top visited destinations after the official travel permit (Saudi Ministry of Interior decisions 2021)

Table 1. Saudi travelers' preferred destination type and travel companions before Covid-19 travel restrictions (by age group)

Age group	Total	Preferred travel companions			Preferred type of destinations		
		Family	Friends	Ethical groups	Domestic	Regional	International
18-30	134	15	97	22	23	36	75
%	35.83	11.19	72.39	16.42	17.16	26.87	55.97
31-50	177	154	21	2	36	71	70
%	47.33	87.01	11.86	1.13	20.34	40.11	39.55
50<	63	21	30	12	12	22	29
%	16.84	33.33	47.62	19.05	19.05	34.92	46.03
Total	374	190	148	36	71	129	174
%	100	50.8	39.57	9.36	18.98	34.5	46.52

The previous Table 2 shows that Saudi travelers aged (18-30) and (50<) used to prefer more international trips (55.97%), (46.03%) with friends (72.39%), (47.62%) in consecutively, while respondents aged (31-50) preferred regional trips (40.11%) with their families (87.01%). In general, respondents preferred more international trips (46.52%) accompanied by family (50.8%). Figure 3 shows that the top five visited destination after the official travel permit (Saudi Ministry of Interior decisions 2021) are UAE (170) respondent, Egypt (145), USA (19), Bahrain (18) and UK (13). So, the majority preferred to travel to regional destinations in comparison to whom preferred to travel to international long distance destinations, which is opposite to what they used to prefer before the pandemic as shown in table (2), meaning that travel preferences, habits and intentions are affected by covid-19 travel restrictions.

Table 2. The relationship between travelers' age and their travel intentions Chi-Square Tests a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 140.71

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	330.674[a]	8	.000
Likelihood Ratio	346.315	8	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	39.570	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	5973		

Inferential statistic

The relationship between travelers' age and their travel intentions

The table shows that P. value of ch^2 = (330.674) with significant level less than 0.05 = (0.000). It indicates that the variables are not independent and there is a strong statistical relationship between the variable (age of traveler) and the variable (the travel's intention), which means that travelers' travel intentions and preferences differ according to their ages.

Table 3. Mean, S. Deviation and Acceptance degree of Saudi Tourists' traveling preferences, habits and intentions before and after covid-19 pandemic

Statements	**Before covid-19**			**After Covid-19**		
	mean	**S-deviation**	**Acceptance level**	**mean**	**S-Deviation**	**Acceptance level**
1-I prefer to travel in groups.	3.4	.914	**Agree**	2.73	1.115	**Maybe**
2-I prefer to travel by plane and slightly by car.	3.48	1.242	**Agree**	2.51	1.153	**Disagree**
3-Health and safety have the first priority concern before price, accessibility and service quality.	1.82	.693	**S. Disagree**	4.30	.799	**S. Agree**
4-I always prefer to visit crowded places	3.50	1.303	**Agree**	2.71	1.374	**Maybe**
5-I prefer international trips than domestic trips.	3.19	1.393	**Maybe**	3.3	1.308	**Maybe**
6-I depend on digital channels when planning and booking a trip instead of visiting a travel agent.	4.30	.799	**S. Agree**	3.94	.858	**Agree**
7- Social distancing, masks, healthy eating is an essential part of my travelling behavior that does not spoil my holiday enjoyment.	1.92	.842	**Disagree**	3.08	1.459	**Maybe**

Saudi Tourists' traveling preferences, habits and intentions before and after covid-19 pandemic

According to Table 4 displayed results, Saudi travelers' travel behavior, preferences and habits have changed after covid-19 pandemic and the travel restrictions posed due to its' wide spread. Their acceptance level concerning travelling in groups, visiting crowded places, and using digital channels in holiday planning and booking decreased after the pandemic than before, while the majority still prefer international trips over domestic ones. As they prefer more after the pandemic to travel by private cars than planes and public transportation modes, also nowadays health and safety have the first priority concern before price, accessibility and service quality**,** as social distancing, masks, healthy eating became an essential part of their travelling behavior that does not spoil holiday enjoyment.

Table 4. T - Test

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	after & before	374	.964	.000

Table 5. Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	after - before	.38503	.28333	.35622	.41384	26.280	373	.000

T-Test to examine the effect of Covid-19 travel restrictions on travelers' habits, preferences and intentions

Paired simple t-.test has been conducted with sentences displayed in Table 4 about travelers' habits before and after covid-19. Table 5 shows that there is a strong statistical relationship between the two variables (sig=0.000). Table 6 shows that P. value = (26.280) and is significant at 0.000 (less than 0.05) which indicates that there is a difference between the variables, meaning that Covid-19 caused changes in tourists' travel behavior, habits, preferences and intentions.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

According to the results of the study, Saudi travelers' travel intentions and preferences differ according to their ages, the majority preferred to travel accompanied by family to regional destinations in comparison to whom preferred to travel to international long distance destinations, which is opposite to what they used to prefer before the pandemic, meaning that travel preferences, habits and intentions are affected by Covid-19 travel restrictions.

Saudi travelers' travel behavior, preferences and habits have changed after Covid-19 pandemic and the travel restrictions posed due to its' wide spread. Their acceptance level concerning travelling in groups, visiting crowded places, and using digital channels in holiday planning and booking decreased after the pandemic than before, while the majority still prefer international trips over domestic ones. As they prefer more after the pandemic to travel by private cars than planes and public transportation modes, also nowadays health and safety have the first priority concern before price, accessibility and service quality**,** as social distancing, masks, healthy eating became an essential part of their travelling behavior that does not spoil holiday enjoyment.

CONCLUSION

Easing and lifting of travel restrictions has become urgent to start tourism recovery from the negative social and economic effects of the pandemic, which requires full and rapid coordination between the world's governments. As well, tourism associations and establishments have to aware tourists to accept the new travel and tourism safety procedures, and convince them that it became an essential part of their travel experience, and without these procedures tourists are at great risk and will never enjoy their holiday trips. Tourist establishments should depend more widely on digital methods in providing their services, before, during and after the trip, to adopt with the new changes in tourists' preferences and accomplish their satisfaction. Airlines and other tourist transportation public modes must develop health safety procedures on board of their means of transportation, as well as in airports, land modes stations and marine ports to regains international tourist movement trust in international and regional travel, and accomplish full recovery of tourism industry.

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Article history: Received: 16.08.2021 Revised: 06.11.2021 Accepted: 28.12.2021 Available online: 17.01.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.56-63
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40106-802

IMPACTS OF COVID-19 ON TRAVEL BEHAVIOR OF THE PEOPLE IN BANGLADESH

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Citation: Afroz, F., Hassan, K., & Ferdaus, J. (2022). IMPACTS OF COVID-19 ON TRAVEL BEHAVIOR OF THE PEOPLE IN BANGLADESH. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 56–63. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40106-802

Abstract: In order to formulate necessary strategies related to traveling, it is indispensable to examine travel behavior under COVID scenario. This study aims at assessing travel behavior in terms of different purposes of visit of the travelers of Bangladesh in relation to COVID-19 pandemic. It has utilized quantitative research approach and the data collected were subject to Poisson regression statistical analysis. The results revealed that domestic travel is an important determinant of international travel. In addition to domestic travelers are expected to travel less for leisure, VFR, medical or other purposes compared to the business purpose during COVID period.

Keywords: COVID-19, travel behavior, purpose of visit, poisson regression, Bangladesh

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INTRODUCTION

Almost every sector of the world economy has been affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. Among them travel and tourism sector is the most sufferer (European Commission, 2020; Fotiadis et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). Outbreak of this global pandemic has forced several countries to impose travel restrictions, border shutdowns, limitations on internal movement and so on (Karabulut et al., 2020; Qiu et al., 2020). This results in devastating impact on tourism industry. According to WTTC (2021), in 2019, travel & tourism was among the key sectors of world economy which contributed around USD 9.2 trillion to global GDP, but due to the pandemic its contribution to global GDP declined by 49.1% and reached to only USD 4.7 trillion in 2020. The tourism industry has seen a number of crises in past few years such as the Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) epidemic in 2003, global economic recession in 2008, and the outbreak of Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) in 2015. However COVID-19 pandemic is much different from those previous crises in terms of its long duration and severity of the impacts (Gössling et al., 2021; Hassan and Ferdaus, 2020). This is considered as world's deadliest epidemic as it brings some other crisis (e.g. health crisis and financial crisis) along with it (Fotiadis et al., 2021).

The global pandemic COVID-19 has affected the basis of tourism industry by restricting the sociability and mobility of individuals (Qiu et al., 2020). As tourists are very sensitive to crisis so any crisis like COVID-19 extremely affects travel behaviors of tourists. For instance, according to WTTC (2021) in 2020, domestic visitor spending was reduced by 45% and international visitor spending was decreased by 69.4%. Along with the demand side, due to the restrictions imposed on tourism industry to minimize the transmission of COVID-19, tourism supply-side is drastically damaged too (Bakar and Rosbi, 2020; Kumar, 2020). This industry has suffered a massive loss of almost USD 4.5 trillion in 2020 (WTTC, 2021). The ongoing global pandemic COVID-19 has immense possibility to reform future travel landscapes which is already evident (Gössling et al., 2021). Tourists have an increased appeal for domestic trips (UNCTAD, 2021; Hussain and Fusté-Forné, 2021). Moreover, safety and security has become one of the most significant considerations for tourists in terms of making travel decision and destination selection (Chebli and Ben Said, 2020; European Commission, 2020).

Throughout the course of history, it is reflected that the world has experienced a number of health related crisis ranging from epidemics (e.g. Cholera, flu) to pandemics (e.g. AIDS, plague) (Hall et al., 2020). Over the last decade several diseases outbreak such as Cholera, Ebola, Zika, Swine Flu, and Dengue has had a tremendous impact on travel and tourism sector (Matiza, 2020). According to UNWTO (2021b), during the SARS epidemic in 2003 international tourist arrival was declined by 0.4% that results in a loss of US$ 3 million in international tourism receipts. Moreover, in a study Hall et al. (2020) have delineated about the devastating effects of MERS outbreak. In addition the authors have also mentioned that in Korea this epidemic has caused a loss of US$2.6 billion for tourism industry. At present COVID-19 is wreaking havoc around the world. However these three corona viruses namely SARS-Cov, MERS-Cov, and COVID-19 are highly infectious diseases and cause severe respiratory problems (WHO, 2021). Transmission of such zoonotic diseases has become faster than ever with the pace of globalization (Hall et al., 2020). Thus the disastrous impact of these disease outbreaks has not been limited to only a

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specific country rather ranging over the world (Chebli and Ben Said, 2020).The outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic is considered as the most disastrous crisis the world has ever seen (Gössling et al., 2021; Hall et al., 2020). When the disease was first detected in China back on November 2019, the world has never imagined that the virus would spread so fast and will become a great threat for so many people. Soon after the declaration made by WHO (World Health Organization) about it as a pandemic situation, different countries started taking drastic measures (e.g. locking down the entire country or a specific area, imposing restrictions on travel, closing schools and other institutions) to limit the transmission (Fotiadis et al., 2021; Qiu et al., 2020). These initiatives results in massive hit for the travel and tourism sector. For instance, according to the UNWTO's (2021b) assessment, due to the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic international tourist arrivals declined by about 1 billion or 73% in 2020. Along with this in the first quarter of 2021 international tourist arrivals declined by 84% which is depicting in Figure 1 (UNWTO, 2021b). Moreover, a recent report published by UNCTAD (2021) has revealed that international tourism may loss an amount of more than $4 trillion to the global GDP for the years 2020 and 2021.

Travel and tourism is one of the most affected sectors by the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic (Fotiadis et al., 2021; Qiu et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021). However, the impacts are more pronounced to those regions and countries where tourism plays the significant role in economic growth (The Commonwealth, 2021). With this respect the Asia-Pacific region has been hardest hit as the region has seen a 65% to 70% decrease in tourist arrival (UNWTO, 2021a; WTTC, 2021). In terms of countries, a number of countries have seen the vulnerability in tourism industry during the pandemic. Among them China, Turkey, United States of America, Spain, India, Italy, France, Brazil, and South Korea are most pertinent (Kaushal and Srivastava, 2021; Shakibaei et al., 2021). A large number of people directly or indirectly associated with this sector are at a risk. The recent report by WTTC (2021) can be used to illustrate the impact of this pandemic on tourism service providers and others affiliated with the sector. The report indicates that in 2019 travel and tourism sector has created 1 in 4 of all new jobs across the world which is about 334 million jobs but in 2020 around 62 million people have lost their job in this sector which induced an 18.5% decrease in number of jobs (WTTC, 2021). In an effort to employ preventive measures (e.g. washing hands repeatedly, wearing mask, maintaining social distancing) the way of running daily activities have changed (Shamshiripour et al., 2020). Such changes are considered to be features of 'new normal' situation (Kim et al., 2021). Besides, substantial changes are also reflecting in tourists' behavior pattern especially in destination preferences, willingness to travel, and mode of transportation used (European Commission, 2020; Shakibaei et al., 2021; Zafri et al., 2021). For example, tourists now prefer destinations with low tourist density and consider safety and security (hygiene) as a vital attribute of any destination (Chebli and Ben Said, 2020). However, due to the differences in purpose of travel, variations in the impacts of COVID-19 pandemic on different types of tourists has also been reflected. For instance, according to the 'Global Economic Impact' report by WTTC (2021), leisure spending was about US $4692.4 billion in 2019 which decreased to US $2373.7 billion in 2020 and business spending has decreased from US $1294.2 billion to US $504.3 billion.

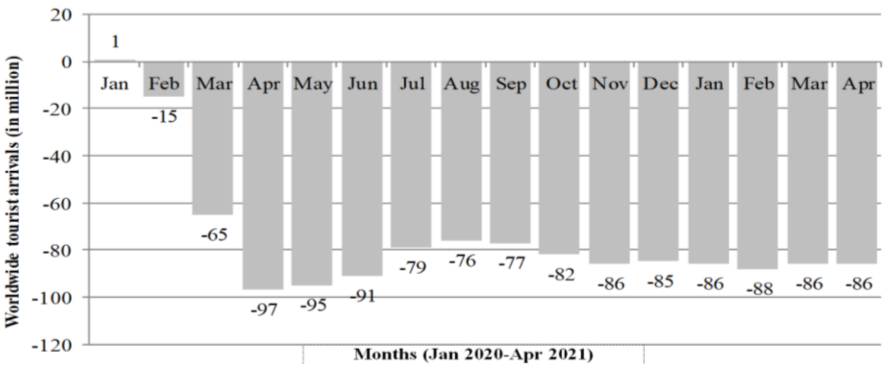

Figure 1. Decreased international tourists arrivals
(in millions/Jan 2020-Apr 2021) (Source: UNWTO,2021b)

The impact of COVID-19 on tourism industry is severe in developed countries but worsened in developing countries. Bangladesh is such a country where the tourism industry was growing rapidly but the awful effects of COVID-19 has shattered the tourism industry of Bangladesh (Bhuiyan et al., 2021; Chowdhury, 2020). In 2019 travel and tourism sector of Bangladesh has contributed about BDT 804.5 billion to its national economy but this amount decreased to BDT 539.6 billion in 2020 which represent a fall of 32.9% (WTTC, 2021). The first case of COVID-19 in Bangladesh was detected on March 8, 2020 (Rahman et al., 2021). Hence, the Government of Bangladesh has declared a nationwide lockdown from March 26 to prevent the spread of the virus. As a result, tourism sector including the other economic sectors of the country has started to collapse (Holy, 2020). According to WTTC (2021) tourism industry of Bangladesh has lost an amount of US $3.1 billion in 2020 due to COVID-19 pandemic. Moreover in Bangladesh around 4 million people are directly or indirectly associated with this sector are facing tremendous challenges. For instance, in 2020, around 0.41 million jobs were lost in this sector and 1.45 million remained employed in this sector across the country (WTTC, 2021).Many people travel at some point of their lives. Some people travel for urgent reasons such as for getting treatment, or business and some travel for enjoying leisure and recreation, or visiting friends and relatives (VFR). Everyone has their own reason for travel (Cohen et al., 2014). Based on the needs, the purpose of travel varies. The impact of any crisis on different types of traveler varies too depending on the purpose of travel. For instance during any crisis situation people tends to avoid travelling for leisure activities on the other hand, people with emergency medical needs or treatment mostly don't consider the risk associated with the travel (Sharma et al., 2020). In addition advances in 'Information and Communication Technology' (ICT) have greatly reduced the number of business trips (Shamshiripour et al., 2020). As a result in any crisis situation the tendency of work from home increases among business traveler and they don't prefer to travel without any urgent needs to avoid the risk. In this regard, risk perception of travelers can be considered as one of the most influential constituents in causing substantial impact on travel and tourism sector of any crisis (Kovačić et al., 2020; Parady et al., 2020).

A range of internal and external forces influence consumer travel behavior. Among the internal forces an individual's personal attributes such as attitudes, perceptions, values, and beliefs are significant (Chebli and Ben Said, 2020; Heitmann, 2011). On the other hand, among external forces economic and social-cultural environment are considerably significant (Matiza, 2020). In this case travelers with the purpose of visiting friends and relatives are noticeable. In developed countries people with such purpose tends to be very conscious about health related risks but in developing countries such concerns are relatively low (Al-Zaman, 2020). For instance, in Bangladesh many people think that affection is greater than risk, so during any festival they rush to share the joy with their loved ones without caring about anything. Moreover, when the nationwide lockdown was relaxed after the first and second phase of COVID-19 pandemic, the demand for traveling among the people in the country had increased. The reason behind this is that prolonged lockdown cause monotony so when the lockdown is relaxed or lifted, most of the people do not worry much about health related risks but choose travel as the best way to get rid of the monotony (Aziz, 2021). Every tourist is different in terms of their values, attitudes, and perceptions which attracts them distinctively to travel, encourages selecting varied tourism products and services, and creates different level of satisfaction (Cohen et al., 2014). Juvan et al. (2017) have regarded tourists behavior as a key indicator of future trends in travel behavior. Several factors determine consumer travel behavior patterns including purpose of travel, perception of tourists, and motivators of the travel (Vuuren and Slabbert, 2011). Furthermore, travel behavior occurs from stimuli and evaluated according to tourists personal attributes (e.g. values, preferences, attitudes,) but many external factors also often affect tourist's preferences. For example, during any crisis situation, despite having the desire to travel, many people refrain from traveling by thinking about risks associated with it (Kock et al., 2020). Considering the fact that health related risks are much pronounced in influencing tourists' travel decision, the impact of COVID-19 on travel behavior needs to be assessed with a view to determine the new trends in travel behavior (Parady et al., 2020).

In recent years, a growing interest of researchers towards evaluating the relationships between pandemics and travel is quite noticeable. As a result, researchers have been studying the impact of COVID-19 pandemic on travel and tourism since its inception. Many researchers including Foo et al.(2020); Jaipuria et al., (2021); Kock et al., (2020); and Karabulut et al., (2020) have provided significant insight into major disruptions caused by the pandemic and others such as Gössling et al., (2021); Hall et al., (2020) have explored how it is going to change economy of tourism industry. Moreover a number of studies (Kim et al., 2021; Le and Phi, 2021; Qiu et al., 2020; Yeh, 2021; Zhang et al., 2021) have also tried to provide necessary guidance and strategies to minimize the impacts but only a few researchers such as Chebli and Ben Said (2020) and Kock et al. (2020) have concentrated on travel behavior. Thus this study aims at addressing the behaviors of travelers of Bangladesh in relation to COVID-19. Though the pandemic has affected travel behavior pattern of different tourists, this research has assessed the travel patterns in terms of different purposes of visit.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1. Data and variables

In order to serve the purpose of this study a quantitative research method has been utilized. Quantitative research approach can provide clear insights into significant facts and figures for developing an understanding on travel behavior patterns. Researchers such as Mia and Hassan (2021), and Zmud and Sener (2017) often use online survey technique in travel behavior studies to collect necessary data from respondents. As the research took place during the pandemic so it was essential to adopt a survey technique which would be accessible for reaching the respondents easily in a short period of time. Therefore, online survey was regarded as the suitable survey technique for the study. 'Google form' was used to develop the questionnaire and collect responses from the people. After creating the form, it was disseminated among the people for collecting necessary data from them. Various web-based medium such as email and social networking sites were used to collect responses from the respondents in a short period of time. The survey was carried out during the lockdown period in Bangladesh. The survey questionnaire included two parts. The first part of the survey was designed to collect socio-demographic information of the respondents. Another part of the questionnaire was designed to collect information about pre and during COVID-19 travel characteristics of the respondents. The respondents were asked to provide details about their trips before the pandemic (COVID-19 outbreak) and during the pandemic for last one year. The details included respondents' purpose of travel, frequency of taking domestic trips and outbound travel.The study has utilized non-probability convenience sampling method. A total of 300 responses were collected from the people. The sample covers respondents from different geographic locations and socio-demographic characteristics. The questions contained in survey instrument were pre-tested by the authors of the current research prior to collecting data from the respondents. The collected data were coded and analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 23.0 and RStudio. With a view to addressing the aim of this research, a number of statistical techniques such as box plots, error diagrams and generalized linear modeling (GLM) specifically Poisson regression have been applied.

2. Model fitting

In this study, numbers of domestic and international visits are considered as dependent variables. Since the dependent variables are count data instead of linear regression, Poission regression, negative binomial regression and Poission regression using quasi-likelihood approach have been considered here. Poisson regression modelling have been widely used in a number of COVID-19 data such as forecasting number of deaths, transmission of disease and playing soccer during COVID-19 (Benz and Lopez, 2021; Kim et al., 2020; Odhiambo et al., 2020).

Poisson regression: For count data, the Poisson distribution named after Simeon Denis Poisson can be used to obtain the probability of events within fixed time interval (Haight, 1967). The Poisson variable $Y_i$has the following probability mass function $f(y_i) = \frac{\mu_i^{y_i} e^{-\mu_i}}{y_i}, y_i = 0,1,2,3, \ldots \ldots$ Where, e has a constant value of 2.71828. This distribution has the property that both the mean and variance are equal to μ_i.Let x_{ij}be the value of the j^{th} explanatory variable corresponding to the i^{th} observation. The Poisson regression model by McCullagh and Nelder (2019) can be represented as $\log(\mu_i) = \eta_i = \sum_{ij} x_{ij}\beta_j$ where, $\beta_j (j = 1,2, \ldots, p)$ are the model parameters and $\eta_i$is the linear predictor. The modelparameters $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_p$can be estimated using maximum likelihood method.

Overdispersion in Poisson regression: For Poisson response variables, a common form of problem that leads to the distribution assumed for the response variable being inappropriate is known as overdispersion (note that sometimes the problem may be underdispersion, although this is less often). This means that the variance of the response variable is larger than we would have expected. It is good practice to assume that overdispersion will be present unless there is good reason to believe otherwise. If any overdispersion is ignored when it is present, the confidence intervals of the regression parameters will tend to be too narrow, in that there is more unexplained variation and therefore more uncertainty, than we have allowed for. We can use the quasi-likelihood method, which allows for overdispersion by estimating the dispersion parameter and using this to adjust the results from the analysis involving the Poisson model. This type of analysis only requires specification of the mean and the variance, not of the likelihood itself. We only specify, $E(Y_i) = \mu_i$ and $V(Y_i) = \varphi v(\hat{\mu}_i)$, where $v(\mu_i)$ is the variance function. An alternative approach is to start with a model that might better fit the data. A natural way to do this is to include some extra variation in the model, in a manner that we hope matches what is happening in the data-generation process. In general, we might therefore consider a model in which μ_i is allowed to vary amongst observations with the same values for the predictor variables, y_i will then have what is often referred to as a mixture distribution. We assume that, $\mu_i \sim \Gamma(\alpha_i, k)$ thus μ_i has a gamma distribution, with probability function`

$f(\mu_i) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(k)} \left(\frac{k}{\alpha_i}\right)^k \mu_i^{k-1} \exp\left(-\frac{k\mu_i}{\alpha_i}\right),\ k > 0, \alpha_i > 0, \mu_i \geq 0$ Then y_i has a negative binomial distribution, with probability function

$f(y_i) = \frac{\Gamma(y_i+k)}{\Gamma(k)\Gamma(y_i+1)} \left(\frac{\alpha_i}{k}\right)^{y_i} \left(1 + \frac{\alpha_i}{k}\right)^{-(y_i+k)},\ y_i = 0,1,2,3, \ldots \ldots$ and, $E(Y_i) = \alpha_i$, $V(Y_i) = \alpha_i + \alpha_i^2/k$. The parameter$k$ controls the amount of overdispersion relative to the Poisson model.

Akaike's information criterion: An approach of model selection from many possible models is to use Akaike's information criterion. It is defined as$\mathrm{AIC} = -2l + 2p$,where l is maximized log-likelihood for the model and p is the number of parameters of the model. AIC provides a theoretically-underpinned compromise between having a model that fits the data well and one that is as simple as possible, i.e. has few parameters. AIC determines the relative quality of statistical models for a given set of data. A small sample version of AIC is given by

$$\mathrm{AICc} = -2l + \frac{2pn}{n-p-1}.$$

Among a set of candidate models a preferred model is that with the lowest AIC. A modification to the formula for AIC that allows for overdispersion is the quasi-AIC, which is defined as

$$\mathrm{QAIC} = -\frac{2l}{\hat{\varphi}} + \frac{2pn}{n-p-1}.$$

In this study, all the three candidate models Poisson, quasi-Poisson and negative binomial models are fitted to data set by considering domestic and international visits as the dependent variables. For domestic visits models the explanatory variables considered are year of visitsand purpose. On the other hand, for international visits model domestic visits, year of visits and purpose are the considered explanatory variables. Akaike's information criterion is used to select one model from the three candidate models for each dependent variable.

3. Findings of the study

At the very outset, the boxplot and error bar diagram for the domestic and international visits are plotted against the variables year and purpose, in order to understand the pattern of relationship between them.In Figure 2 the number of domestic visits and international visits before and during the COVID-19 pandemic is presented. The median number of domestic visits is approximately 2 and about 75% respondents made between 2 to 3 domestic visits before COVID in the year 2019. On the other hand, the median number of domestic visits is approximately 1 and about 75% of the respondents made between 0 to about 2 domestic visits during COVID (year 2020). Some outliers are seen in both the situations. In case of the international visits, the median value for the respondents is 0 before COVID.

However, about 75% of the respondents made between 0 to 1 international visits before COVID. On the contrary, during COVID at least 75% of the respondents made no international visits. Note that, in Figure 2, the data has outliers especially at the upper side, therefore, to understand the pattern easily scaling of the boxplots are changed that is the y-axis values are fixed at 0-6 in case of domestic visits and 0-2 in case of international visits.

In Figure 3 the error bar chart for mean number of domestic and international visits of the respondents before and during COVID are displayed for different levels of the purpose variable. The circles at the middle indicate the mean number of visits and the lines indicate the 95% confidence intervals of the mean. It is clear (from the Figure 3, a) that, for different purposes the mean number of domestic visits of the respondents clearly decreases during the COVID outbreak (year 2020). Also, the mean number of international visits decreases during COVID except the leisure purpose which remains approximately the same (Figure 3, b). The average numbers of domestic and international visits are the highest for business purpose, although the variability is also the highest for this purpose in both the years. VFR is the second highest purpose and the last three purposes are leisure, medical and others respectively for domestic visits. On the other hand, unlike the domestic visits the second highest reason for the international visits is the medical checkup.

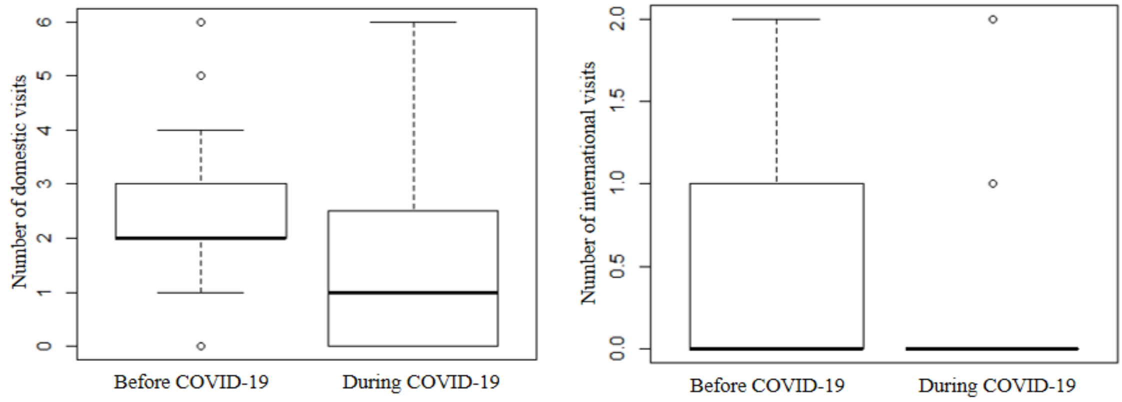

Figure 2. Number of visits before and during COVID-19 pandemic

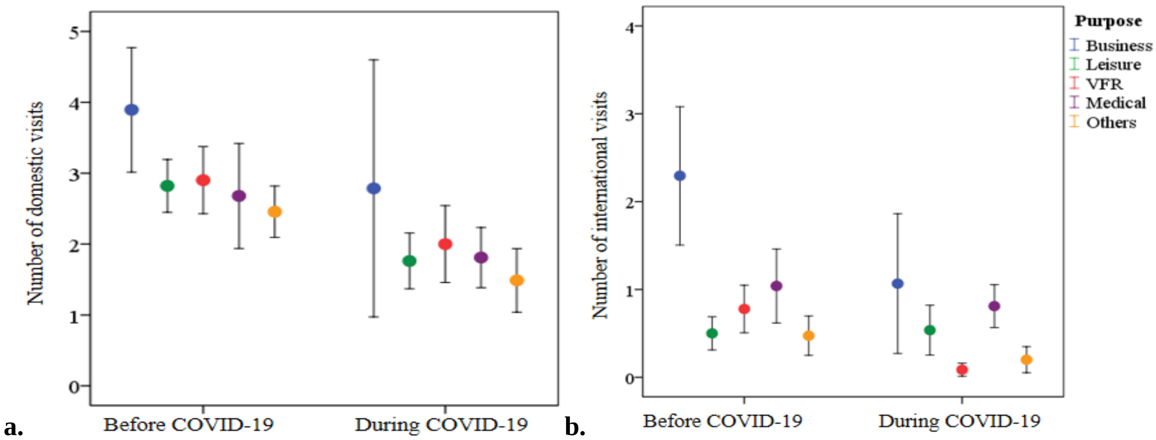

Figure 3. 95% CI of the mean number of visits for different purpose

From Table 1 and Table 2 it is observed that, the coefficients for Poisson and quasi-Poisson models are exactly same, however the standard errors and the corresponding p-values are different. Coefficients for Negative-binomial models are close to those of Poisson and quasi-Poisson models and again the standard errors and the corresponding p-values are different. As for example, for the domestic visits (Table 1) the category visiting friends of the purpose variable is significant in Poisson model (p-value<0.05), on the other hand this category is insignificant in quasi-Poisson model (p-value>0.10) and Negative-binomial model (p-value>0.10). Likewise, for the international travel (Table 2) the category medical purpose is significant in Poisson model (p-value<0.10), on contrary this category is insignificant in Negative-binomial model (p-value>0.10) and in quasi-Poisson model (p-value>0.10). AIC for the 3 models for both domestic and international visits are calculated. It is apparent that, quasi-likelihood models are preferable compared to other two models in both cases, as the AIC values are the lowest for this model.

Table 1. Estimates of Poisson, Negative-binomial and Quasi-Poisson regression model for domestic visits

Poisson (AIC=1899.615)					
Variable	$\hat{\beta}$	**S.E.**	**Z/t-value**	**p-value**	**Exp($\hat{\beta}$)**
Year (Ref=2019)2020	-0.420^{***}	0.063	-6.698	2.59×10^{-11}	0.657
Purpose (Ref=Business) - Leisure	-0.326^{***}	0.117	-2.799	0.00513	0.722
Visiting friend	-0.238^{*}	0.115	-2.071	0.03832	0.788
Medical	-0.350^{***}	0.128	-2.724	0.00645	0.705
Other	-0.467^{***}	0.119	-3.928	8.5×10^{-05}	0.627
Negative-binomial (AIC=1866.935)					
Year (Ref=2019)2020	-0.421^{***}	0.073	-5.721	1.06×10^{-08}	0.656
Purpose (Ref=Business) – Leisure	-0.328^{**}	0.144	-2.286	0.0227	0.720
Visiting friend	-0.237	0.142	-1.668	0.9532	0.789
Medical	-0.348^{**}	0.156	-2.238	0.02523	0.706
Other	-0.469^{***}	0.145	-3.231	0.00123	0.626
Quasi-Poisson (AIC=1272.053)					
Year (Ref=2019)2020	-0.420^{***}	0.080	-5.227	2.56×10^{-07}	0.657
Purpose (Ref=Business) - Leisure	-0.326^{**}	0.149	-2.194	0.02872	0.722
Visiting friend	-0.238	0.147	-1.624	0.10507	0.788
Medical	-0.349^{**}	0.164	-2.135	0.03324	0.705
Other	-0.467^{**}	0.152	-3.079	0.00219	0.627

*p<0.1, ** p<0.05, ***p<0.01

From Table 1 using the results for quasi-Likelihood models it is apparent that, in the year 2020 domestic travelers are expected to travel outside their district 34.3% less than the year 2019, assuming the remaining covariates held constant. Domestic travelers are expected to travel less for leisure, VFR, medical or other purposes compared to the business purpose. More specifically, for medical purpose the average number of travels is 29.5% less compared to the business purpose.From Table 2 using the results for quasi-Likelihood models it is found that, domestic travel is an important determinant of international travel. More specifically, with 10 units increase in domestic travel the average number of international travels increased by 1.12 units. The average number of international travels decreased by 44.6% in the year 2020 compared to the year 2019. Similar to the results of domestic travel, average number of travels for leisure, visiting friends, or other purposes are less compared to the business purpose in case of international travel.

Table 2. Estimates of Poisson, Negative-binomial and Quasi-Poisson regression model for international visits

Variable	$\hat{\beta}$	S.E.	Z value	p-value	Exp($\hat{\beta}$)
Poisson (AIC=1021.441)					
Domestic Visit	0.112^{***}	0.022	4.806	5.88×10^{-06}	1.118
Year (Ref=2019)2020	-0.589^{***}	0.116	-4.182	5.04×10^{-06}	0.554
Purpose (Ref=Business)Leisure	-1.104^{***}	0.178	-7.455	9.32×10^{-09}	0.331
Visiting friend	-1.091^{***}	0.169	-7.502	6.92×10^{-09}	0.336
Medical	-0.316^{*}	0.168	-2.915	0.0968	0.729
Other	-1.375^{***}	0.190	-8.069	7.52×10^{-11}	0.253
Negative-binomial (AIC=986.5831)					
Domestic Visit	0.157^{***}	0.034	4.606	4.10×10^{-06}	1.170
Year (Ref=2019)2020	-0.564^{***}	0.165	-3.410	0.000648	0.569
Purpose (Ref=Business)Leisure	-0.990^{***}	0.281	-3.518	0.000434	0.372
Visiting friend	-1.059^{***}	0.279	-3.784	0.000155	0.347
Medical	-0.202	0.288	-0.288	0.484001	0.817
Other	-1.297^{***}	0.294	0.294	1.05×10^{-05}	0.273
Quasi-likelihood (AIC=680.2056)					
Domestic Visit	0.112^{***}	0.029	3.682	0.000256	1.118
Year (Ref=2019)2020	-0.589^{***}	0.152	-3.204	0.000231	0.554
Purpose (Ref=Business)Leisure	-1.104^{***}	0.232	-5.712	3.92×10^{-06}	0.331
Visiting friend	-1.091^{***}	0.221	-5.748	3.23×10^{-06}	0.336
Medical	-0.316	0.220	-2.233	0.177592	0.729
Other	-1.375^{***}	0.248	-6.182	1.82×10^{-07}	0.253

*p<0.1, ** p<0.05, ***p<0.01

DISCUSSION

This study has assessed the impacts of COVID-19 on travel behavior in Bangladesh. According to many researchers, any crisis can severely affect travel behavior of tourists and undoubtedly health related crisis has been among one of the most influential crises affecting travel and tourism activities (Chebli and Ben Said, 2020; Matiza, 2020; Shamshiripour et al., 2020; Uğur and Akbıyık, 2020; Gössling et al., 2021). The same thing is reflecting too in this study (Figure 2) and by carefully noticing the figures one can clearly understand how the ongoing global pandemic COVID-19 is affecting travel behavior of tourists. According to the figures (Figure 2) presented in this study, both the numbers of domestic travel and international travel have decreased. One of the reasons for the similarity of the findings of this study with the findings of other studies is that tourists generally assess the risks associated with any trip before taking a travel decision. If the perceived risk is larger than the significance of travel, tourists mostly avoid travelling.The number of visits for various purposes decreased substantially both in domestic and international travel which is shown in Figure 3 and these findings agree with other studies by European Commission (2020), WTTC (2021), UNWTO (2021b), UNCTAD (2021), and The Commonwealth (2021). The scenarios presented in those figures are quite similar for both domestic tourism and international tourism except for leisure travel. There is no change in the level of international visits for leisure purposes before and during the pandemic which conflicts with findings of other studies by Kumar (2020) (Figure 3). It could be because of the risk perception of travelers which is mainly depends on the values, attitudes, beliefs and other personal factors of travelers as suggested by Cohen et al. (2014). Many travelers think that health related safety and hygiene concerns in other countries are better than Bangladesh thus they prefer to take outbound trip rather domestic. In the context of both domestic travel and international travel the mean number of visits for business purposes was highest before and during COVID-19 pandemic depicting in Figure 3. This fact about the findings contradicts with the findings of the study by WTTC (2021) where it is described that the impact of the pandemic is more severe to business spending than leisure spending. One of the reason behind this incompatibles could be low awareness among the people of Bangladesh about health related risks which is suggested by Al-Zaman (2020). Another fact is that many developed nations with their advanced ICT could easily adapt to the changes took place due to the pandemic, such as work from home, conducting virtual meetings and teleconferencing. Though such tendencies are taking place in Bangladesh too but with relatively lower than the other countries.

In case of domestic visit, Figure 3 demonstrates that the mean number of trips with purpose of VFR is the highest after business trips and in international travel visits for medical purposes are the highest after business trips. Reason underlying the fact that, people with medical purposes travels when they find healthcare facilities available in their areas are not well enough for them so they choose visiting oversees with a view to getting proper treatment as suggested by Sharma et al.,(2020). Therefore, it can be affirmed that poor healthcare system existing in Bangladesh compels many people to travel which is coherent with the study by Al-Zaman (2020). Findings of this study reflect (Table 1), in terms of domestic tourism, travel associated with business purposes are expected to be more than with other purposes (e.g. leisure, medical, VFR, and other purposes) presented in this study. Additionally, this study finds domestic travel can be used as a significant determinant for projecting international travel which is demonstrated in Table 2. Such information can be very helpful to tourism stakeholders including destination management organizations and tourism service providers who can easily forecast tourism demand and ensure the availability of certain tourism products and services. Besides projected travel demand can play a considerable role in formulating and implementing crisis response strategies. As a result, these strategies can help the tourism industry of Bangladesh to recover soon from the losses by COVID-19.

CONCLUSION

The global tourism industry is experiencing an unprecedented circumstance due to the ongoing pandemic COVID-19. The effects of the pandemic had not been limited to a specific area or region like other epidemics. Rather, it has spread across different regions and countries of the world including Bangladesh. As a result, the economies and its related sectors of Bangladesh have been severely affected. This magnitude of the pandemic has raised the need for exploring impacts on travel and tourism sector. As noted earlier, a number of studies have conducted relating to assessing the impact of the pandemic on travel and tourism as a whole. Nevertheless, the impacts on travel behavior of different types of tourists have not been yet assessed which is a prerequisite for formulating policy and strategy. This study has attempted to incorporate such research gap by providing significant insights into the scenarios of both domestic travel and international travel along with the perspective from different traveler with varied purpose. This study has assessed impacts of COVID-19 pandemic on travel behavior of people in terms of purpose of visit. In order to accomplish the research aim, this study has utilized quantitative research approach by performing descriptive studies and generalized linear modeling (GLM). The findings indicate that the mean number of both domestic travel and international travel decreased significantly, 34.3% and 44.6% respectively due to the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic. As tourists are very sensitive to crisis so such impacts are apparent. This study also finds domestic travel as a determinate to international travel which can be used to project future travel demand of international tourism. However, findings with respect to impact on travelers with different purpose of visit (i.e. business, leisure, medical, VFR and other purposes), demonstrates that patterns of travels have significantly changed during the pandemic, except travel for leisure in abroad. The study also projects domestic and international travelers will travel less for leisure, visiting friends, medical or other purposes compared to the business purpose during COVID-19.

Bangladesh is a developing country and tourism play a significant role in economic development of the country. Bangladesh has faced a hardest hit by COVID-19 like the global tourism industry thus to recover from this effects fruitful strategies and effective policy is essential where such studies can act as valuable tool. This research has been done on a very small scale with a little sample size. Hence, if such research is done on a larger scale it will provide with more reliable results. Future researchers may look into the new trends or patterns of travel behavior taking place among travelers due to the pandemic, major concerns of travelers while traveling during pandemic situation, travel demand projections in relation to the rate of vaccination in the country. Another line of enquiry would be to assess how the vaccination rate against the population can help tourism industry in recovering from the negative impacts of the pandemic. It is quite difficult for a developing country like Bangladesh to recover from the losses caused by COVID-19 pandemic but patronages from the Government and concerted efforts of concerned stakeholders can help in recovering from the effects soon. Therefore, integrated efforts from both public sector and private sector are required to rejuvenate the tourism industry in Bangladesh.

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Article history: Received: 06.08.2021 Revised: 14.11.2021 Accepted: 29.12.2021 Available online: 17.01.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.64-70
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40107-803

QUALITY AND CARRYING CAPACITY OF BEACHES FOR RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES IN AMPELGADING DISTRICT, MALANG REGENCY, INDONESIA: HIGH OR LOW?

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Citation: Arinta, D., Sumarmi, Deffinika, I., Arif, M., & Putri, I.W. (2022). QUALITY AND CARRYING CAPACITY OF BEACHES FOR RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES IN AMPELGADING DISTRICT, MALANG REGENCY, INDONESIA: HIGH OR LOW? *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 64–70. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40107-803

Abstract: The coastal in Ampelgading has a tourism potential that needs to be optimized. The research aimed to describe the quality and carrying capacity of the beach for sustainable recreational activities. This research uses descriptive methods with quantitative and qualitative approach. This research used primary data that obtained from visitor interview and secondary data that obtain from government publication. Variables in this research are Accessibility, Environmental Quality, Comfortability, Infrastructure and Aminities. Data analysis uses weighting and scoring. The results showed that Ampelgading classified in very high level of quality and carrying capacity for recreational activities. Tourism managers and local governments need

Key words: Quality, Carrying Capacity, Recreational

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism is an industry that is very important to be developed because the activities carried out in the ecosystem have an impact on various economic sectors in society. The tourism sector can be used to encourage economic change and open up job opportunities, increase income, and improve the quality of life of local communities (Kodir et al., 2019). Also, tourism will increase the role of several supporting sectors such as travel agents, handicrafts or souvenir industries, tourist objects and attractions, hotels, and restaurants to support development (Arinta et al., 2016). The keys factors determination in coastal tourism development can be done through 2 stages of analysis. The first analysis is to identify the factors that influence the quality of coastal tourism. The second determinant is the carrying capacity of coastal tourism development. The key factors in question are the potential quality of coastal tourism attractions, local government policies, demand, community participation, facilities and infrastructure, security, spatial tourism planning, promotion and marketing, institutional capacity, attraction management, and economic contribution (Sumarmi et al., 2020). Most of the southern part of the Malang Regency consists of coastal areas. Some of the beach tours in the coastal area of Malang Regency include Sendang Biru beach, Balekambang beach, Bajulmati beach, Tambak Rejo beach, and Ngliyep Beach Tourism Park (Kristyarini et al., 2015). The rows of beaches in the south of Malang Regency are very diverse from the east to the west, including Pantai Licin, Sipelot, Lenggoksono, Tambakasri, Tamban, Sendang Biru, Bajul Mati, Wonogoro Balekambang, Kondang Iwak, Kondang Merak, Bantol, Sendang Purwaningsih, Ngliyep, Jonggring Saloko, Mondangan (Malang Regency Regional Regulation Number 3 of 2020). Based on Malang Regency Regional Regulation No. 3/2020 concerning in Regional Spatial Planning, Malang Regency has a huge opportunity to increase the number of tourist visits. The following is the number of tourist visits in Malang Regency during the last three years which can be seen in Figure 1.

One of the districts that has good coastal potential is Ampelgading. The beach in Ampelgading has unique characteristics that are different from other beaches in Malang Regency. The beach character has black sand. This black beach sand comes from sedimentation from Mount Semeru. Ampelgading District has four beaches, namely Licin Beach, Watu Mbengung Beach, Kleweng Beach, and Lambu Pawon Beach. All beaches are still classified as natural because it has not been optimally utilized so that it needs a study. Beaches provide a profitable environment for tourism (Holden, 2016; Nelson et al., 2000). The distribution of beaches in Ampelgading can be seen in the following Figure 2.

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High demand is placed on coastal resources to meet tourist expectations. The increase in coastal tourism has driven the rapid development of coastal areas, which has created anthropogenic pressures on the coast. This in turn has affected the quality of the coastal environment, the recreational experience of tourists, and human welfare (Gössling, 2002). The purpose of this study is to determine the quality of beaches and carrying capacity for recreational beaches. The study of beach recreation quality was developed because of the concerns about the management quality of coastal recreation (Peña-Alonso et al., 2018). The study of the quality of beach recreation is often based on visitor perceptions (Lozoya et al., 2014; Morgan et al., 2000; Peña-Alonso et al., 2018; Tudor and Williams, 2006). If the quality of coastal recreation is known, it will be possible to develop coastal tourism related to management. This corresponds to Peña-Alonso et al. (2018), recreational quality indicators are very useful to assist in coastal management so the potential of the beach can be optimized. Coastal potential needs to be developed to sustain the community's economy. The coastal environment, especially the coast, consists of two interacting and mutually dependent subsystems, namely natural and socio-economic factors. The primary interest of the coastal manager is to establish, and maintain, the sustainable relationship components in these two subsystems (Cendrero and Fischer, 1997). The maintenance of a healthy coastal environment, especially through the protection of natural habitats and reducing pollution has begun to be put into action. According to Klein et al. (2004) the economy of the coastal state is highly dependent on the income generated by coastal tourism and the quality of its beaches. Also, the beach is a natural tourist destination with many visitors.

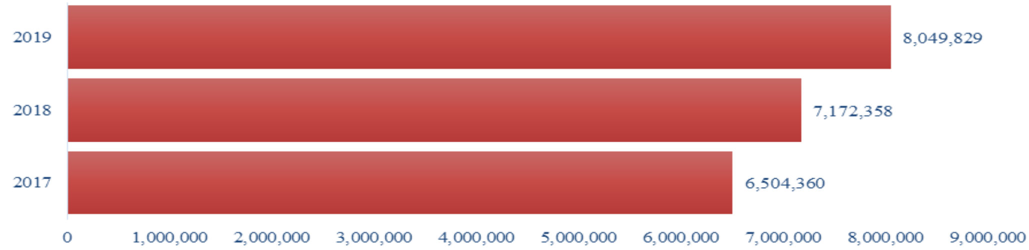

Figure 1. Number of tourist visits in Malang Regency starting 2017-2019 (Source: Badan Pusat Statistik, 2020)

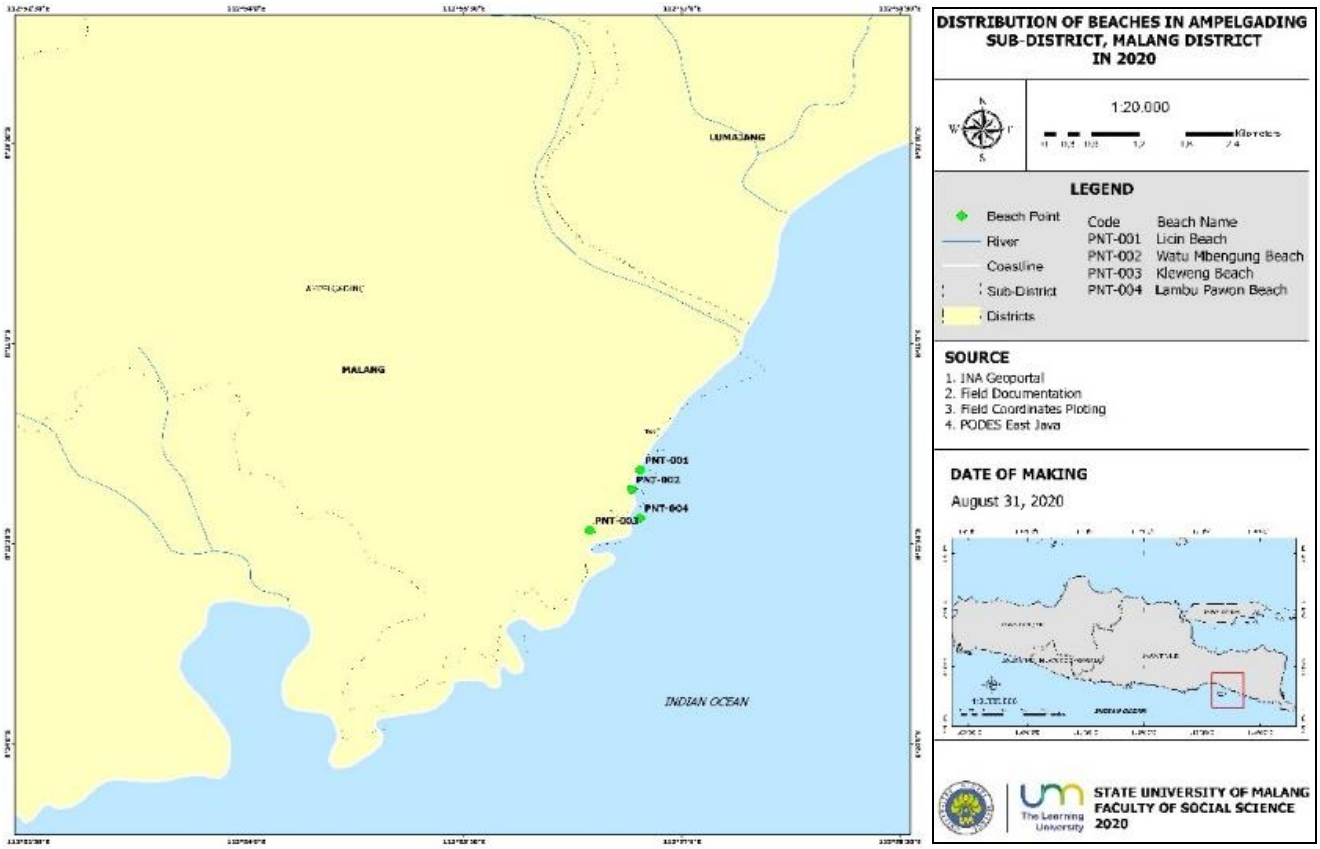

Figure 2. Coastal distribution in Ampelgading District, Malang Regency (Source: researcher data analysis, 2020)

Therefore, information about the coast is very important because it aims to control and conservation. Control and conservation can be carried out by knowing the carrying capacity of the area. Carrying capacity is based on the idea that the environment has the maximum capacity to support the growth of an organism. According to Lim (1998), the carrying capacity of an area is the accommodation of tourists with high satisfaction but has minimal impact on existing resources. Carrying capacity is a limitation for tourists in tourism activities (Zhiyong and Sheng, 2009). In developing the concept of tourism, it is characterized by limiting the number of tourists. If in tourism activities the number of tourists visiting is not limited, this can threaten the sustainability of the resource itself (Pickering and Hill, 2007). Research on the quality of beaches for tourism activities and the carrying capacity of the environment has already existed such as evaluation of the coastal recreation index (Mustain et al., 2015), environmental quality indicators for the classification of recreational beaches (Barbosa de Araújo and da Costa, 2008), coastal carrying capacity management (Silva et al., 2007). While the purpose of this research is to determine the quality and carrying capacity of the beach which is still natural and recently opened for recreation.

METHOD

This research uses a descriptive method with quantitative and qualitative analysis techniques. Research objects for this study were Licin Beach, Watu Mbengung Beach, Kleweng Beach, and Lambu Pawon Beach. The primary data used include interviews and observations with visitors of Licin beach, Watu Mbengung Beach, Kleweng Beach, and Lambu Pawon Beach. Secondary data were obtained from government agencies. When averaging is applied to the evaluation of indicators, the primary data method is used to scale individual intervals for scoring from 1 to 5 (Peña-Alonso et al., 2018). The partial index value (Is) according to (Peña-Alonso et al., 2018) is calculated from the relationship between the number of values given by each variable obtained (Vi) with the maximum value in the variable (Vp max). $Is = \frac{Vi}{Vp\ max}$ (1)

Therefore, a single value between 0 and 1 obtained for each group of variables which include each index applied in each study area. The indicators and variables in this study were taken through literature reviews (Ariza et al., 2008; Barbosa de Araújo and da Costa, 2008; Botero et al., 2015; Cervantes and Espejel, 2008; Leatherman, 1997; Morgan et al., 2000). The Coastal Quality Index developed by Ariza et al. (2008) is used as the initial basis for compiling the index. This research was conducted with the assumption to analyze the recreational quality indicator system by integrating quantitative and qualitative techniques. The Coastal Quality index for recreation according to Peña-Alonso et al. (2018) is described in the following Table 1.

Table 1. Coastal Quality Indicators for Tourism (Sources: Peña-Alonso et al., 2018)

Indicator	Category				
	1	2	3	4	5
Accessibility					
Footpath to the beach	> 500 m	-	500 m		<200 m
Public car park	Not available				Available
Telephone signal	Not available				Available
Access to the beach	Not available				Available
Directions to the beach	Not available				Available
Bicycle Parking	Not available				Available
Information signs	Not available				Available
Environmental Quality					
Permanent Noise	Yes				Not
Water pollution	Yes				Not
Waste Sand (%)	> 40	40-25	25-15	15-5	<5
Garbage	Yes				Not
Comfortability					
Rip Current	Every now and then		Rarely		There is no
Wave Energy	Height (> 1.5 m)		medium (0.5-1.5 m)		Low (0.5m)
Wind velocity	High		Moderate		Low
Air Temperature (Noon)	<15/38 C		15-27 / 32 - 38 C		27 - 32 C
Meteorological Conditions	Rain	Storm	Cloudy	Cloudy	Bright
Beach Composition	Gravel	Sand / gravel		Coarse sand	Fine Sand
Beach-tide width (m)	<15 /> 50		<15-20 / 35-50		20 and 35
Nuisance Animal	General		Every now and then		There is no
Infrastructure					
Physical Carrying Capacity	<12 m		12-16 m		> 16 m
Embankments and breakwaters	Not		only one		Some
Amenities					
Service beach			basic		many
Number of stalls near the beach	0-1 each <50 m		1 on the beach		0-1 each <50m
Payphone	> 300m		150-300m		<150m

In addition, the analysis used is an analysis of the carrying capacity of the area. The carrying capacity of ecotourism is classified as specific and is more related to the environmental (biophysical and social) carrying capacity of tourism activities and their development. The tourism carrying capacity can be calculated by (Yulianda et al., 2010):

$$Carrying\ Capacity = K.\frac{Lp}{Lt}\ x\ \frac{Wt}{Wp} \quad (2)$$

Information:
CC = Carrying capacity area
K = potential ecological visitors per unit area
Lp = area that can be utilized
Lt = Unit area for specific needs
Wt = Time provided by the area for tourism in one day
Wp = Time spent by visitors for each activity.

Recreational coastal ecotourism and beach sports can be seen in Table 2. It is assumed that everyone needs a coastline length of 50 m, because visitors will carry out various activities that require a large space such as sunbathing, cycling, walking, and others. The visitor Ecological Potential and Activity recreation can be seen in Table 3.

Visitor activity time (Wp) is calculated based on the length of time spent by visitors to carry out tourism activities. Visitor time is calculated with the time allocated for the area (Wt) (Table 2). Area time is the length of time the area is opened in one day, and the average working time is around 8 hours (8 – 16 hours).

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Coastal Potential of Ampelgading District

The location of an area or area can be seen from various aspects including astronomical and administrative location. Astronomical location is the location of an area based on latitude and longitude. Malang Regency is located at 112° 17' 10" – 122° 57' East Longitude and 7° 44' 55" – 8° 26' 35" South Latitude (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2019). An administrative location is the location of an area seen from other administrative areas. Malang Regency is administratively divided into 33 districts. One of the districts in the easternmost part of Malang Regency is Ampelgading District. Ampelgading District has Licin Beach, Watu Mbengung Beach, Kleweng Beach, and Lambu Pawon Beach. These four beaches are visually unique. However, this potential is still not optimally utilized. Pantai Licin has a fairly large coral reef. Licin Beach is more unique than other beaches because the sand in this beach is black, which is the result of sedimentation from Mount Semeru, which empties into the southern side of the Indian Ocean (Arinta et al., 2016). Another uniqueness of Licin Beach is that on the way to the location you can see the beauty of the cold lava path from Mount Semeru (Arinta et al., 2016). This beach is not widely known by the tourists so it is still natural. The view of the beach can be seen in Figure 3.

Table 2. Potential Ecological Visitors and Activity Areas for recreation (Source: Yulianda et al., 2010)

Type of activity	Σ Visitor	Unit Area (Lt)	Information
Beach Recreation	1	50 m	1 person every 50 m Long beach
Sports Tourism	1	50 m	1 person every 50 m Long beach

Table 3. Visitor Ecological Potential and Area of Activity recreation (Source: Yulianda et al., 2010)

No.	Activities	Time required (Wp - (hour))	Total Time 1 day (Wt - (hour))
1	Sun	2	4
2	Beach Recreation	3	6

Figure 3. The charm of the black sand of the Licin Beach and Cold lava flow from Semeru on the way to the beach (Source: Primary Data, 2020)

Table 4. Results of the Partial Quality Index of Beaches in Ampelgading District (Source: Data Analysis, 2020)

	Accessibility	Environmental Quality	Comfort	Infrastructure	Amenities
Licin Beach	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.2
Watu Mbengung Beach	0.3	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.2
Kleweng Beach	0.3	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.2
Lambu Pawon Beach	0.3	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.2

Table 5. Results of the analysis of the carrying capacity of the coastal area in Ampelgading District (Source: research data analysis, 2020)

No.	Beach	Activities	Carrying Capacity (Person / Day)
1	Licin Beach	Beach Recreation	163
2	Watu Mbengung Beach	Beach Recreation	85
3	Kleweng Beach	Beach Recreation	96
4	Lambu Pawon Beach	Beach Recreation	71

Watu Mbengung Beach also has its own uniqueness. For example, one of the coral in this beach is quite long. The beauty of Watu Mbengung beach is obvious when the waves break on the reef. This beach is still relatively new for tourist destinations in Malang Regency. The journey to this beach is quite difficult, causing this beach to be frequently visited by the nature lover community. Kleweng Beach has shorelines and steep coral. This beach is usually used for fishing spots. Access to the beach can be reached on foot for about 1 Km. This beach has quite substantial waves. This beach has very fine white sand. Lambu Pawon beach is still relatively new in Malang Regency. This beach has quite steep coral, and it becomes the uniqueness of this beach. The form of this beach is a cape so it is usually used for fishing spots. This beach has very black beach sand but the grains are fine so it is very safe to play. This beach is close to the shoreline, there are scattered small rocks.

Beach Quality Index for Recreational Activities in Ampelgading District

Coastal quality index assessment is very important to know the actual condition of the coast and coastal management (Pantus and Dennison, 2005). There are 5 aspects measured for the beach quality index for recreational activities, namely accessibility, environmental quality, comfort, activities and infrastructure as well as facilities. Results of the partial index of beach quality in Ampelgading Regency can be seen in Table 4. Based on the average value obtained from the partial index, it is generally moderate to high for all types of beaches, but there is still a low value in each variable. The beaches in Ampelgading District for parameters of environmental quality, comfort, activity and infrastructure are classified as high but are still low on parameters of accessibility and facilities. When depicted in the diagram, it has a pattern Figure 4.

The quality of beaches in Ampelgading District for recreational activities is classified as high, especially the quality of the environment, comfort, activities and infrastructure that are classified as attractive for tourists to visit. The environmental quality of all beaches is determined by the presence of trash and air and noise pollution. Accessibility which is far from Malang with a distance of about 85 km causes many tourists who do not understand all beaches. The beach in Ampelgading provides attractive activities and infrastructure because this beach is relatively newly opened for tourism and is still natural so that a few tourist visits cause quite high comfort on the beach. Tourism deals include those offered by tourism destinations to real and potential tourists. One of the products offered in the tourism industry is beach attractions (Herat et al., 2015). Another beach attraction is due to the natural environment which is still naturally pollution free. The beach has its own uniqueness if the environmental conditions are still natural (Wigo et al., 2020). When the environment is still natural, it greatly affects comfort. The comfort of the beach is always supported by the role of the tourism manager. Beach tourism managers try to make visitors comfortable by providing various kinds of facilities such as gazebos, restaurants and swings. The facilities and infrastructure provided are expected to be able to attract tourists in an effort to promote the potential of beaches in Ampelgading Regency. The facilities on the beach can be seen in Figure 5.

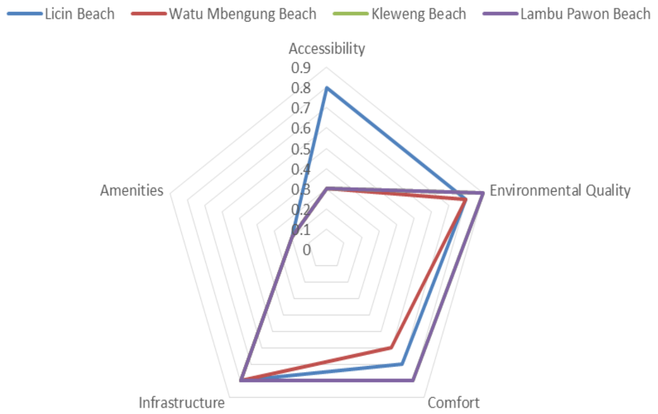

Figure 4. Patterns of coastal environmental quality parameters for recreational activities in Ampelgading District (Source: research data analysis, 2020)

Figure 5. Facilities on the beach is a gazebo (Source: primary data, 2020)

The beach comfort indicator in Ampelgading District consists of parameters of beach morphological conditions, weather on the beach. Morphological conditions are determined by the slope of the coast. The slope of the beach is flat so that visitors feel safe (Yulianda, 2007). The comfort of the beach is also measured whether or not there are dangerous biota because it is feared that it will disturb tourist visitors (Yulisa et al., 2016). Weather and climate are major influences on the tourism sector around the world (Çalişkan and Kelkit, 2008), which affect the length and quality of tourism seasons and environmental resources (Calişkan and Kelkit, 2008). Climatic conditions allow or support outdoor tourism or certain recreational activities (Çalişkan and Kelkit, 2008). High quality environment, comfort, activities and infrastructure need to be supported by the development of accessibility and facilities. Accessibility to the beach began to be developed by making road improvements. Accessibility and facilities in the district still need to be improved because accessibility and facilities are what tourism destinations offer to tourists (Herat et al., 2015). Accessibility is all that can make it easy for tourists to visit a tourist destination (Herat et al., 2015). Accessibility to beach has only been used as a tourist attraction, so that there are still few transportation facilities (French and Craig-Smith, 1995; Priskin, 2001) while the facilities function to meet the needs of tourists while staying in tourist areas (Herat et al., 2015). Fulfillment of facilities is a basic need in order to provide services to tourists (Salamah et al., 2017). The facilities on the beach in Ampelgading Regency which are still limited need to be added to encourage sustainable coastal development.

Based on the trend value, the quality of the beach for recreational activities in Ampelgading District is still high. This high trend value indicates that the quality of the beaches in Ampelgading District for recreational activities is very good. This shows that good quality beaches for recreational activities are needed as the basis for the development of sustainable tourism. There are four tourism components that must be considered in the development of tourist objects, namely, attractions, amenities, accessibility and tourism institutions (Abror, 2020; Boniface et al., 2006). Tourism development is defined as an effort to complete or improve the facilities and services needed by the community (Prima and Sobandi, 2020). This pattern is actually based on the development of ecotourism. Ecotourism is part of nature-based tourism and is related to experiences in remote areas or nature that foster understanding and appreciation of the need to conserve the natural environment in a way that preserves resources, culture, economy and local communities (Priskin, 2001).

Analysis of Coastal Carrying Capacity in Ampelgading District

The carrying capacity of ecotourism is very important to maintain an environment sustainably for ecotourism activity. The results of the analysis of carrying capacity of the coastal area in Ampelgading District is in Table 5. Based on the results of the analysis of the carrying capacity of the coastal ecotourism area in Ampelgading District, it has different carrying capacities for recreation, namely Licin Beach (163 people per day), Watu Mbengung Beach (85 people per day), Kleweng Beach (96 people per day), and Lambu Pawon beach (71 people per day). The average visit to the beach in Ampelgading District is 60 people. So it can be concluded that this beach can accommodate all tourist activities carried out by visitors properly without exceeding the carrying capacity of the area so that the sustainability of this beach is maintained. Carrying capacity is the number of tourists who are physically accepted in the area provided at a certain time without causing disturbance to nature and humans (Yulianda, 2007). Besides, the preservation of this beach can be maintained through the carrying capacity of the environment with restrictions on visitors. This corresponds to Yulianda et al. (2010), tourism development is not a mass tourism, it is easily damaged, and the space for visitors is very limited. It is necessary to determine the carrying capacity of the area. Some things that can be done to reduce the impact of tourism are limiting travel tracks, scenic spots, permanent campsites, accommodation provision, and limiting the number of tourists (Pickering and Hill, 2007). The concrete steps that need to be developed based on the results of the analysis of the coastal quality index for recreation and the carrying capacity are:

1. Forming a tourism-conscious community to manage the beaches in Ampelgading District, especially for Wate Mbengung Beach, Kleweng Beach, and Lambu Pawon Beach.
2. Tourism awareness groups work with local governments to build accessibility in order to create local economic development.
3. The Village Government encourages links with travel units (travel agents) to promote beaches in Ampelgading District.
4. Encouraging participation and empowerment of communities around the coast in Lebakharjo Village, Ampelgading District, especially the fishing communities.

The quality of the beaches for recreational activities is good and the carrying capacity of the area is suitable, so the beaches in Ampelgading District can be used for sustainable tourism development.

It is hoped that sustainable tourism development can be utilized by the community because it will grow the local economy, especially in Community Based Tourism. The destination in Community Based Tourism development is used to create tourism for residents and the residents of the tourist destinations. Community-based tourism development can works fine if planners and the public are aware of the promotion (Sumarmi et al., 2020). So, promotion can be done if planners and the community understand the uniqueness of the beach in Ampelgading District. This is also supported by the research results of Albert and Dinah (2018), Giampiccoli et al. (2020), Prabhakaran et al. (2014), and Sumarmi et al. (2020). Environmental, economic and cultural preservation in developing tourist areas are interconnected.

CONCLUSION

The results showed that the quality of the environment, comfort, activities and infrastructure that are classified as attractive for tourists to visit and the carrying capacity of the area that is still maintained, the beach can be recommended for sustainable tourism development. Development of sustainable tourism can be done by:

1) Forming a tourism conscious community to manage beaches -beaches in Ampelgading Regency, especially Wate Mbengung Beach, Kleweng Beach, and Lambu Pawon Beach.

2) Tourism awareness groups work with local governments to build accessibility in order to create local economic development.

3) The Village Government encourages links with travel units (travel agents) to promote beaches in Ampelgading Regency.

4) Encouraging participation and empowerment of communities around the coast in Lebakharjo Village, Ampelgading Regency, especially fishing communities

This study recommends that tourism managers and local governments pay attention to developments in accessibility and facilities and calculate the carrying capacity of the area. Further research can be continued on the development of facilities and accessibility of natural beaches with attention to environmental sustainability

Acknowledgements

Thank you to the tourist visitors of Licin Beach, Watu Ngembung Beach, Kleweng Beach, and Lambu Pawon Beach, Lebakharjo Village, Ampelgading District. This research does not have any conflict of interest or intention towards individuals or groups.

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Article history: Received: 18.03.2021 Revised: 06.11.2021 Accepted: 30.12.2021 Available online: 19.01.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.71-78
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817 DOI 10.30892/gtg.40108-804

ACCOUNTING OF FRANCHISING ACTIVITIES OF TOURIST ENTERPRISES OF UKRAINE

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Citation: Vysochan, O., Vysochan, O., Chubai, V., & Hyk, V. (2022). ACCOUNTING OF FRANCHISING ACTIVITIES OF TOURIST ENTERPRISES OF UKRAINE. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 71–78. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40108-804

Abstract: The article is devoted to solving several problems in the methodology of accounting for travel franchising. The methodology is based on a system of binding relationships formed between the franchisor and the franchisee to account for the accrual of a one-time/lump sum and royalty/periodic service fee. Influence on the methodology of accounting for franchising operations in tourism is the understanding of the essence of franchising as an agreement, a special type of business, marketing system, forms of business cooperation, forms of organization and business, delivery of services to end-users. The result of the need to gradually attribute the lump sum to expenses or income of the reporting period during the term of the agreement is the use of the mechanism of redistribution through the accounts of expenses/income of future periods.

Key words: accounting, tourism, franchising, franchise, franchisor, franchisees

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INTRODUCTION

The search for effective organizational and legal forms of entrepreneurial activity by small and medium-sized enterprises, which would best meet modern business challenges, has led to the popularity of franchising networks in Ukraine and the world. Franchising can not be called an innovative form of business relations (in fact, this concept is identical to a commercial concession in domestic practice, while in English-speaking countries it dates back to the Late Middle Ages), but in terms of building rational (cost-effective) partnerships relations between enterprises on the provision of some for commercial use of the brand, corporate standards and methods of work, marketing strategies, etc. to others, such relations have gained new meaning. Franchising is direct evidence that partnerships between business entities operating in the same industry, including tourism, are not only possible but also potentially mutually beneficial – franchisors expand the scope and geography of activities, franchisees – minimize business risks and investments; both receive additional income, including and due to the synergistic effect. Many years of experience in the use of franchising networks in countries with developed economies have already proven the high level of business efficiency of this way of developing the tourism business. The idea of expanding new markets by transferring new concepts to other units allows all participants in this process to reach a consistently high level of profitability in a relatively short period.

In addition, understanding the benefits of using franchising networks is only a motivator for making rational management decisions at various levels, information support which, especially regarding the profitability of the franchising concept from the franchisor (Gallini and Lutz, 1992), should be effectively established accounting system in tourism enterprises – potential network participants. Franchising forms a system of relationships between the participants in the franchising agreement to achieve their common goals. At the same time, neither party loses legal independence and the right to make management decisions independently, assessing the effectiveness of activities using an accounting approach (Kaufmann et al., 2000; Nurwulan et al., 2013; Sisea, 2013; Tsenkler and Nemesh, 2019; Kim and Lee, 2020; Sadeh and Kacker, 2020; Bardash, 2021). In terms of the spread of franchising schemes, the tourism business is inferior to such leaders in related industries as fast-food restaurants and the hotel industry, but the pace of development allows us to predict the continued demand for the franchise in this area. There are more than a dozen well-known tourist franchising networks in Ukraine. Among them: "TUI", "Coral Travel", "TEZ TOUR Travel Agency", "Join UP! Travel Agency","Poihaly z namy","Feieriia mandriv","Sonata","More turiv","Traident Hit","Na Kanikuly" and others.

Given the above, in the article we ask questions, the answers to which, we believe, will be important for improving the accounting of enterprises in the field of tourism in Ukraine:

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RQ1: Can a franchise be considered a special type of intangible asset for accounting purposes?

RQ2: Is it methodologically and practically appropriate for the franchisor and the franchisee to use the mechanism of income and expenses of future periods for the redistribution of lump-sum contributions for different reporting periods?

RQ3: What nomenclature of accounting sub-accounts is most informative to reflect the income and expenses of the period arising in the process of franchising by tourism enterprises?

LITERATURE REVIEW

The rapid development of research in the field of accounting for franchising began in the early 70s of the last century. The research was of an applied nature, and Archibald E. MacKay's article in The Journal of Accountancy was even considered by the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) to be the equivalent of the Opinion Accounting Principles Board (APB), which in itself was quite rare in accounting regulation practice (Zeff, 2011). Subsequently, the issue of accounting for franchising has increasingly begun to be thoroughly considered in the academic literature (Kieso et al., 2011). This is primarily due to the active implementation of the practice of franchising in small businesses in the United States in the 60s. For a long time, this business model has remained leading for businesses in many sectors of the economy, including the restaurant industry and tourism (Bunea-Bontas and Petre, 2009; Czakon, 2012; Varotto and Aureliano-Silva, 2017; Rosado-Serrano et al., 2018; Elango, 2019; Alon et al., 2021; Ghani et al., 2021).

The accounting nuances of the settlement relations between the participants of the franchising network, which are based on contractual terms, have always caused methodological difficulties. This is mainly due to debatable allocation of the franchise to intangible assets, consistency of income and expenses from franchising operations over time, recognition and distribution of income in the form of royalties (especially about a franchising agreement with an unlimited duration), use of expense accounts and deferred income for long-term franchising operations, accounting features of the reflection of periodic payments, which depend on the amount of income received by the franchisee, etc. The vast majority of works by Ukrainian economists are devoted to solving.

In Ukraine, the first thorough publications on franchising began to appear in the late 2000s, due to the legal regulation of the term “commercial concession” in two basic regulations governing civil and commercial relations – the Civil and Commercial Codes, which came into force on January 1, 2004. In domestic realities the concepts of “commercial concession” and “franchising” have a similar economic and legal meaning. Already in the last decade, accounting for franchising has become one of the priority areas in accounting research in general (Momot and Ovdiy, 2010; Lysa and Andrushko, 2013; Makoviychuk, 2013; Romanchuk et al., 2014; Serpeninova, 2014; Tsyutsyak, 2014; Makarovych et al., 2015; Kravchuk and Spivak, 2017), incl. using automated systems (Marik and Komlichenko, 2014; Vysochan et al., 2021b) and in the tourism business in particular (Kuryshko, 2014; Vysochan, 2014; Shevchuk, 2017; Vysochan et al., 2021a).

Despite the importance of accounting procedures for establishing the effectiveness of the relationship between the franchisor and the franchisee, there is a certain lack of thorough publications on this topic (Combs et al., 2011), franchising research lags behind the development of franchising in practice (Diez de Castro et al., 2004). Given the contribution of researchers to domestic accounting science and based on the dynamic development of modern economic scientific thought, we consider it necessary to deepen the existing developments of a methodological nature regarding franchise accounting, as well as accrual and payment (receipt) of lump sum and periodic royalties business.

Thus, the main purpose of our study is to develop a nomenclature of accounting records to reflect in the accounts of franchise transactions in the business of Ukrainian companies – franchisors and franchisees, taking into account the intangible nature of the franchise and redistribution of lump sums through future income and expenses.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study used quantitative data on franchising of companies (in particular, the number of franchisors, the number of franchisees and own facilities in franchise companies), obtained by the analytical company Franchise Group, to assess this market segment and determine the prospects for its development in Ukraine since 2001.

The data allow us to understand the trend of changes in the presented indicators in the accounting perspective in chronological order, to assess the causal links of the growing interest of Ukrainian companies in the business strategy of franchising and assess the relevance of research in this area in terms of accounting.

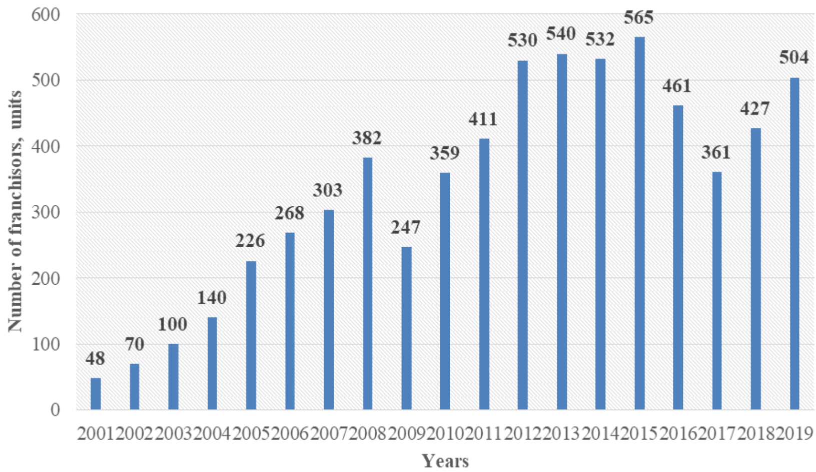

Figure 1. Dynamics of the number of franchisors in Ukraine in 2001-2019 (Source: Franchise Group Analytical Report of the Franchising Market, 2021)

Primary data are summarized and presented using a graphical method to illustrate the results of the study and improve the level of perception of information. Despite the frequent cases of non-fulfilment of obligations by the participants of the franchising agreement in tourism, as well as dishonest compliance with the legislation in the field of intellectual property, which occur in Ukraine, the franchising market has a positive upward trend (Figure 1). The dominant role of domestic franchisors in Ukraine has led to the dependence of the profitability of this business model on the financial and economic crises that have occurred in the country in recent years (Figure 2). II (2008-2009) and III (2014) economic crises were characterized, among other things, by the bankruptcy of enterprises and dismissal of personnel. At the same time, cooperation and established business relations with franchisees allowed franchisors to reach their previous capacities as quickly as possible during several post-crisis years and stabilize the ratio of their own and franchising facilities (Figure 3). The increase in the popularity of travel franchising in Ukraine was not least due to the increase in the efficiency of operational network management and business control, which is ensured by high-quality information exchange in the franchisor-franchisee system. A significant amount of such information is processed using accounting. To reflect in the accounting of business transactions related to franchising activities, the method of double-entry with the use of sub-accounts of the second-order to detail information flows and increase the relevance of data to be used by managers of tourist enterprises of Ukraine. The research methodology involves the use of accounting and reporting procedures by the National Accounting Regulations (Standards) of Ukraine, developed by international accounting standards and a critical assessment of the practice of accounting for franchising by tourism enterprises in Ukraine (Figure 4).The model provides for the redistribution of assets (franchise and cash in the form of lump sums and periodic contributions) and liabilities (receivables and payables using regulatory accounts of income and expenses of previous periods to normalize payments for franchising, occurring at different times) end-users – franchisors and franchisees of the most relevant and reliable information for management decisions.

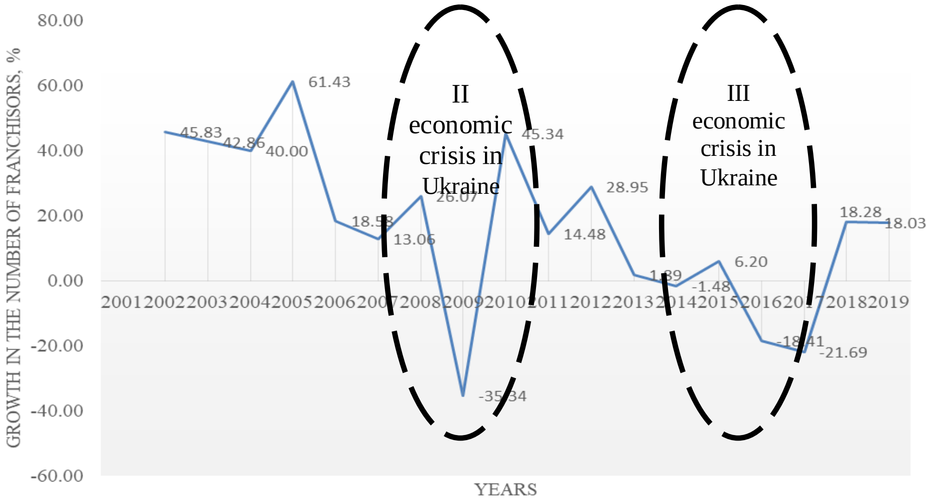

Figure 2. Dynamics of growth in the number of franchisors in Ukraine in 2001-2019 (Source: calculated on the basis of Figure 1)

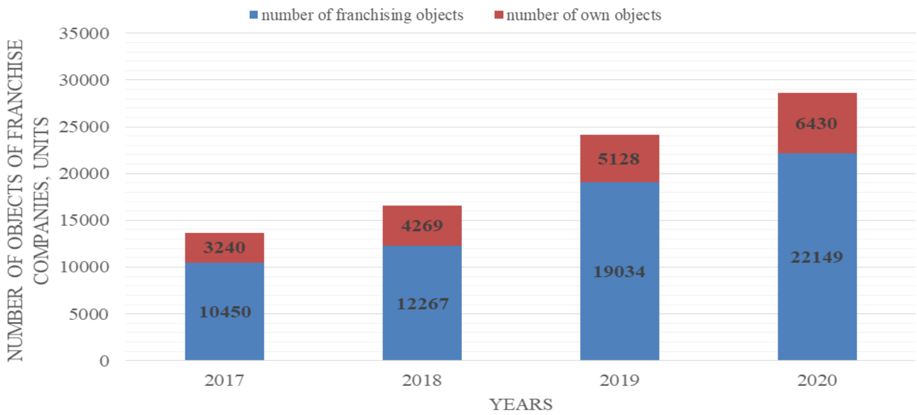

Figure 3. The ratio of the number of franchising to its own objects in franchising companies in Ukraine in 2017-2020 (Source: Franchise Group. Analytical Report of the Franchising Market, 2021)

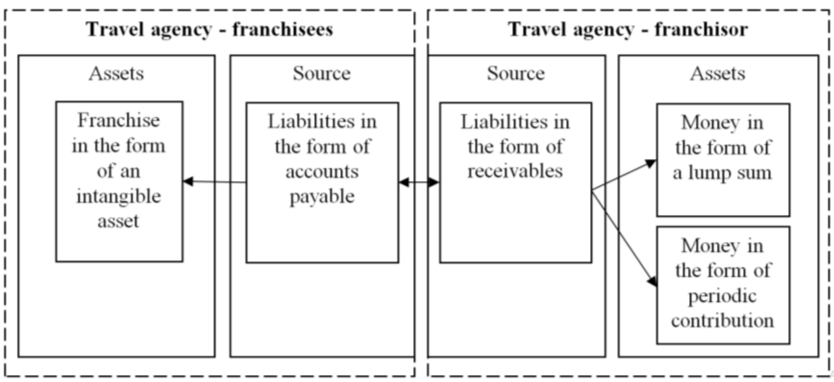

Figure 4. Methodological basis of reflection in accounting in Ukraine of settlements between tourist enterprises on franchising operations (Source: developed by authors)

RESULTS

To be successful, franchisees need to build the most effective organizational relationships both within the company and with the franchisor (Luangsuvimol and Kleiner, 2004). Let's summarize the main requirements for domestic franchisee agencies that exist in practice to join the largest networks in the tourism sector:

- location of the office in a place where there is a constant flow of people (near transport or pedestrian interchanges, preferably in the central part of the city or near metro stations), on the 1st floor on the front side of the room and with a separate entrance or shopping malls; availability of parking spaces;
- the possibility of placing a corporate sign and/or lightbox;

- design of the premises according to the requirements of the corporate style of the franchisor;
- availability of all necessary furniture, office equipment and telecommunications;
- availability of managers with mandatory experience and knowledge of major tourist destinations;
- presence in the staff of an accountant and a system administrator (possibly on a part-time basis);
- compliance with service standards and corporate dress code (if any);
- implementation of sales plans;
- staff certification and regular training (seminars, training, etc.);
- official registration as a legal entity with a type of activity in the field of tourism, the presence of a bank guarantee, a current account in a bank and the seal of the enterprise;
- payment of the entrance fee and monthly payments (royalties).

As you can see, most of these requirements are formed based on the corporate vision of the business of the franchisor, based on the experience of previous successfully implemented tourism projects.

Last but not least, the franchisor is interested in an effectively established system of information exchange using an internal reporting mechanism based on realistic credentials to assess the profitability of a network entity.

Understanding the concept of "franchising" as an economic category has a direct impact on the methodology of accounting for related transactions. In many scientific studies, franchising is seen as a strategy to ensure the company's competitive advantage in the market through business cooperation (Alon, 2004; Altinay et al., 2013; Ribeiro and Akehurst, 2014; Dube et al., 2020; Orgonáš and Rehák, 2020; Sun and Lee, 2021) or a means of increasing the economic value of the firm through conducting special business activities (Aliouche and Schlentrich, 2009; Koh et al., 2009; Moon and Sharma, 2014; Choi et al., 2018; Kim and Lee, 2020). Economic thought has developed dozens of definitions of this term, which characterize it from different points of view (Figure 5).

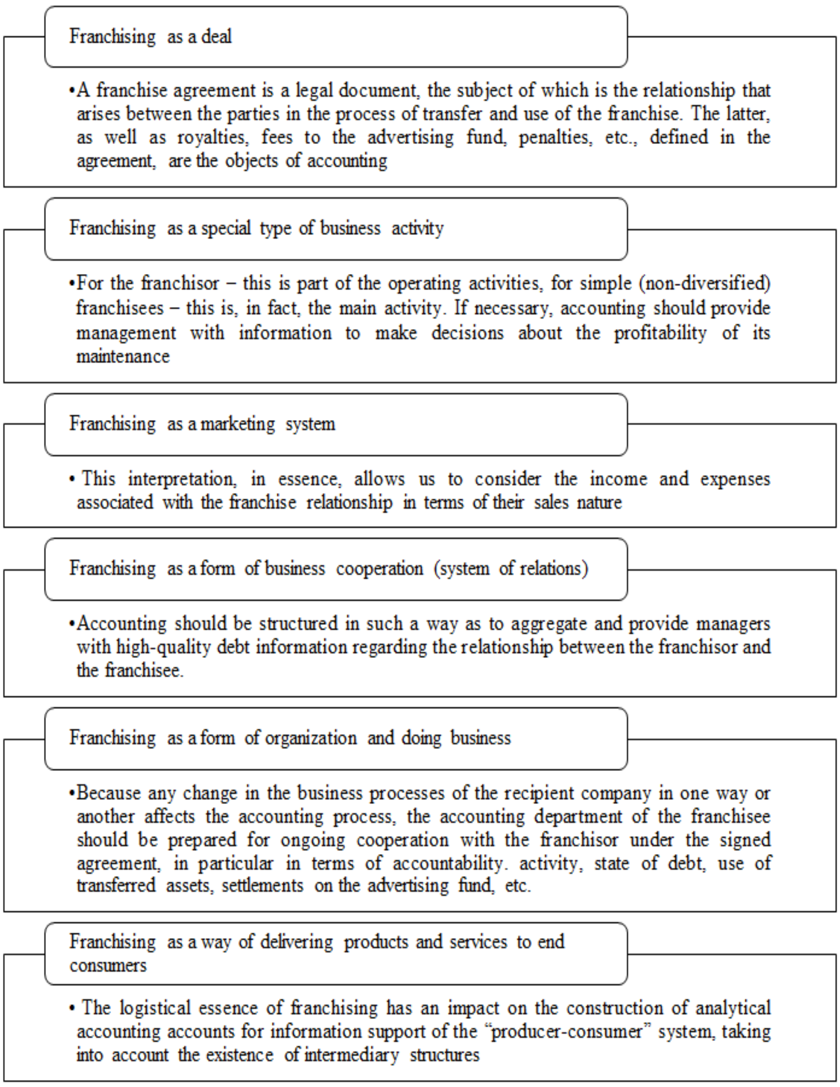

Figure 5. Influence of polymorphism of nature of franchising on construction of system of accounting of the enterprises of a tourist franchising network (Source: developed by authors)

In our opinion, the method of accounting for the relationship between the franchisor and the franchisee should be considered in seven interrelated aspects:

1) the place of the franchising agreement as a separate object of accounting in the management system;
2) accounting for franchise accounting;
3) accounting for the accrual and payment of the lump sum and the periodic part of the royalty;
4) accounting for mutual settlements that arise in the process of transferring equipment by the franchisor, know-how, intellectual property, etc. to the franchisee;
5) accounting for goodwill;
6) recognition and write-off of expenses related to the payment of royalties, etc. franchising costs;
7) accounting for income tax and VAT arising in the course of transactions in the system of franchising relationships.

Transformation on this basis of accounting from a simple registrar of business transactions to a powerful tool for information support of the enterprise management system is a necessary factor for the success of any business project, including and the creation of a travel franchising network and provides for the effective redistribution of information flows in the system of accounts using the method of double-entry (Table 1). The use of a system of accounts with a source of assets in the form accounts of payable and redistribution of accounting information through income / expense accounts of future periods will form the most objective basis for an effective decision support system in the field of tourism franchising.

DISCUSSION

When forming the methodological basis of accounting for franchising operations in the tourism business should be based on the following assumptions:

1. Debatable recognition of the franchise (business methods, trademark, technology, etc.) as an intangible asset in the accounting of the franchisee. This approach is proposed in the work of several domestic scientists (Pankova and Kubatkina, 2009; Lysa and Andrushko, 2013; Hyk et al., 2021), but may seem quite contradictory both because of the inability to reliably determine the value of such intangible assets and because of the lack of exclusive (right to use them alienation) (from the point of view of such economists as N.A. Boreyko (Boreyko, 2010), etc.).

Table 1. Correspondence of accounts of franchise and royalty transactions at the franchisor and franchisee (Source: author's generalization)

The content of the business transaction	Correspondence of accounts	
	D-t	C-t
I. Accounting for a franchise as an object of a franchising agreement		
In the franchisee:		
The franchisee's expenses for purchasing a franchise from the franchisor enterprise in the amount of a one-time contribution are reflected	154 "Acquisition (creation) of intangible assets"	685 "Settlements with other creditors"
Introduction of intangible assets in the form of a deductible	127 "Other intangible assets"	154 "Acquisition (creation) of intangible assets"
In the franchisor:		
Received a one-time fee for the use of the franchise from the franchisee	311 "Accounts in national currency"	69 "Deferred income"
II. Accounting for a one-time (lump sum) fee under a franchising agreement		
In the franchisee		
A lump-sum payment was paid for the received franchise	685 "Settlements with other creditors"	311 "Accounts in national currency"
In the franchisor:		
Part of the received contribution is taken into account in the calculations for the use of the franchise	69 "Deferred income"	373 "Calculations of accrued income"
Inclusion in the income of the reporting period of the received lump sum	373 "Calculations of accrued income"	719 "Other operating income"
III. Accounting for periodic fees under the franchising agreement:		
In the franchisee (subject to granting the right to use the franchise for a limited period):		
Deferred expenses are recognized in the amount of periodic royalties due under the terms of the franchising agreement	39 "Deferred expenses"	55 "Other long-term liabilities"
Part of long-term royalty liabilities to be repaid within 12 months from the balance sheet date has been transferred to current debt	55 "Other long-term liabilities"	611 "Current debt on long-term liabilities in national currency"
A periodic fee has been paid under the terms of the franchise agreement	611 "Current debt on long-term liabilities in national currency"	311 "Accounts in national currency"
The amount of the periodic royalty, which belongs to the reporting period, is written off	93 "Sales costs"	39 "Deferred expenses"
In the franchisee (subject to granting the right to use the franchise for an indefinite period):		
The amount of periodic royalties is written off	93 "Sales costs"	685 "Settlements with other creditors"
A periodic fee has been paid under the terms of the franchise agreement	685 "Settlements with other creditors"	311 "Accounts in national currency"
In the franchisor (subject to a limited period of use of the franchise):		
The long-term debt of the franchisee on payment of the total amount of periodic payments is reflected	183 "Other receivables"	69 "Deferred income"
The current debt of the franchisee to pay the franchise is reflected	373 "Calculations of accrued income"	183 "Other receivables"
Received a periodic payment for the franchise, which relates to the reporting period	311 "Accounts in national currency"	373 "Calculations of accrued income"
Accrued periodic income from the franchise	69 "Deferred income"	719 "Other operating income"
In the franchisor (subject to unlimited use of the franchise):		
Accrued periodic income from the franchise	373 "Calculations of accrued income"	719 "Other operating income"
Received a periodic payment for the franchise	311 "Accounts in national currency"	373 "Calculations of accrued income"
IV. Depreciation of the franchise in the franchisee		
Amortization of intangible assets in the form of a franchise has been accumulated	93 "Sales costs"	133 "Accumulated amortization of intangible assets"

The International Accounting Standard 38 "Intangible Assets" does not provide an unambiguous answer, in paragraph 9 of which the franchise is given as an example of an intangible asset, but the following paragraph states: "Not all objects described in paragraph 9 meet the definition of an intangible asset (it is about the possibility of identification, control over the resource and the existence of future economic benefits)". However, it should be noted that in both domestic and international accounting practice, the franchise meets the main criteria for recognition of an intangible asset:

- identity – arises as a result of contractual rights regulated in the franchising agreement;
- control – the entity has the authority to obtain future economic benefits from the use of the franchise and to limit the access of others to these benefits;
- future economic benefits – the use of the franchise potentially leads to an increase in income from the sale of products or services to the franchisee;
- reliability of determination of value – compensation for the acquisition of such an asset comes to the franchisor in the form of a lump sum (forms the initial cost of the franchise in the franchisee) and periodic royalties (written off to operating expenses). That is, only the absence of a one-time payment for the acquired franchise makes it impossible to recognize it as a non-current asset.

It is important to note that the absence of an exclusive right to use a franchise cannot in itself be the reason for excluding this object from intangible assets, as indicated by some scholars, as such "exclusivity" is not a standard requirement for intangible assets.

2. The system of obligatory relations, which is formed between the franchisor and the franchisee in the aspect of accrual of one-time (lump sum) contribution and royalty (periodic service fee).

Usually, a franchising agreement is signed for more than one year, respectively, the relationship between its participants in the accrual and payment of royalties is transferred to the plane of long-term. In this case, in the case of accrual of a monthly fee regardless of the amount of income received by the franchisee, the total debt of the latter is reflected on the credit of account 55, while receivables from the franchisor are accounted for using sub-account 183.

3. Since the lump sum is paid to the franchisee (received by the franchisor) in advance in a single payment, while the benefits of using the franchise are long-term, its attribution to the costs (income) of the reporting period is gradual, equal parts, during the contract using the redistribution mechanism through the accounts of expenses (income) of future periods. An important condition, however, is the reliability of the definition of the latter.

The answer, deferred income (expense) can be recognized only if arrangements are made for "fixed" amounts of payments that do not deviate from multiple revenues received by the franchisee.

4. In the domestic specialized literature and accounting periodicals there is no uniformity in the nomenclature of sub-accounts, which monitor the indicators of income and expenses of the period, which affect the process of franchising. Offered: 703 "Income from sales of works and services", 713 "Income from operating lease of assets", 719 "Other income from operating activities", 23 "Production", 903 "Cost of sold services and services", 91 "Overhead costs", 93 "Sales costs". In our opinion, in contrast to the rational and methodologically sound use of sub-account 719 to reflect the income received by franchisors in the case of royalties, while to account for the costs of franchisees under franchising agreements-account 93 and subaccount 704. Note that the franchisor's income from franchising operations may include not only the entrance fee and periodic royalties, but also income in the form of rent and lease payments; contributions to the advertising fund; markup on the cost of goods and materials supplied to franchisees; payment for various related services (eg, related to the selection of premises and equipment, mediation between franchisees and financial institutions), etc. This should be reflected in the system of analytical accounts of the franchisor.

5. According to the current tax rules set out in the Tax Code of Ukraine, the payment of royalties in cash is not subject to VAT. At the same time, the income in the form of royalties is taken into account when calculating the object of corporate income tax.

CONCLUSION

Franchising can become one of the effective methods of doing business in tourism, provided the creation of mutually beneficial partnerships between enterprises of the potential network in Ukraine. The main advantages of franchising business for the franchisor are the expansion of the scale and geography of the business, as well as additional income from royalties, while the franchisee expects to save their financial resources, increase competitiveness and use in business "promoted" brand. To reduce their business risks, tour operators-franchisors put forward to potential franchise receivers several requirements, which are reduced to geographical-locational, legal-financial, technical and personnel. Understanding the essence of the concept of "franchising" as an agreement, a special type of business, marketing system, forms of business cooperation (system of relations), forms of organization and business, delivery of products and services to end-users has a significant impact on accounting methodology of franchising. The reflection of franchising operations in the accounts and the accounting registers is the basis for the proper organization of accounting processes in both the franchisor and the franchisee. Our study allows us to draw the following conclusions:

1) the franchise is the object of intangible assets, primarily because it meets the conditions of identification, controllability, availability of future economic benefits and the reliability of the determination of value;

2) since the settlements between the franchisor and the franchisee are long-term and stretched over time, there is an objective need to use the accounts of income and expenses of future periods to comply with the fundamental principle of their accrual and compliance. For this purpose, in the practice of Ukrainian companies, accounts 39 "Deferred expenses" and 69 "Deferred income" are used. It is established that when accruing and paying/receiving a lump sum and periodic contributions, as well as the accumulation of depreciation of the franchise in the franchise should take into account the period during which the franchise agreement;

3) the most informative to reflect the income and expenses of the period that arises in the process of franchising by tourism enterprises, as well as relevant to the laws of Ukraine accounts are 719 "Other income from operating activities" – to reflect income received by the franchisor in the form of royalties, 704 "Deductions from income" – to account for royalties as a percentage of income, 93 "Sales costs" – to account for the costs of the franchisee under the franchise agreement (accounting for "fixed" amounts of payments). They are the basis for the construction of accounting records to establish the results of financial activities of franchisees and franchisees and allow you to objectively determine the profitability of franchising in the tourism business.

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Article history: Received: 17.08.2021 Revised: 06.11.2021 Accepted: 31.12.2021 Available online: 19.01.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.79-88
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40109-805

CULTURAL APPROPRIATION AND DESTINATION BRANDS

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Citation: Freire, J., Gertner, R., & Gertner, D. (2022). CULTURAL APPROPRIATION AND DESTINATION BRANDS. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 79–88. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40109-805

Abstract: Increasing public scrutiny, intensifying consumers' demand for political correctness, and rising concerns about cultural appropriation have pressed marketers to reassess products, brand names, logos, mascots, claims, advertising, and so forth. This article reports on the evaluation of consumers' awareness of cultural appropriation within a destination branding context by means of an experimental design. The study tested the impact of priming participants with information about cultural appropriation on their attitudes toward local souvenir sales, theatrical performances, and the use of artifacts by outsiders. A questionnaire was applied to 201 people. Results suggest that the concept of cultural appropriation is little understood. On the other hand, those participants who were introduced to the concept displayed some significantly different perceptions about its impact compared to those who were not. Hence, place marketers should assess the extent to which cultural appropriation could

Key words: cultural appropriation, branding, destination marketing, destination brands, place branding, political correctness

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INTRODUCTION

Consumers' adoption of political correctness as a driver of behavior has recently intensified. Political correctness is defined as "the avoidance of forms of expression or action that are perceived to exclude, marginalize, or insult groups of people who are socially disadvantaged or discriminated against" (Lexico.com, n.d.). The topic encompasses a myriad of issues, including diversity, racism, stereotyping, sexism, gender roles, and sexual harassment. One related concern that has received growing attention is cultural appropriation, "the unsuitable, unauthorized, or objectionable use of cultural elements in a context other than that of the culture by outsiders who might lack understanding and/or respect for the culture in question" (Gertner, 2019: 873). The growing demand for political correctness, as well as denunciations of cultural appropriation, is observed in numerous contexts. In fashion, for example, Victoria's Secret has been repeatedly criticized for using Mexican, Chinese, African, and other groups' cultural elements and symbols to adorn models during its fashion shows (Anderson, 2017; Harper's BAZAAR, 2017). In addition, numerous celebrities and pop artists have been recurrently censured for politically incorrect statements or for using elements and symbols of cultural, ethnic, or racial groups to which they do not belong in public appearances and performances (Twersky, 2019; Rae, 2019). Likewise, politicians have found that their comments and actions in relation to sensitive subjects, such as ethnicity and race, are closely scrutinized by the public (Perrett, 2020). Political correctness and cultural appropriation concerns have significantly impacted traditional marketers. Public opinion has pressed several brands to review names, logos, claims, and mascots, for example. In 2020, for instance, allegations of racial stereotyping drove Quaker Oats to delete the image of a black woman from the logo and packages of the Aunt Jemima brand of syrups and pancake mixes (Heil, 2020; Norris, 2020; Valinsky, 2020). In the same year, Mars Food announced that the company would reevaluate the visual identity of its Uncle Ben's rice brand, which included the image of an elderly African American man. Various other brands were expected to follow suit in reviewing their advertising, brand names, mascots, and logos in response to criticisms of racism and stereotyping, including Cream of Wheat cereal and Darkie toothpaste (McEvoy, 2020).

After decades of accusations that the Redskins, the name of the NFL team based in Washington, DC, was insulting to Native Americans, the owner Dan Snyder and the coach Ron Rivera announced that name and logo would be altered (Sanchez, 2020). Finally, concerns about the ongoing discussion on cultural appropriation led Land O'Lakes butter to remove the image of a Native American woman from its logo and instead stress that its product was "Farmers Owned" on the newly designed package (Wu, 2020). The discussion of cultural appropriation has lately reached primetime TV, with the writers of ABC's sitcom *The Conners* bringing the issue to the fore at least twice in two years. One article about an episode aired in October 2018 was titled: "The Conners' Halloween episode showed that cultural appropriation can be complicated, but it's a necessary conversation" (Pomarico, 2020). In the spring of 2020, in the season 2 finale, one the leading characters, Jackie, played by Laurie Metcalf, stood at the US-Mexico border, confronting Americans returning

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from Mexico wearing sombreros and holding maracas by asking if they were not ashamed of appropriating Mexican culture (Long, 2020). Cultural appropriation was also addressed by the Netflix series *The Politician*, specifically in episode 3 of season 2, which was titled "Cancel Culture." In the episode, a picture of Payton Hobart, Ben Platt's character, at age six wearing a "Jerome" costume in Halloween is used to discuss the concept of cultural appropriation. Viewers are taught that for members of the culture, what is referred to as 'cultural borrowing' is in fact 'cultural stealing' and 'cultural appreciation' is actually 'cultural appropriation.' The cultural appropriation debate should be seen as particularly significant for destination brands, primarily for tourist destinations that promote local cultures. According to Gertner (2019:873), "A growing number of critics believe destination brands in general, and tourist destinations in particular, have exploited indigenous groups for the commercial purpose of entertaining visitors". This author alerts readers about "the importance, implications, and risks of cultural appropriation to the future of destination image, reputation, attractiveness, and sustainability" (Gertner, 2019:873). The destination marketing, management, and branding literature on this topic is scant. Furthermore, it is not clear whether consumers broadly speaking, and tourists in particular, understand what cultural appropriation is and how they relate to it. For these reasons, this investigation attempts to test quantitatively whether people are aware of cultural appropriation and how they relate to the concept in the tourism context. Two questions guide the present analysis: *What is cultural appropriation in a tourism context in the eyes of consumers?* and *Does advertising/education (priming) affect the assessment of the dimensions of cultural appropriation by consumers?*

LITERATURE REVIEW

Culture and Cultural Appropriation

Culture is a set of specific patterns of ideas, values, beliefs, and behaviors held by a community (Wang, 2001; McFee and Degge, 1977). Sharing culture across communities is part of human nature. The concept of cultural appropriation, however, calls into question this behavior and may prevent future cultural exchange (Young, 2015).

The roots of the concept of cultural appropriation are found in the early 1990s in the field of indigenous studies (Fung, 1993). In its simplest and most neutral formulation, the term refers to the adoption or adaptation by people of one culture of an aspect of the culture of some other people (Heyd, 2003; Hladki, 1994). This assumes the two peoples are on an equal footing; in general, however, an asymmetrical relationship is presupposed, so that cultural appropriation is "speaking for others or representing them in fictional as well as legal, social, artistic, and political work [as] appropriate or proper, especially when individuals or groups with more social, economic, and political power perform this role for others without invitation" (Hart, 1997:137). Crane (2018) points out that the appropriation of culture never happens without a corresponding appropriation of labor and human lives. Furthermore, when one culture borrows forms from another culture, stereotypes can be created (Said, 1985) and may have negative effects on minoritized cultures (Kulchyski, 1997).

The modification of minority cultures' artifacts, traditions, and rituals does not necessarily consider their original meanings and, in some cases, may offend the artists and communities who originated them. Consequently, the discussion about cultural appropriation has many aspects, including its ethical, legal, and political repercussions (Young and Brunk, 2009; Matthes, 2019). Most early discussions of cultural appropriation had to do with the ownership of archaeological finds, museum pieces, and visual art, such as paintings and pottery, and soundtracks of songs and music. Numerous indigenous and non-indigenous protesters and scholars began to develop a legal-ethical outline for the understanding of cultural property, what constituted its appropriation, and the restitution of property to indigenous nations (Young and Brunk, 2009). As an example, a sacred Blackfoot buckskin shirt that had once been the property of the indigenous chief Crowfoot and was displayed in the Royal Albert Memorial Museum in the UK was repatriated to the Siksika Nation in Canada (Bakare, 2020). Cultural appropriation is not always an unadulterated portrayal of another culture; it can take the form of a distorted image reflecting political, economic, and cultural domination (Hooks, 2006). Wesaw (1994) argues that corporations in white society have marketed products with Indian brand names and logos in a way that alters and trivializes Native American cultures, even when logos and labels such as the Washington Redskins, the Crazy Horse Malt Liquor Label, and the cars Pontiac and Cherokee ostensibly praise Native Americans for their courageousness and nobility.

An increasing number of critics are questioning the 'morality' of the "misrepresentation, misuse, and theft of the stories, styles, and material heritage of people who have been historically dominated and remain socially marginalized" (Matthes, 2016: 343). According to Wesaw (1994), "Indian" labels as used by "White Society" create stereotypes and thus weaken Native American efforts to elevate tribal standards. For example, the word "Indian" can refer to a "noble" or a "savage" or an "evil" or an "environmentalist." In other words, "Indian" can be anything the "White Society" wishes or does not wish it to be. For Wesaw (1994), these prejudiced and deceptive marketing and consumption practices denigrate true Native culture, causing great damage to Native American communities. In addition, Wesaw cites Michael Dorris, a Native American author, who points out that Indian images and symbols sell sports teams, sports gear, toys, foods, home products, incense, tobacco, beverages, automobiles, and so forth though no compensation is offered to indigenous people. Yet in some cases, companies even claim that that the sale of their products benefits Native communities (Wesaw, 1994).

This practice has negatively impacted the ability of Native Americans to market goods they have produced themselves. Wesaw (1994) states that consumers who are willing to pay more for authentic products have become confused, with the consequence that Native American access to this profitable market is reduced or blocked entirely. In 2012, the Navajo nation sued Urban Outfitters, demanding the clothing retailer remove the "Navajo" name from its products, based on the Indian Arts and Crafts Act of 1990, a truth-in-advertising law that prohibits misrepresentation in the marketing of Indian arts and craft products within the US. The 1935 Indian Arts and Crafts Act had established criminal penalties for marketing and selling objects that misrepresented Indian products, but did not impose major consequences on those who misrepresented fake arts and crafts as Indian produced and marketed them as “Indian Made.” In addition, it required that a violation be proven, and there was very little enforcement. Due to the subsequent enormous increase in sales (in the billions of dollars) in the US Indian arts and crafts market of products wrongly represented as having been made by Indians, Congress passed the Indian Arts and Crafts Act of 1990. The act states, “It is illegal to offer or display for sale, or sell any art or craft product in a manner that falsely suggests it is Indian produced, an Indian product, or the product of a particular Indian or Indian tribe or Indian arts and crafts organization, resident within the United States” (https://www.doi.gov/iacb/act).

Nowadays, it is difficult to define what can and cannot be categorized as cultural appropriation (DeBoer, 2016). Because cultural appropriation has just recently gained high awareness among the general public, due to the increased discussions of this issue in social networks and media coverage, an enormous range of situations have been interpreted as cultural appropriation. These run the gamut from the adoption of the African women’s head wrap (Dhuku) by Westerners to the use of minority groups’ original designs, symbols, or mascots by Western entities such as sport teams, product manufacturers, and colleges (DeBoer, 2016). As mentioned above, sharing cultural elements across different societies is an intrinsic part of human behavior. Nonetheless, Lynskey (2014) questions the right of nonindigenous groups to wear traditional outfits of indigenous people. This and other forms of cultural appropriation have been receiving harsh criticism on the basis that they are associated with those dominant in society taking aspects of minority cultures, modifying them, and profiting from them without benefiting the minority cultures (Young, 2010; Scafidi, 2005). Young and Brunk (2009) highlight three kinds of cultural appropriation that seem to be ethically dubious: (1) violating the property rights of a culture, (2) undermining the identity of a culture, and (3) disrespecting cultural norms, which may offend the members of the affected culture. On the other hand, cultural appropriation can be perceived as morally acceptable.

Some authors suggest that culture needs to be shared, understood, and celebrated. Thus, the term ‘appropriation’ should be replaced by ‘borrowing’ (Matthes, 2016; Han, 2019). Even when minority communities’ members are offended by acts of cultural appropriation by dominant cultures, the acts may not be ones of wrongdoing (Young, 2005). Chanel attracted criticism and equally avid defenses for appropriating symbols of Native American dress in its Paris-Dallas Métiers d’Art 2013/2014 collection. A Chanel spokesperson wrote to fashionista.com: “The Chanel Paris-Dallas Métiers d’Art 2013/2014 collection is a celebration of the beauty of Texas. Native Americans are an integral part of Texas’ rich history and culture and the feather headdress, a symbol of strength and bravery, is one of the most visually stunning examples of creativity and craftsmanship. We deeply apologize if it has been misinterpreted or is seen as offensive as it was really meant to be a tribute to the beauty of craftsmanship” (Indvik, 2013).

Cultural Appropriation in the Tourism Context

The literature has proven the value of cultural tourism (Richards, 2003; Rojekand and Urry, 1997; Sdrali and Chazapi, 2007). Prior studies have shown an increased interest in culture, indicating that more tourists are looking for genuine and meaningful cultural experiences that differ from those of their home country when visiting a destination (Freire, 2005; Barbieri and Mahoney, 2010; Valle et al., 2011; Hassan, 2015). Thus, the availability of cultural attractions is crucial to drawing a broader range of tourists to a destination (Freire, 2005; Agarwal and Brunt, 2006; Molinillo and Japutra, 2015; Hernández-Mogollón et al., 2018; Freire and Gertner, 2020). In addition, research has shown that cultural attractions are strong promoters of tourism and influence destination image formation (Gursoy et al., 2004; Getz, 2008; Valle et al., 2011).

Local cultures are also perceived as a significant component in the enhancement of destination images and post-trip tourist satisfaction (Richards and Wilson, 2004; Chapman and Speake, 2010). Richards (1996, 2005) provides both technical and conceptual definitions of cultural tourism. According to the former, “Cultural tourism means all movements of persons to specific cultural attractions, such as heritage sites, artistic and cultural manifestations, arts and drama outside their normal place of residence” (1996:24); the latter states that it “is the movement of persons to cultural attractions away from their normal place of residence, with the intention to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs” (2005:24). Richards (2003) points out that these definitions do not recognize that cultural attractions are dynamic, which makes it difficult to identify what is ‘purely’ cultural or ‘entertainment based.’ While Leask (2010) contends that cultural attractions should be resources for local communities, some tourist destinations have been criticized for exploiting indigenous groups for commercial purposes and usurping indigenous peoples’ rituals to create tourist attractions (O’Daly, 2017). For example, it is estimated that 85 percent of aboriginal arts and crafts sold to tourists in Australia as genuine aboriginal art is fake and imported (NITV, 2017).

Greenwood (1989) discusses the impact of tourism merchandising, souvenirs, performances, clothing, etc., in a local community from an anthropological viewpoint: “The anthropological perspective enables us to understand why the commoditization of local culture in the tourism industry is so fundamentally destructive and why the sale of ‘culture by the pound’ as it were, needs to be examined by everyone involved in tourism” (p. 131). Nonetheless, there is also the perspective that tourism does not necessarily equate with the commercialization of local cultures and the loss of their unique characteristics. Tourism can be seen as a way to protect and promote cultural diversity. From this perspective, the concept of destination branding can be seen as an inform response for local sustainable development, the promotion and protection of local community rituals, and the improvement of the image of destinations (Freire, 2005). Destination images are constructed of several components, culture being one of them (Gertner and Freire, 2018; Echtner and Ritchie, 1993; Valle et al., 2011; Hassan, 2015). However, reports of abuses and exploitation may negatively influence visitors’ perception of a destination image, which, ultimately, can diminishes their desire to visit a place. Thus, in the context of destination branding, destination image, tourism, and hospitality, negative publicity associated with the appropriation of culture can be very damaging, if a locale’s economy is largely based on tourism and hospitality services (Gertner, 2019).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Research Question

This investigation was designed to test the following research question: *Do consumers understand the concept of cultural appropriation in a tourism context?*

Sample

Data were collected using Pollfish, an online research company that partners with other applications to access participants for data collection. The final sample comprised 201 participants, 56 percent female and 44 percent male, all from the US. In order to gather responses from more-experienced travelers, the questionnaire was only administered to individuals who had travelled for leisure outside of the continental US at least once and were older than 24 years, that is, were born after 1996. In terms of age, 19 percent of participants were born between 1946 and 1964, 31.5 percent between 1965 and 1980, and 49.5 percent between 1981 and 1996. No significant differences in responses were found based on gender or age group. Lastly 45 percent of the sample read a text about cultural appropriation (Figure 1) before responding the questionnaire, these participants became part of the “priming” group, and 55 percent of the participants answered the questionnaire without reading the text, these participants became part of the “non-priming” group.

Research Instrument

Because the academic study of cultural appropriation is relatively young, the authors ended up developing their own instrument based on a questionnaire to study its significance. The questionnaire was composed of 35 variables, or statements, that measured the impact of tourists on local communities. These variables were arranged in three groups or dimensions (Table 1) and 7-point Likert scales were used to measure participants’ level of agreement with the statements. The investigation’s premise is that cultural appropriation, in the context of tourism, can be manifested in three offerings typically available to tourists. Those three offerings are: culture-related souvenirs, theatrical cultural performances, and culture-related artifacts and outfits. The first dimension, *The role and meaning of souvenirs sold to and bought by tourists*, comprised of 12 variables, examined the role and meaning of souvenirs bought by tourists, using a 7-point Likert scale (Table 2). Dimension 2 (Table 3), also comprised of 12 variables, measured participants’ level of agreement with 12 statements regarding *Local theatrical performances catering to tourists*, such as performances that present local dances, music, rituals, and religious ceremonies in hotels, nightclubs, and other venues to entertain and bring awareness of the local culture to tourists.

Table 1 Cultural appropriation dimensions covered in the questionnaire

Dimension 1	The role and meaning of souvenirs sold to and bought by tourists
Dimension 2	The experience of tourists with local theatrical performances
Dimension 3	The use of cultural artifacts by nonlocal people

Table 2. Dimension 1variables and associated survey questions

Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements:
1 . When tourists buy souvenirs, they demonstrate interest in the local culture and people
2 . When tourists buy souvenirs, they bring home memories of their cultural experiences
3 . When tourists bring home souvenirs, they demonstrate appreciation for the culture and local people"
4 . When tourists buy souvenirs, they help to preserve the local culture"
5 . When tourists buy souvenirs, they help local and indigenous people financially"
6 . Mass-produced souvenirs banalize local cultures and its sacred symbols"
7 . Tourists should only buy authentic objects made by local craftspeople or authorized replicas
8 . It is morally wrong to sell unauthorized reproductions of traditional objects from a culture to tourists"
9 . Tourists should make sure that the souvenirs they buy are not offensive to the members of the local culture
10 . Tourists who buy ‘indigenous’ ceremonial and sacred objects, without understanding their meaning disrespect the local culture and people
11 .It is harmless when tourists use traditional objects from a culture in a different context, such as to decorate their homes
12 . The sales of souvenirs that reproduce objects or symbols with cultural significance should be approved by local and indigenous people

Table 3 Dimension 2 variables and associated survey questions

Many destinations offer shows that display local dances, music, rituals, and even religious ceremonies, with professional performers, in hotels, night clubs and other venues, to entertain tourists and enlighten them about local cultural elements. Using the scales provided, please indicate the extent to which you agree that these theatrical presentations:
13. Help tourists to experience another culture
14. Educate tourists about local cultures
15. Offer a fair illustration of the local customs and rituals
16. Represent a form of appreciation for the local culture
17. Are good cultural learning experiences
18. Lack authenticity
19. Represent a form of appropriation of the culture
20. Do not reflect the local culture elements
21. Undermine historical and cultural significance
22. Are disrespectful to local and indigenous people
23. Can cause harm to the culture
24. Stereotype local and indigenous people

Table 4. Dimension 3 variables and associated survey questions

Using the scales provided below, please indicate the extent to which you believe that traditional outfits, accessories, and textiles that have cultural, historical, or religious significance and meaning to local and indigenous people bought by tourists:
25. Promote the culture
26. Offer meaningful memories of the culture
27. Are disrespectful
28. Represent a form of appropriation of the culture
29. Are offensive to local and indigenous people
30. Make locals feel uneasy
31. Should not be used by tourists
32. Should not be taken out of context
33. Should not be bought
34. Should not be worn as a costume
35. Should not be used as an ornamental object

Lastly, Dimension 3 (Table 4), comprised of 11 variables, was measured by means of 11 questions intended to evaluate participants' attitudes toward the purchase and use by tourists of traditional items that have cultural significance, such as outfits, accessories, and textiles.

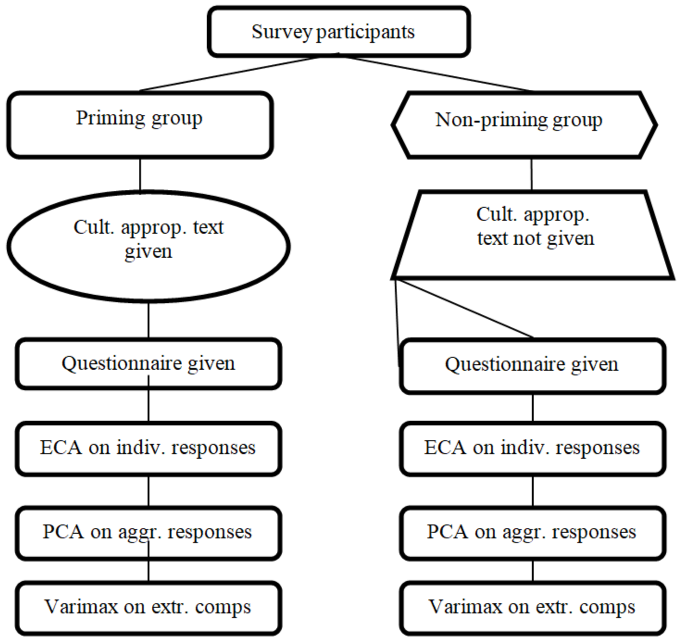

Figure 1. Survey and analysis methodology

Method

This investigation adopted an experimental design. In an experiment, study participants are allocated in different groups and their answers are compared to test the existence of statistically significant differences between the groups' responses (McLeod, 2017) (Figure 1).

In this study, participants were randomly assigned to two groups, "priming" or "non-priming": "Priming is a psychological process in which exposure to a stimulus activates a concept in memory that is then given increased weight in subsequent judgment tasks" (Lavrakas, 2008: 612).

All participants in this study were asked to answer the same questionnaire. However, the members of the "priming" group, before answering the questions, were requested to read a short text that introduced the concept of cultural appropriation and provided examples of how purchasing souvenirs, attending local theater representations, and the use of artifacts by outsiders might be offensive to the local people (Table 5).

Table 5 Text that preceded the questionnaire for participants in the "priming" group

- An increasing number of local and indigenous people in numerous popular destinations resent that the tourism industry has misused their cultural elements for commercial purposes. Also, research has revealed that native people do not believe that tourism has had a role in preserving their language and culture. Many community members feel disrespected, particularly when tourists use cultural elements out-of-context, without understanding their history and meaning. Examples of such practices include:
- Sales of cheap, mass-produced, imported, and unlicensed reproduction of images, art, and objects that have special cultural significance to locals and indigenous people.
- Use by tourists of clothing and accessories out-of-context or as a costume such as masks, face paintings, ornaments, objects, clothing, accessories, and images associated with "El Dia de Los Muertos," a religious holiday and sacred date, when Mexican families gather to remember and honor deceased loved ones.
- Misrepresentation of local habits and rituals. For example, tiki bars, torch-lighting ceremonies, and fire knife dances are not Hawaiian. Polynesians have never worn coconut bras, grass skirts and wouldn't give plastic leis. "Dressing up as a Hawaiian" is considered offensive, since "being Hawaiian" isn't a costume. Also, the use of "aloha" has been so far removed from any Hawaiian cultural context and has become meaningless.

The ANOVA technique was used to test whether reading the informative text (priming) influenced the dimensions extracted from the factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was the statistical method chosen to test the appropriateness of the three dimensions initially posited, as well as to help identify new relationships among the 35 variables and possibly suggest a different way to regroup them. Individuals' responses were therefore aggregated and attribute correlation matrices were calculated and subjected to principal component analysis (PCA). For factor extraction, PCA was the method of choice "to extract the maximum possible variance, with successive factoring continuing until there is no further meaningful variance left" (Ding, 2018: 56). The components extracted were then orthogonally rotated using the varimax procedure; the varimax rotation is a solution "that makes it easy to identify each variable with a single factor" (Ivancevic et al., 2008: 161).

RESULTS

Data Reduction – Creating New Variables

After conducting a factor analysis that included all 35 variables, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy was used to test validity. The KMO obtained was 0.902, which by being > 0.5 is considered to be an excellent positive indicator for the use of factor analysis as a tool for variable reduction (Table 6). The significance level of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is < 0.05, indicating that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix; therefore, the variables are related and suitable for structure detection (Malhotra and Dash, 2016).

Table 6. KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.902
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. chi-square	4609.502
	Df	561
	Sig.	0.000

PCA was used to extract the factors, which were then orthogonally rotated using the varimax procedure (Table 7). Using these two procedures, six components were extracted. These six components explained 67.178 percent of the total variance (Table 8). After observing the results, the researchers categorized and defined each of the six factors extracted (Table 9).

Table 7. Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Tourists should make sure that the souvenirs they buy are not offensive to the members of the local culture	.813	.074	-.073	.037	.043	.142
10. Tourists who buy ‘indigenous’ ceremonial and sacred objects, without understanding their meaning, disrespect the local culture and people	.797	.128	-.003	-.020	.239	.032
7. Tourists should only buy authentic objects made by local craftspeople or authorized replicas	.756	.178	.033	.043	.172	.015
8. It is morally wrong to sell unauthorized reproductions of traditional objects from a culture to tourists	.755	.180	.012	.088	.137	.091
6 . Mass-produced souvenirs banalize local cultures and their sacred symbols	.655	.107	.117	-.072	.248	.123
12. The sales of souvenirs that reproduce objects or symbols with cultural significance should be approved by local and indigenous people	.636	.284	.129	-.024	.232	.115
34. Should not be worn as a costume	.566	.493	-.127	-.240	.101	.037
32. Should not be taken out of context	.549	.368	-.045	.023	-.005	.160
11. It is harmless when tourists use traditional objects from a culture in a different context, such as to decorate their homes	-.495	-.292	.254	.240	.283	-.027
33. Should not be bought	.348	.752	-.116	-.015	.152	.109
27. Are disrespectful	.221	.743	-.041	-.130	.329	.152
29. Are offensive to local and indigenous people	.233	.741	-.079	-.076	.348	-.046
31. Should not be used by tourists	.383	.723	-.080	-.188	.274	.044
30. Make locals feel uneasy	.168	.676	-.019	-.140	.441	-.058
35. Should not be used as an ornamental object	.480	.625	-.066	-.144	.109	.127
14. Educate tourists about local cultures	.020	-.072	.821	.176	-.044	.029
16. Represent a form of appreciation for the local culture	-.039	-.055	.799	.248	-.113	-.045
17. Are good cultural learning experiences	.051	-.088	.763	.343	-.235	.079
13. Help tourists to experience another culture	.048	-.020	.743	.319	-.234	.092
15. Offer a fair illustration of the local customs and rituals	-.034	-.011	.675	.334	-.192	.173
26. Offer meaningful memories of the culture	.007	-.428	.461	.396	-.054	.063
25. Promote the culture	-.142	-.424	.451	.446	.073	.081
1. When tourists buy souvenirs, they demonstrate interest in the local culture and people	-.004	-.045	.217	.838	-.048	.047
3. When tourists bring home souvenirs, they demonstrate appreciation for the culture and local people	.004	0.023	.242	.821	-.099	-.066
4. When tourists buy souvenirs, they help to preserve the local culture	.001	-.128	.257	.741	.009	.106
2. When tourists buy souvenirs, they bring home memories of their cultural experiences	-.052	-.177	.263	.645	-.139	.024
5. When tourists buy souvenirs, they help local and indigenous people financially	-.005	-.204	.370	.595	-.080	-.003
18. Lack authenticity	.040	.024	-.178	-.103	.747	-.012
21. Undermine historical and cultural significance	.236	.225	-.096	-.021	.680	.189
23. Can cause harm to the culture	.318	.360	-.083	-.104	.678	.032
22. Are disrespectful to local and indigenous people	.296	.356	-.145	-.070	.673	.091
20. Do not reflect the local culture elements	.055	.292	-.330	.095	.662	.114
24. Stereotype local and indigenous people	.321	.254	-.091	-.243	.605	.008
28. Represent a form of appropriation of the culture	.225	.094	.153	-.074	.133	.838
19. Represent a form of appropriation of the culture	.308	.073	.098	.245	.112	.787
Note: Extraction method: principal component analysis; rotation method: varimax with Kaiser normalization.						
[a] Rotation converged in eight iterations.						

Table 8. Total variance explained

Component	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.048	14.847	14.847
2	4.488	13.201	28.049
3	4.010	11.794	39.843
4	3.889	11.439	51.282
5	3.813	11.214	62.496
6	1.592	4.682	67.178
Note: Extraction method: principal component analysis			

Table 9. Interpretation of the six factors extracted

Factor 1 – Attitudes toward cultural-related souvenirs
Factor 2 – Attitudes toward cultural-related outfits
Factor 3 – Attitudes toward attendance of theatrical cultural performances as a learning experience
Factor 4 – Attitudes toward souvenirs as an expression of cultural appreciation
Factor 5 – Impact of theatrical cultural performances on local culture and people
Factor 6 – Cultural appropriation

Table 10. Cronbach’s alpha value for the six factors

	Cronbach’s alpha	Cronbach’s alpha based on standardized items	N	Internal consistency
Factor 1	.813	.810	9	Good
Factor 2	.918	.919	6	Excellent
Factor 3	.894	.896	7	Good
Factor 4	.861	.863	5	Good
Factor 5	.877	.875	6	Good
Factor 6	.751	.752	2	Acceptable

In order to measure the internal consistency of each factor, each of the six factors was tested for reliability using Cronbach’s alpha (Table 10). For factors 1, 3, 4, and 5 the Cronbach’s alpha value is between 0.8 and 0.9, which is considered a good value. Factor 2 has a Cronbach’s alpha higher than 0.9, meaning that in terms of internal consistency, the factor has an excellent value. Finally, Factor 6 has a Cronbach’s alpha between 0.7 and 0.8, which is considered an acceptable value. Consequently, the analysis suggested that, instead of the three dimensions initially proposed, the 35 variables included in the study should be grouped in six factors. The six factors, however, are directly connected to the three dimensions initially proposed, as elaborated below.

Factor 1, defined as *Attitudes toward culture-related souvenirs*, includes all the variables that could be used to define what cultural appropriation is in the case of souvenirs. This factor is aligned with Dimension 1 – *Role and meaning of souvenirs sold to and bought by tourists*.

Factor 2, defined as *Attitudes toward culture-related outfits*, is aligned with Dimension 3 – *Use of cultural artifacts by nonlocal people*.

Factor 3, defined as *Attitudes toward attendance of theatrical cultural performances as a learning experience*, relates to the positive impact theatrical cultural performances as learning experiences have on tourists. This factor indicated that these elements are positive and not negative; therefore, this factor cannot be seen as an element of cultural appropriation. If cultural appropriation was a clearly accepted concept, the loadings of each variable of this factor would be part of Factor 5, though the loadings would be negative. The negative loading would suggest negative correlations with the other variables.

Factor 4, defined as positive *Attitudes toward souvenirs being an expression of cultural appreciation*, should be included in Dimension 1 – *Role and meaning of souvenirs sold to and bought by tourists*. Furthermore, the variables of this factor should be part of Factor 1, but with a negative loading, which would represent a negative correlation with the variables of Factor 1.

Factor 5, defined as the *Impact of theatrical cultural performances on local culture and people*, represents Dimension 3 – *Use of cultural artifacts by non-local people*. Therefore, Factor 5 can be seen as an element of cultural appropriation.

Factor 6, defined as *Cultural appropriation,* includes the two variables related to cultural appropriation. Interestingly, these two variables were aggregated and were not included in any of the other factors. This points to a degree of misunderstanding about what the term "cultural appropriation" means. If there was a clear understanding of the meaning of "cultural appropriation," it is expected that the expression of these variables would be included in Factor 1, 2, or 5.

These results indicate that despite its currency within the media and certain segments of society, cultural appropriation is not a clearly defined concept, and consequently it is not understood by the public at large.

Analysis of Variance Test – ANOVA

With this new set of six factors in hand, ANOVA was used to test for differences between the "priming" and the "non-priming" groups. This analysis demonstrated that there were significant differences between the two groups in only two factors, Factor 5 – *Impact of theatrical cultural performances on local culture and people*, and Factor 6 – *Cultural appropriation* (Table 11). The ANOVA results indicate that participants exposed to the text about cultural appropriation, the "priming' group, believed that *Theatrical cultural performances on local culture and people* had a more negative impact on the local communities than did study participants who were not exposed to the text ("non-priming group"). The exposure to the text prior to the questionnaire application also significantly affected the evaluation of *cultural appropriation*, yielding significant differences in the answers of the two groups, with the "priming" group being more sensitive to the matter. Once again, these findings confirm the perception that cultural appropriation has been discussed in the media but is poorly understood or accepted by society as a whole.

Table 11. ANOVA test of differences between "priming" and "non-priming" groups for the six factors

			Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Factor 1 for analysis 6 * Prime	Between groups	(Combined)	1.817	1	1.817	1.825	.178
	Within groups		198.183	199	.996		
	Total		200.000	200			
Factor 2 for analysis 6 * Prime	Between groups	(Combined)	.012	1	.012	.012	.914
	Within groups		199.988	199	1.005		
	Total		200.000	200			
Factor 3 for analysis 6 * Prime	Between groups	(Combined)	.030	1	.030	.030	.864
	Within groups		199.970	199	1.005		
	Total		200.000	200			
Factor 4 for analysis 6 * Prime	Between groups	(Combined)	.079	1	.079	.079	.779
	Within groups		199.921	199	1.005		
	Total		200.000	200			
Factor 5 for analysis 6 * Prime	Between groups	(Combined)	8.475	1	8.475	8.806	.003
	Within groups		191.525	199	.962		
	Total		200.000	200			
Factor 6 for analysis 6 * Prime	Between groups	(Combined)	4.786	1	4.786	4.879	.028
	Within groups		195.214	199	.981		
	Total		200.000	200			

CONCLUSIONS

This article discusses cultural appropriation, a practice that political correctness seeks to correct, which is widely talked about but still insufficiently researched. Until now, most of the academic debate about cultural appropriation has taken place in the humanities, mainly in the disciplines of anthropology and indigenous studies. Research on cultural appropriation in the context of marketing and branding and particularly in destination branding is virtually nonexistent. The main objective of this research was to examine consumers' knowledge of the concept of cultural appropriation and whether, where knowledge was lacking, exposure to information could significantly change attitudes toward it. Therefore, the investigation studied two phenomena: (a) cultural appropriation in a tourism context in the eyes of consumers and (b) the effect of advertising/education (priming) on consumers' assessment of the dimensions of cultural appropriation.

Initially, the investigation assumed that cultural appropriation, in the context of tourism, could be manifested by three dimensions or offerings typically available to tourists. The first dimension, *The role and meaning of souvenirs sold to and bought by tourists*, examined the role and meaning of souvenirs bought by tourists. The second dimension, *The experience of tourists with local theatrical performances*, examined the experience of tourists with local theatrical performances. The third dimension, *The use of cultural artifacts by nonlocal people*, examined the use of cultural artifacts by non-local people.

The goal was to verify that cultural appropriation could be defined by those three dimensions. However, after completing the study the variables were arranged in six factors. The grouping in six dimensions reflects the researchers' conclusion that the study participants are concerned with the well-being of local communities, but do not recognize the term cultural appropriation – the participants thus have a partial understanding of the concept of cultural appropriation. It should be noted that if cultural appropriation was a fully understood and accepted concept, there would be only three factors, not six. This is because the Factor 3 variables would be inserted in Factor 5, though with negative loadings, and the Factor 4 variables would be inserted in Factor 1, also with negative loadings. This assumption of negative loadings only occurs for variable 11 – "It is harmless when tourists use traditional objects from a culture in a different context such as to decorate their homes" – which is included in Factor 1 with a negative loading.

This assumption is reinforced by the different results associated with participants who read the priming text (the "priming" group) versus those who did not (the "non-priming" group). The "priming" group, who were asked to read a brief text about cultural appropriation before completing the questionnaire, displayed statistically significantly different attitudes toward two of the six factors examined. They seemed to be more sensitive to the concept of cultural appropriation and to the impact of theatrical performances on the local people and culture. No significant differences between the two groups were found regarding attitudes toward the sale and purchase of souvenirs and the use of outfits by outsiders of the culture. Conceivably, the lack of significant differences in the case of these dimensions could be explained by the fact that the text offered to the "priming" group did not include specific references about local people being affected or offended by the sales of reproductions of local art and objects or the use of local outfits and artifacts by outsiders, as it did in regard to the portrayal of local ceremonies by performers in venues such as hotels, theaters, etc.

Therefore, it is possible that tests specifically dealing with attitudes (1) toward souvenirs that are reproductions of local objects and art and (2) about the use of local outfits by outsiders and how members of the culture feel about that would yield different and statistically significant results between the two groups. The number of references in public discourse to cultural appropriation and negative reactions to how branding does not help preserve local cultures or benefit communities have increased in recent years. These concerns have affected mass media and even entertainment products as young content creators, who tend to be more accepting of this concept, enter the labour market. Nevertheless, from this study, it can be concluded that either consumers do not understand what cultural appropriation means or they do not accept the concept. The lack of understanding may be due to a lack of awareness of the potential negative impact of cultural appropriation on local communities. However, one also needs to consider: is the impact really negative? Further studies will be needed to understand the impact of cultural appropriation on local communities. It is critical to have the local communities' perspective on the use of their culture by other communities. Do they see this behavior as a positive or a negative? Only a few studies have assessed whether cultural appropriation really has a positive or negative impact on local communities. Furthermore, more studies that confront and clarify cultural appropriation versus cultural borrowing are needed.

Nonetheless, it is necessary to develop tools to ensure that the benefits of tourist consumption accrue to local communities. Several strategies have been developed and adopted by national, regional, and local governments to protect cultural elements, including intellectual property laws to protect local and indigenous art, music, rituals, creations, etc. from unauthorized use and commercial exploitation; requirements for the disclosure of information about the origin of souvenirs sold to tourists; seals of authenticity for local art and souvenirs; directives to display information about local artists who create works sold to tourists; consultation with and involvement of local community members in the development and performance of theatrical representations of local rituals and practices; educational materials explaining the meaning of local outfits and artifacts and how locals feel about the use of meaningful cultural elements out of context by outsiders. An example of a symbiotic relationship is that between Florida State University and the Seminole tribe in Florida. The Seminole Tribal Council drafted a resolution expressing their enthusiastic support for the use of the Seminole name, logos, and images by the university.

The action of the council was the outcome of the ongoing cooperation of the State of Florida with the tribe on two levels: (1) the participation of members of the tribe in many of the university's more significant events, and (2) advice and direction from the council to ensure tribal imagery is authentic (Florida State University, 2021). In fact, when the National Collegiate Athletic Association revised its guidelines on Native American nicknames in 2005, the Seminole Tribal Council unanimously approved a resolution supporting the use of the name by the Florida State University (Baker, 2020). It is evident that some social groups, including the media, are increasingly demanding political correctness from marketers. While criticism of cultural appropriation in the context of tourism may not yet have stopped a significant number of people from visiting popular destinations that have unique cultures, such as Mexico and Hawaii, the legal, ethical, and moral implications of cultural appropriation should not be ignored. It is crucial for scholars and practitioners to better understand cultural appropriation and its consequences, in the short and long term, to protect the reputations and thus preserve the attractiveness of destination brands.

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Article history: Received: 03.09.2021 Revised: 06.12.2021 Accepted: 03.01.2022 Available online: 28.01.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.89-95
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40110-806

SOCIAL CULTURE IMPACT AND VALUE CHANGES OF BATIK TOURISM VILLAGE: A CASE STUDY OF PESINDON-INDONESIA BATIK TOURISM VILLAGE

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Citation: Kusumawati, D., Rusdarti, Setyowati, D.L., & Handoyo, E. (2022). SOCIAL CULTURE IMPACT AND VALUE CHANGES OF BATIK TOURISM VILLAGE: A CASE STUDY OF PESINDON-INDONESIA BATIK TOURISM VILLAGE. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 89–95. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40110-806

Abstract: The development of batik tourism villages has an important role in the development of sustainable tourism. On the other hand, it also has an impact on a paradigm shift in socio-cultural impacts and changes in community values. Many studies examine the importance of developing a tourist village, but studies that discuss how the impact of developing a batik tourism village on socio-cultural changes and changes in values have not been widely studied. This study aims to analyze the socio-cultural impact and value changes in the Pesindon batik tourism village after the establishment of Pesindon as a batik tourism village in Pekalongan City. This study uses a qualitative approach involving informants as the main source of information and supporting informants. Data collection used the interview method on 15 respondents from Pesindon-Indonesia batik tourism village. Also, document analysis in the form of archives and other important documents was also carried out. The study results on the determination of Pesindon as a batik tourism village in Pekalongan City had a positive impact on the relationship between batik entrepreneurs and workers and batik entrepreneurs with the community. In addition, the relationship that occurs in the Pesindon batik tourism village leads to professional work to meet the needs of each individual, and batik is increasingly entrenched among the people of Pekalongan and increasingly popular in Indonesia. The establishment of the Pesindon batik tourism village provides positive benefits for the socio-cultural impact and changes in values and provides additional literature on life in society. The study results have implications for relevant stakeholders in the development of tourist villages to support sustainable tourism.

Key words: socio-cultural impact, values changes, batik tourism village

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INTRODUCTION

Pekalongan is known as the city of batik because Pekalongan batik has a distinctive and varied pattern. Pekalongan City was included in the UNESCO creative city network in the category of crafts & folk art in December 2014 and had the city branding of Pekalongan World's city of Batik. This branding shows that batik is a superior product and the pride of Pekalongan, which is one of the cultural heritage of the Indonesian nation. The Pekalongan government pays extra attention to areas that can see the growth and development of batik, which is increasingly promising. One of the efforts that can be seen physically with the emergence of batik shopping tourism is the batik tourism village. Batik tourism village is intended as an alternative to batik promotion and alternative recreation in Pekalongan City.

The international community has recognized batik as an intangible culture of human heritage originating from Indonesia through UNESCO. However, Indonesian batik is not a mass product that has a meaningless pattern. The inclusion of batik into the UNESCO list carries an obligation for Indonesia to protect the batik tradition so that we as Indonesians must be able to interpret and preserve this world's cultural icon and know the aspects of batik tradition that need to be protected (Komariah et al., 2020; Mahfud et al., 2019; Taufiqoh et al., 2018). Pesindon is one of the batik tourism villages, a hamlet area, and its territory is in Kergon Village, Pekalongan City, Central Java, Indonesia. The determination of the pesantren as a batik tourism village in Pekalongan City cannot be separated from the contribution of social capital that influences it. The contribution of social capital can be in the form of stimulation of interpersonal relationships (perception of authority, perception of closeness, and peer references), which are positively related to feelings of moral obligation and social capital, which is used as a conceptual tool to explore various aspects of life (Tulin et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2019; Zissi et al., 2010).

Social capital refers to the resources embedded in social bonds between individuals (Mahfud et al., 2020; Postelnicu and Hermes, 2018). Social capital is trust, networks, and institutions that influence economic behavior (Ali et al., 2015). In

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order to develop a clear and non-negative definition of social capital, it is essential to recognize the “weak ties” (Leyden and Link, 2015), otherwise referred to as the “radius of trust” (Fukuyama, 1997) or “bridging social capital” (Lancee, 2010), across subgroups within society (Wallis et al., 2004). Social capital is used as a tool in creating a batik tourism village (Affandi and Mursitama, 2018). In a study conducted by (Caldwell et al., 2017), the collaboration between the public and the private sector in coordinating the collective mobilization of resources can be used to create high social value. Furthermore, socioeconomic factors influence the formation of social capital (Gómez-Limón et al., 2014). Studies on social capital were conducted by (Hopkins, 2011; Mazumdar et al., 2018), where social capital has been conceptualized as features of social organization such as trust between citizens, reciprocal norms, and group membership that facilitate collective action, while social networks are used and how relationships are developed. Depends on group members' understanding of their collective identity. Social capital and social networks also influence the formation of the Pesindon batik tourism village.

A study on batik tourism villages by (Setyanto et al., 2015) about the importance of batik tourism villages contributing to the strengthening of the people's economic system, which has an impact on strengthening the national economy and, of course, making a significant contribution to the preservation of the nation's culture has obstacles both in terms of capital, marketing, and human resource management. Regarding cultural preservation, a study conducted by (Bahruddin and Nugraha, 2013) on the people of the Jetis batik village in Sidoarjo found findings of the efforts made by the Jetis batik village community to maintain written batik as a product of local culture and economic contribution. In line with the writings of Setyanto and Bahruddin, tourism potential that can be used as a business opportunity for the welfare of its people, one of which is the developing batik industry in Indonesia, in this case, research conducted by (Wahyuni et al., 2017) highlights the Tuban batik. Regional tourism development leads to regional development and contribution to local government revenues by considering the local potential that comes from nature, socio-culture, or economy to contribute to local governments while improving community welfare. The case study (Amijaya et al., 2019) was carried out on people in Klitren Village. The latter is moving towards realizing a cultural tourism village by promoting natural dye batik as one of the mainstays of its tourism products. The cultural tourism village plays a different role as an economic space and is embedded as a local identity. If it is associated with promoting culture and tourism, the aspect of local identity can be a strength and attachment. The community economy plays an essential role in realizing a people's economy that is creative, empowered, and attached to local potential. Studies on batik tourism villages have been carried out. However, studies that focus on the socio-cultural impact and changes in values from setting a village to a batik tourism village still require study.

Establishing a batik tourism village with various contributions does not necessarily mean that there will be no repercussions. The determination of the Pesindon batik tourism village resulted in changes in the social structure. It gave a socio-cultural impact and changes in values to the Pesindon village community because of the different mindsets generated by the community. The role of social norms in changing a person's behavior both from a psychological point of view in mobilizing social change involving support among social groups can have a negative impact on human psychology when accepting various norms that are different from what they have/live (Krupka and Weber, 2009; Nemoto, 1998). The existence of personality differences causes social dilemmas (Caldwell et al., 2017).

The development of Pesindon into a batik tourism village in Pekalongan City indirectly creates pros and cons between individuals and between individuals and groups, which results in socio-cultural impacts and changes in values and causes social change. Socio-cultural changes and changes in values are a symptom of changing social structures and cultural patterns in society. Social change is a common symptom that occurs throughout time in society; these symptoms occur following the nature and nature of humans who always want to make changes (Stoletov, 2016).

Social change refers to changes in social structure and social relations, while cultural change refers to changes in behavior patterns, including technology and dimensions of science, material, and non-material (Hatu, 2011). Social change is part of cultural change (Hjarvard, 2008). Changes in culture cover all parts, including art, science, technology, philosophy, and others, but these changes do not affect the social organization of the people (Adger et al., 2013). The scope of cultural change is broader than social change; however, in practice in the field, the two types of changes are challenging to separate (Cote and Nightingale, 2012). In the current era, every individual is trying to do social mobility, and this is because they believe that by doing social mobility, they will be better and happier so that they tend to be able to do the most suitable type of work, including the conditions that occur in the Pesindon batik tourism village.

Whether they are compatible with the determination of the Pesindon batik tourism village or not. Despite their different social backgrounds, social mobility is high, and they can still feel they have the same rights in achieving a higher social position (Stephens et al., 2014). The results of observations and interviews conducted on 6 - 14 February 2021 with the Pesindon secretariat as the resource person stated that the community felt the socio-cultural impact and changes in values. However, it was not fixed and had different views. Society cannot be seen as an "internality totally integrated entity," but must also be seen in existing segments or interest groups because the impact on one social group is not necessarily the same; it can even be contrary to the impact on other social groups. Likewise, regarding positive and unfavorable assessments, it is tough to generalize to assess societal changes because these positive and negative assessments are already value judgments, while these values are not always the same for all community groups.

That is, the positive and negative impacts need to be questioned, "positive for whom and negative for whom?" (Hermawan, 2016; Pitana, 2009); this is an exciting study to study. The problem that is quite clear is how the socio-cultural impact and changes in values occurred in Pesindon Village after the establishment of Pesindon as a batik tourism village in Pekalongan City. Although the development of batik tourism villages has a socio-cultural impact and changes in values, it still needs clarity and special studies. This study aims to determine the socio-cultural impact and changes in the value of developing a batik tourism village in Pesindon Pekalongan, Indonesia.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Pesindon is a hamlet located in Kergon Village, Pekalongan City, Indonesia. The data sources in this study include informants. They are divided into two groups, key informants (primary sources of information) consisting of 15 informants (see Table 1), which include the Pesindon secretariat, batik workers, batik entrepreneurs, and the people of Kampung Pesindon to get the expected information, especially about socio - cultural impacts and changes in values so that the informants obtained come from trusted informants. In addition to key informants, supporting informants regarding the object of the study are entrepreneurs, workers, and residents of the Pesindon batik tourism village.

Table 1. Background of participants

No	Informant	Amount
1	Pesindon Tourism Village Secretariat	3
2	Batik Workers	3
3	Batik Entrepreneur	3
4	Pesindon Residents	6
	Total	15

The data collected in this study used in-depth interviews and document analysis related to the Pesindon-Indonesia tourist village. Documents or library sources in books or appropriate literature are used as additional material to complete the data. The documents used are photographs, archives, and literature as additional material from documents related to the study. A phenomenological study was also carried out to reveal the phenomenon of the existence of Pesindon village. Data collection through archives consisting of the secretariat's organizational structure, population data, including photos depicting activities related to the problem, was also carried out in the study.

The data analysis technique used is by using procedural steps (Figure 1). For more details, see the following chart:

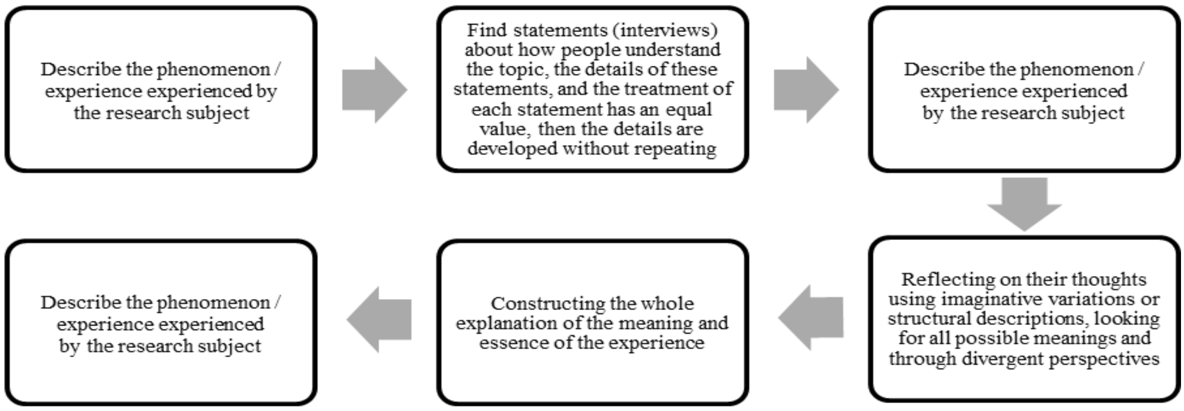

Figure 1. Creswell Model Data Analysis Techniques (2014)

The validity of this study uses the triangulation technique as a data checking technique. The triangulation technique used in this research is theoretical triangulation, where the data are taken is following Bourdieu's theory with social capital construction, concept structure triangulation, and source triangulation (Bourdieu, 1986). The triangulation technique used in this study is an examination technique by utilizing sources, which means comparing and checking back the degree of confidence of the information obtained.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Socio-Cultural Impact

The determination of Pesindon as a batik tourism village in Pekalongan City has resulted in socio-cultural impacts that affect social life. Social impact assessment is defined as “the process of identifying the future consequences of current or proposed actions related to individuals, organizations and macro-social systems” (Becker, 2001; Mahmoudi et al., 2013). Interpersonal relationship stimuli (perceived authority, perceived closeness, and peer references) were positively related to feelings of moral obligation (Xu et al., 2019). Public-private collaboration coordinates the collective mobilization of resources to excel in sector value creation because it creates social value (Caldwell et al., 2017). The determination of the Pesindon batik tourism village has a more precise direction if there is good collaboration to create social values and other impacts.

The determination of Pesindon village in Pekalongan city as a batik tourism village has implications for socio-cultural conditions and changes in values. It indirectly affects social life and the current economy. This includes the board's composition role in the company (Johnson et al., 2013). The role of social capital bonds predicts complex project outcomes, where different types of social capital bonds produce different effects (Moore et al., 2018). Personality differences cause a dilemma in which the resulting differences in views encourage a person to think ahead and develop to initiate to realize the formation of a tourist village with the support of adequate environmental potential (Harris, 1995). Social cohesion is positively related to mental health outcomes and happiness (Cramm et al., 2013). Asserts that various types of freedom, including the freedom of social interaction based on trust, have considerable intrinsic value (Sen, 1999). Determining Pesindon as a batik tourism village in Pekalongan City has a binding positive impact where the relationship that occurs provides a symbiotic mutualism in the context of work professionalism and cultural diversity that is useful for each individual and society. For more details, it can be seen in the social impact chart of the determination of the Pesindon batik tourism village (Figure 2). The communication that occurs is getting better between each other so that groups or communities are getting closer and helping each other.

The socio-cultural impact and changes in values that are realized through increased harmonization after the establishment of Pesindon as a batik tourism village in Pekalongan between workers and batik entrepreneurs can be seen in the following quotes: “The relationship is now getting better. Welfare is also better since Pesindon became a batik village” (interview with study results). Another interview excerpt states the following: “As an employee, I have a good relationship with employers, are often assisted and get closer. Usually, employers ask for my help to prepare tools, arrange things if there are activities or events” if overtime work is often given extra money and also given food (interview study results).

It is not only workers engaged in production who feel the changing relationship between batik entrepreneurs and batik workers, but workers in the service sector with consumers, commonly referred to as boutique or showroom guards, also feel the social relationship between workers and batik entrepreneurs is getting better. Social change has had a significant influence on the shape of the tourism market (Fratu, 2011; Martin and Mason, 1987). The excerpt from an interview with one of the showroom guards said: “I feel happy working here. The relationship with the owner is good. I worked here after Pesindon was inaugurated as a batik tourism village. Until now, I have often communicated with entrepreneurs. The important thing is to maintain the confidence of entrepreneurs” (study interview).

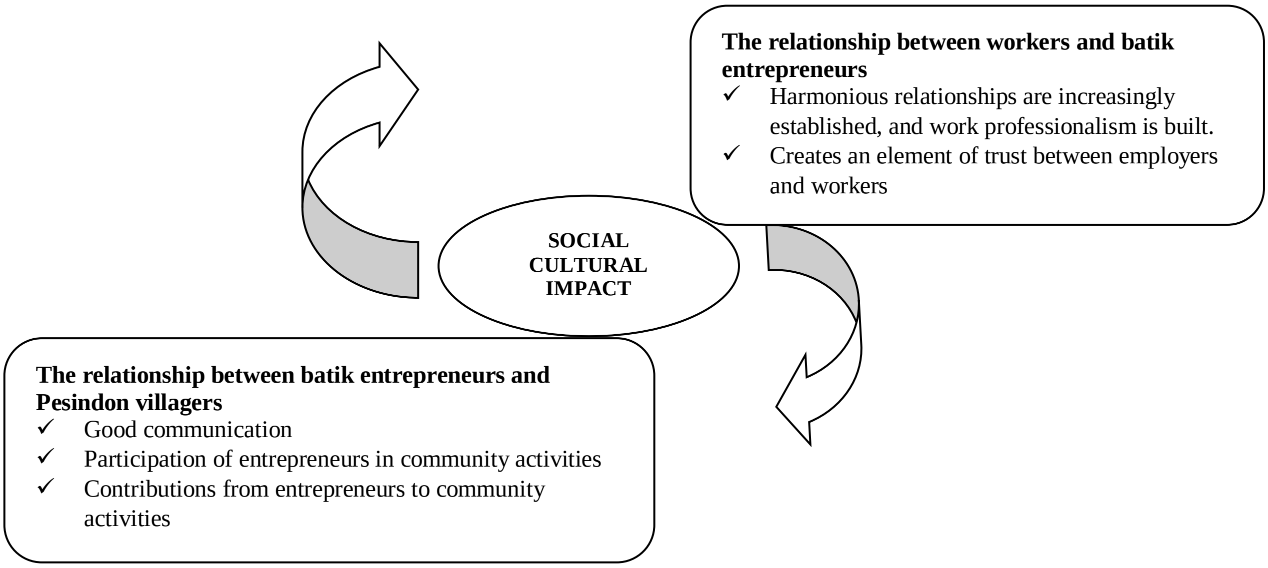

Figure 2. Results of the Study on the Social Impact of Designating a Tourism Village for Batik Pesindon

In the batik tourism village, the social impact caused is familial and the impact of a mutually beneficial professional relationship between workers and batik entrepreneurs. The establishment of Pesindon as a batik tourism village in Pekalongan City has positively impacted the relationship between batik entrepreneurs and workers. A better relationship between workers and batik entrepreneurs is increasingly being created. A pattern of relationships between entrepreneurs and batik workers indicates a symbiotic relationship of mutualism where workers make a living by working as batik workers. In contrast, entrepreneurs need services from workers to produce a batik or market it. As is the case in functionalism theory, society is seen as an organized network of cooperating groups that work relatively according to a set of rules and values shared by most of society. Society is seen as a stable system with a tendency towards balance, namely maintaining a harmonious and balanced work system. Patterns arise because they are functionally sound. Behavioral patterns arise to meet needs and disappear when needs change (Horton and Chester, 1999); Van den Berghe emphasizes this in Robert Lauer's writings rewritten by (Hatu, 2011; Nasith, 2017), looking at general characteristics from a functional perspective. Structural changes to society must be analyzed as a whole in a system consisting of interrelated parts. While the relationship of cause and effect is "plural and reciprocal." The social system is always in a state of "dynamic equilibrium," adjustment to the forces that impinge on the system creates minimal changes.

The relationship between batik entrepreneurs and the village community in the Pesindon batik tourism village is also well established. From the study results conducted through interviews with several native residents of the Pesindon batik tourism village, batik workers, and several business people in the Pesindon batik tourism village, it turned out that the statements from the three parties were the same in their narratives. For example, during an interview conducted with one of the resource persons as a resident in Kampung Pesindon, he stated that the relationship between him and the people who live in the Pesindon batik tourism village and the businessmen living in Pesindon Village is perfect. Here is his narrative: "I have good relations with batik entrepreneurs. The villagers are also evenly distributed, no one has problems with batik entrepreneurs in the village" (study interview). Statements from other sources also support this. Here is what he said:

"The batik entrepreneurs, apart from coming from outside the village, are also partly from within the Pesindon village itself; their relationship is good with the community. Although some of them are busy outside, they still participate in activities in the village" (interview with the study results). This is also in line with other sources. Where the quote of his narrative is as follows: "Batik entrepreneurs or batik workers are the same; they have a good relationship, there are no problems with the residents" (interview with the study results). The excellent relationship between the entrepreneurs and the residents of Pesindon village can also be seen from the contribution given by the entrepreneurs to the Pesindon residents; the entrepreneurs do not hesitate to give batik to the Pesindon residents who come. Here are quotes from residents:

"You can say it is excellent. Entrepreneurs often share sustenance. The other thing is that these entrepreneurs are very friendly, and sometimes even when I visit, they are given batik, both in the form of stamped batik and written batik" but during a pandemic like this, we also have to know ourselves and use health protocols (interview study results).

Another thing that happened when several activities were held in the Pesindon batik village, almost every batik entrepreneur made a meaningful contribution to enliven the activity (if it was not a pandemic) as an example of community activities in cooperation. Although these entrepreneurs cannot always participate in cooperation, they provide some "snacks" or even money to participate as members of the village community. Another example is in the absence of a pandemic when at the commemoration of Indonesia's Independence Day batik entrepreneurs besides participating in competitions, it turns out that the batik entrepreneurs also gave the most significant donations in the event. This is following the statement of one of the secretariat administrators as well as Pesindon batik workers, namely: "If not during a pandemic like this, entrepreneurs usually take part in village activities, like a few years ago, when there were seventeen activities, each entrepreneur gave various gifts. Some are in the form of money, bicycles, cloth or batik clothes". (Study interview). This is reinforced by the testimony of another informant, a resident of Pesindon Village. Here is the statement:

"At normal times and there are no coronavirus or pandemic, batik entrepreneurs usually participate in village activities. Even ordinary batik entrepreneurs are the main donors during village activities. Like yesterday, during the Independence Day commemoration, there was a "pucang competition" on the river, which has become our culture, and the prize is up to five million. The participants are residents as well as batik workers as well. Sometimes some give an additional one million, five hundred thousand and some even give TV prizes directly" (interview with the study results). Besides participating in the activities held in Pesindon Village, it turns out that several activities were initiated by batik entrepreneurs in the Pesindon batik tourism village. Based on the results of interviews that have been carried out, it is found that the determination of Pesindon as a batik tourism village has a socio-cultural impact and changes in values on the relationship between Pesindon batik entrepreneurs and Pesindon residents. The relationship is getting better. In addition to participating in activities at Pesindon, batik entrepreneurs also contributed to these events. The social interaction that occurs is getting higher and more positive; even batik entrepreneurs are the most prominent donors and the initiators of various events in Pesindon Village.

Social Values Changes

Before establishing Pesindon as a batik tourism village, there was no organizational structure or secretariat, so the direction, purpose, and work patterns did not have a good target and orientation. The establishment of Pesindon as a batik tourism village provides renewal so that the organizational structure of Pesindon is also formed by outlining the main tasks of the functions of each existing field, of course, by having its vision. This mission changes the value of the existence of the Pesindon village. The change in social structure can be proven by forming a systematic organization in the Pesindon batik tourism village. The formed organizational structure results in social interaction, which causes frequent intensity in communicating, both among workers and workers, workers with employers, and entrepreneurs with the community. Individually humans differ concerning the presence of demographic, physiological, and psychological variables, including age, gender, social status, health, intelligence, temperament, and life circumstances. These differences are due to varying degrees of genetic causation, inherited wealth or social position, and individual experiences and achievements (Latané, 1996).

Changes in the value of the Pesindon village can also be seen from the tourism sector, which has a significant impact on generating community welfare; this is in line with the view (Urtasun and Gutiérrez, 2006) where, (1) the scale of tourism, measured in terms of per capita, (2) the distribution of tourism that does not evenly distribute throughout the region, namely, the tendency of agglomeration, and (3) the level of development of the host community in economic activities other than tourism. Through this, it becomes clear that the increase and expansion of the tourism market, as well as the creation of more prominent and more tourist destinations, or the growth of the tourism industry as a whole which is expected to progress in the coming decades like never before, will have a significant effect on the economy, cultural identity, as well as the physical environment (Risteskia et al., 2012). Tourism destinations are increasingly competitive and complex businesses and involve coordination between economic, social, and geographical factors (Buhalis and Amaranggana, 2014; Carlsen, 1999). Understanding the social impact of tourism on society is very important for the government so that actions can be taken to reduce the possibility of community reactions to tourists and tourism development (Deery et al., 2012). The fewer residents are affiliated with tourism work, the less affluent they are, and the less peripheral they feel, the more they are affected by the social consequences of tourism development (Chaperon and Bramwell, 2013; Mansfeld, 1992). The study (Pizam, 1978) stated that most of the impacts of tourism studies were limited to an analysis of the economics and benefits that occurred in the area, but in this study, apart from economic factors, socio-cultural changes and changes in values could not be underestimated as the impact of establishing Pesindon as a Batik tourism village. In the city of Pekalongan. The existence of the batik tourism village has also changed, where when we start entering the Pesindon batik tourism village, we will easily find the location of a place or person we are looking for. Almost everyone who lives in Pesidon Village knows one another, even they are very familiar. For the residents of Pesindon, the establishment of Pesindon as a batik tourism village is a form of reality from their dream so far.

Horton's functional theory is seen in relationships between entrepreneurs and batik workers in the Pesindon batik tourism village. The existence of socio-cultural impacts and changes in values resulting from the determination of Pesindon as a batik tourism village that impacts the relationship between batik entrepreneurs and batik workers is not disputed by one of the batik entrepreneurs in the Pesindon batik tourism village. Here is his narrative: "I like the workers. They are people with high fighting spirits. Every day I always work with enthusiasm and also full of jokes, when I visit. Sometimes they joke together, and I think they are part of the family. The progress and decline of the batik business cannot be separated from the role of the batik itself. Especially when Pesindon is set to become a batik tourism village, the need for production is higher so that they work more enthusiastically and sometimes even have to work overtime. When guests arrive, they are served well. If the batik is advanced, the orders are large, and the impact will be on them too" (interview with the study results).

The Pesindon community, after its stipulation as a batik tourism village step by step, led to a social change and a change in values. The relationships that occur in it lead to professional work to meet the needs of each individual, as stated by Piotr Sztompka in Tonnies on the theory of societal change (Tonnies, 1887). The theory of societal change by Ferdinand Tonnies is a theory of social change that includes changes in Gemeinschaft and Gesellschaft. Gemeinschaft is a values-oriented, aspirational, role-playing situation and sometimes an original habit that dominates social forces. So for him, indirectly, Gemeinschaft arises from within the individual, and there is a desire to have a relationship or relationship based on similarities in desire and action. Individuals, in this case, are defined as the glue and support of social forces connected to their friends and relatives (family), with which they build emotional relationships and interactions of one individual with other individuals. Status is considered to be based on birth and limitations of mobilization and the individual's known unity of place in society. While Gesellschaft (which is defined as a society or modern society-the term Piotr Sztompka). After previously Weber asserted that he saw that societal change is seen in the tendency towards rationalization of social life and social organization in all areas such as instrumental considerations, emphasis on efficiency, distance from tradition and emotion, impersonality, bureaucratic management (Tonnies, 1887). The points in Gesellschaft can be seen in the pattern of relationships that occur between batik entrepreneurs and batik workers. The rationality of social life, instrumental considerations, emphasis on efficiency, distance from tradition, impersonality, and bureaucratic management have begun to enter the joints of life. This is another impact of the determination of Pesindon as a batik tourism village in Pekalongan City.

CONCLUSION

The socio-cultural impact and changes in values on Pesindon Village, Pekalongan City after the stipulation of Pesindon Village as a batik tourism village can be seen from the increasingly friendly and harmonious community of Pesindon Village residents. The intensity of direct interaction between entrepreneurs and batik workers and the increasingly visible changes in society in the form of Gesellschaft can be seen in the pattern of relationships between batik entrepreneurs and batik workers and batik entrepreneurs and community members. A new culture that is brought up with activities carried out with batik nuances takes place continuously; because of this, it indirectly becomes a culture and power that eventually takes root in culture and is carried out continuously. Changes in social values and structures include changes in the types of institutions in Pesindon, namely the birth of a secretariat for the Pesindon batik tourism village. The determination of Pesindon as a batik tourism village impacts changing status and roles in society.

Acknowledgement

This paper is part of a dissertation project, so we would like to thank the Universitas Negeri Semarang Postgraduate Program for approving the selection of this dissertation topic. Also, I would like to thank the Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education of the Republic of Indonesia for supporting the funding of this research.

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Article history: Received: 23.07.2021 Revised: 22.12.2021 Accepted: 04.01.2022 Available online: 28.01.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.96-103
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40111-807

AN EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THAINESS EXPERIENCE-CENTRIC SERVICE CONSTRUCTION FOR BOUTIQUE HOTEL GUESTS

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Citation: Suksutdhi, T., & Boonyanmethaporn, W. (2022). AN EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THAINESS EXPERIENCE-CENTRIC SERVICE CONSTRUCTION FOR BOUTIQUE HOTEL GUESTS. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 96–103. https:// doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40111-807

Abstract: The COVID-19 outbreak has inevitably impacted the global hotel industry, which will result in a shift from traditional services to personalized and specialized services to reduce the confrontation. This study was to examine the characteristics of Thainess experience-centric service (TECS), based on the perspective of boutique hotel guests during the COVID-19 pandemic, to develop and test scales for measuring TECS, a new component of boutique hotel services in Thailand. The quantitative method was administered. Multi-stage sampling was approached, and questionnaires were used to collect data from 112 self-identified boutique hotel guests via an online survey by Google form to examine the TECS attributes. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used to refine the final instrument. The development process results in a reliable and valid TECS feature scale under the perspective of boutique hotel guests. It consists of 28 measurement scales that combine the services of a Thainess experience service, Thai atmosphere value, and Thai hospitality. To investigate attributes of Thainess experience-centric service (TECS) referring to the perspectives of boutique hotel guests to develop and test a scale for measuring the TECS, a new component of boutique hotel services. The quantitative approach was employed by using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). A study of 112 self-identified boutique hotel guests with a multi-stage sampling approach via an online survey by Google form during the COVID-19 pandemic. The TECS attributes under the perspectives of boutique hotel guests consisting of a 28-item measurement scale incorporating Thainess experience service, Thainess atmosphere value, and Thai hospitality. Boutique hotel guests also demonstrated their preferences towards hotel services as well as the basic demographic profiles and characteristics, which are useful for implementing hotel strategy enhancing guests' satisfaction and exceed their expectations prior to the COVID-19 pandemic. The authors would recommend applying the TECS to refocus its practices to creates the guest experience in the hotel business. This research contributes towards value creation by using the strategy of cultural value in creating high-quality standards and it can create a positive experience and guest's satisfaction. Hence, the cultural value of each society can be considered for creating the guest experience.

Key words: thainess, experience-centric service, Boutique Hotel, Hotel Guests, COVID-19 pandemic

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) has used the concept of "Thainess" as a marketing tool to promote tourism and has created the Thainess experience since 2015. A campaign has been defined to attract tourists to experience Thai nature, learn the essence of Thai roots through various campaigns such as Discover Thainess or Amazing Thai Tay (Amazing Thai chic). To create value-added, it has used the strategy of Thainess's perceived value instead of selling goods and services from the previous practice, as well as to emphasize positive communication, high quality, and standards of products and services. In addition, the extension of values awareness, awakening, and encouraging the pride of Thainess among Thai people while the Thai way of life of the country is maintained (Nirattrakul, 2015). The Thai represents the service-minded character that has been unparalleled in the world. It is existing in the Thai people since they were born, which foreigners have perceived under the name of Thailand, "Land of Smile" (TAT, 2015). It has described as a world-class and personalized service, consequently, resulting in positive experience and satisfaction (Kasivivat, 2018). In addition, Thai considers as a non-touch society that begins with a Wai; the folding of both hands together with the head bowing and no handshake, which has become old-fashioned during the COVID-19 pandemic and helps to reduce service encounters with many employees and confrontations with other guests to prevent the disease epidemic (Kongpolphrom, 2018).

The COVID-19 pandemic has severely hurt the hotel industry, however there is hope the pandemic will end soon following mass vaccination programs. Hence, the hotel industry will more greatly reset with declining traditional ways of service systems (Toubes et al., 2021). A slow-growth recovery after the COVID-19 pandemic can help hotel businesses survive which is looking to continue its boom with caused intense competition after the pandemic (Sassen and Kourtit, 2021). The use of different strengths as a strategy to create guest's experience, value-added, and having higher standards for hotel products and services will be considered the business opportunity (Chan et al., 2021).

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Thainess service allows guests to have a good attitude, perceived the true meaning, and creating a better balance between interpretations and imagination (Kasivivat, 2018). However, using the strengths and values of Thainess service as a tool to create experiences requires a holistic approach (Brozović et al., 2020). Hence, effective management of Thainess service can be an important tool in the competitiveness of the global hospitality industry (Fakfare et al., 2019; Sucher et al., 2013). Thainess can be created a different guest experience that has a positive effect on mental and emotional values (Nirattrakul, 2015). Especially boutique hotel that has a unique story of its own, the brand's concept, the history of the place, or the owner's passion for something through the architecture and interior, the property, and the service model which attracts guests with its own unique selling point and services (Day, 2013).

Thus, the implementation of the uniqueness of Thainess to the boutique hotel’s service can be considered as an interesting strategy post-COVID-19 pandemic. In addition, guest behavior will be changed significantly. The pressure of the pandemic will have infiltrated every aspect of the guest experience. For instance, expert guests will have a different relationship with where they spend a week and the way to choose to relieve stress, the family guest will have new priorities, and the individual guest will have altered relationships with the luxury. This will be making short-term expectations and changes in travel behavior, practices, and priorities permanently altered over the long term as well as health and safety are a public and personal responsibility concerned. Hence, boutique hotel organizational practices will also have to be changed, the guests engage in a completely different conversation, and it is imperative that hotel management learn to deepen their understanding of the ever-challenging situation (Chan et al., 2021; Sassen and Kourtit, 2021). The experience-centric service concept focuses on the customers’ experience and value creation. The experience will be designed directly in a believable way following the organization's desire to deliver a specific customer experience. It should be able to reach the customer's feelings and thoughts deeper and create a memorable and impressive experience in various forms (Lemon and Verhoef, 2016). Furthermore, encourage customers to interact, participate, and being a part of activities or services (Clark and Myers, 2018). Thainess experience-centric service has used the distinction and cultural differences as variables in determining guest journey and service touchpoints. To encourage the guest to interact and feel engaged with the Thainess service context, able to access the emotional, physical, mental, feelings, and memory of the guests deeply (Khan et al., 2015). As a result, it creates the guests’ distinct experience, satisfaction, and revisiting (Fakfare et al., 2019; Sucher et al., 2013).

There are studies (e.g.: Gołąb-Andrzejak and Gębarowski, 2018; Kozak and Acar, 2015; Zhong et al., 2017) in various dimensions to create impressive experiences in the hotel business which can be grouped as 1) the designing experience research in various issues, mostly focused on policy, process, and innovation experience that hotel services consist of many touchpoints, where experiences should be examined, and each of moments of contact with the brand should be incorporated into an integrated process of hotel guest experience management (Gołąb-Andrzejak and Gębarowski, 2018); 2) the service experience research related to Thai culture mostly focused on the results, processes, methods, and effects of guests’ behavior which the hotel had implemented Thai culture in the service areas and was able to deliver guest satisfaction (Sukkha and Peinroj, 2015); and 3) the service design elements research mostly related to staff participation, the management of guests, and the close engagement of back of house employees and front of house activities which represented promising new frontiers in experience design (Beltagui and Candi, 2017), the hotel should focus on the whole service experience through the created value (Kozak and Acar, 2015). However, guest experience research related to the hotel business has been explored (Sukkha and Peinroj, 2015); yet its lack of Thainess experience-centric service study which unclear and limited forms in guest’s experience, especially in the boutique hotel business in Thailand.

Thus, this study was aimed to investigate the attributes of Thainess experience-centric service referring to the perspectives of boutique hotel guests during the COVID-19 pandemic. Given the scarcity of research on experience-centric service in Thai boutique hotels based on Thainess, filling significant research gaps to measure services that emphasize the Thai experience with an in-depth understanding of boutique hotel guest perceptions. It provides a tool to identify the guest’s preference in the experience-centric services and to evaluate the boutique hotels' performance in providing the Thainess service provision. In addition, the measurement scale developed in this study serves as the foundation for future research, which may help to stimulate further empirical research on the relationship analysis of Thainess experience-centric service and hotel guests’ experience towards their satisfaction. It also gives boutique hotel practitioners information about the profiles, characteristics, and preferences of the substantial number of guests who would consider staying in Thai boutique hotels providing Thainess services. Moreover, boutique hotel management has a new tool to use in assessing the experience-centric service of the hotel with more insights into what aspects of the hotel they should focus on to influence guest satisfaction and behavioral intention.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Thainess is a Thai culture that can be seen everywhere in Thailand (TAT, 2015). It is a symbol of Thai identity in relating to the culture of the country that can recognize immediately and has a positive effect on mental values and feelings (Kasivivat, 2018). It is complex, multi-dimensional, moving, and always changing in both traditional and contemporary styles. Thainess has been also interpreted and given various meanings in different contexts, including a way of life, beliefs, and relationships, both directly and indirectly, and has been modifying to the current living (Nirattrakul, 2015). There should be able to convey to understand the meaning of Thainess of Thailand which results in a worthwhile and impressive experience (Department of Cultural Promotion, Ministry of Culture, 2016). In addition, it is a predictor of a warmth memorable experience to meet the guests’ needs, expectations, and make guests’ satisfaction which can be considered as a measure of service success (Khadka and Maharjan, 2017). Many scholars (e.g.: Kasivivat, 2018; Sukkha and Peinroj, 2015;

Supploy, 2018) have defined Thainess in many aspects which may be difficult to understand and has unclear meanings. However, Thainess in the hospitality perspective in Thailand, most of which are explained in cultural dimensions, uniqueness, and identity of the Thai national (Fakfare et al., 2019; Nirattrakul, 2015). Thainess has also been perceived as a Thai cultural value, which is a utility derived from the exchange in the form of acquisition value and transaction value towards the elements and quality of Thainess service. It is caused by analytical thinking from concepts, beliefs, periods of time, effort, price, and quality of Thainess products and services with the involvement of emotion, society, and cultural factors. As a result, contributing guest's satisfaction and revisit in which guests will assess to various factors from the products and services components based on the Thainess experience service (Khadka and Maharjan, 2017).

Thainess provides a positive experience of the service quality, and affects guest's satisfaction, and revisit intention directly. It has been explained in the hotel context through the physical characteristics and the atmosphere presented by the traditional and contemporary Thai art and architecture, the characteristics of the Thai service that uses personnel is welcoming and serving with Thai etiquette, and methods of producing Thai food using values some Thai wisdom and Thai way of life have been chosen to present the science of Thai cooking based on the type and nature of the place (Fakfare et al., 2019; Nirattrakul, 2015). Moreover, Thainess service in the hotel has also been mentioned include Wai, smile, sincerity, forgiveness, softness, warmth, empathy, humility, morality, courtesy, helpfulness, modesty, respectfulness, kindness, loyalty, friendship, and service-minded attitude (Sucher et al., 2013).

Thainess has been adopted in the hotel operations both tangible and intangible services. Many hotels have applied Thainess to the elements and the uniqueness of their service (Beltagui and Candi, 2017; Supploy, 2018). The Dusit Thani hotel has created a hotel vision based on a uniqueness of Thai culture and traditions to provides outstanding hospitality and meet the guest's needs (Kalanon, 2012). As a result, it has been perceiving as world-renowned today in Thainess service quality. In addition, many international hotel chains in Thailand have used the Thainess decoration concept as a selling point, for instance, the Bangkok Marriott Hotel the Surawongse has adopted contemporary Thai arts and Chang Sip Mu art (Ten Crafts) to decorate the hotel both in the public areas and in the guest rooms, which are able to impress the guest and able to create the Thainess atmosphere reasonably (Supploy, 2018).

The experience economy concept illustrates that presenting the previous concepts of products and services might be inadequate for the current competition, whereas creating an experience for customers from using products and services in various forms will have the most influence (Pine and Gilmore, 1998). The customer experience concept is focusing on providing customers a memorable experience and being able to relive past experiences with the organization. It is emphasizing the results of thoughts, emotions, feelings, and memory to create psychological value that customers can recognize by their own analysis (Kandampully et al., 2018). Furthermore, the customer experience is able to create independently, which occurs both direct and indirect and at different times, planned and unplanned, and able to occur before, during, and after using the service (Gołąb-Andrzejak and Gebarowski, 2018).

Hence, the customer experience begins when customers decide to use the service or communicate with service providers (Lemon and Verhoef, 2016) and can occur anywhere along the service route of the customer journey (Seligman, 2018). Customer experience value arises from the interaction between customers and the organization in every dimension and every moment. It has been created from seeing, hearing, observing, participating, the influence of surrounding service context, and previous experience that creates the customer's memory and emotions (Zhong et al., 2017). However, the customer experience is based on individual interpretation, and the different times and locations. Therefore, there is a limitation of the service providers to consider designing the customer experience carefully and clearly (Seligman, 2018). Many scholars have explained the corresponding customer experience values that resulting from knowledge, derived from the observation, encountering, performing, and brought to the memory which is diverse and different in the natural and social sciences. It is self-learning that has a unique meaning and is related to the senses, feel, think, act, and relation (Lemon and Verhoef, 2016). Customer experience in the hotel context is relevant to thinking, formulating, planning, and developing a unique guest experience model. It affects the idea and creates innovation in value of product and service and encourage guests to understand the purpose of the service provider (Beltagui and Candi, 2017). The hotel guest experience focuses on experience creation that follows the hotel's intention (Zhong et al., 2017). However, creating a guest experience should have an effective management plan, having thorough research carefully, and changing until the experience creation is appropriate. In addition, it requires an understanding of the needs, motivation, and expectations of the guests deeply (Lemon and Verhoef, 2016).

The experience-centric service is an experiential marketing approach developed from the concept of customer experience and customer-centric service. It focuses on the customer's experience and defines as a specific experience that the organization intend to provide for the customer which believes that it will be able to reach the customer feelings and thoughts deeply (Lemon and Verhoef, 2016). The experience-centric service is used to design an impressive experience. It focuses on the intended experience offering to the customers and able to encourage customers to interact, participate, and being a part of the activities or service elements to create an experience in various forms (Beltagui and Candi, 2017). Furthermore, there should be able to communicate and access guests' emotions in all aspects, including physical, emotional, mental, feeling, and memory. Hence, the design of guest's experience-centric service requires a process of assessing and reviewing, which should be able to amend according to the context, situation, and guests' behavior. It is enabling the hotel to design an experience that appropriates the guests' behavior (Clark and Myers, 2018).

Thainess experience-centric service (TECS) is the integration of the experience-centric service and Thainess concept (Beltagui and Candi, 2017; Tourism Authority of Thailand, 2015). TECS focuses on creating cultural value from the Thainess service experience, using the cultural distinction of Thainess as variables in determining guests' journey and service touchpoints (Beltagui and Candi, 2017). To encourage the guests to interact and feel engaged with Thainess service activities. To access the emotional, physical, mental, feelings, and memory of the guests deeply (Lemon and Verhoef, 2016). As a result, creating the guest's positive experience, satisfaction, and impressions of the service (Fakfare et al., 2019). Thainess experience-centric service needs a holistic approach to work integration and clear policy (Brozović et al., 2020). Guests' journeys and service touchpoints need to be determined and work collaboration from various parts; front and back staff, executive management team, and hotel service activities that contribute to the memorable experience. Furthermore, the guest experience value measurement needs to be based on guest satisfaction which results from the positive experience that occurs while guests using the service (Zhong et al., 2017).

The guest's satisfaction is the single factor that comes from products and services evaluation and previous experience which is caused by guest expectations and service quality (Khadka and Maharjan, 2017). The elements of the guest's satisfaction evaluation are consisting of environmental setting, service employees, service delivery process, fellow customers, and back-office support employees. However, creating guest satisfaction through experience-centric service is a creation of a positive feeling, satisfaction, and emotional engagement for the guests (Gołąb-Andrzejak and Gębarowski, 2018; Zhong et al., 2017). Especially Thainess, which gives profound meaning and value, differences and are accepted around the world, able to create the Thainess service experience value and causing the positive guests' memory and guest satisfaction respectively (Fakfare et al., 2019; Sukkha and Peinroj, 2015). In this study, an extensive literature review has been conducted to identify relevant TECS attributes through systematic literature analysis.

The scale of TECS development was finally determined as the literature references from previous studies which based on 1) Thai food (Kalanon, 2012), 2) Thai arts (Supploy, 2018), 3) The Thai way of life (Nirattrakul, 2015), 4) Thai wellness (Sukkha and Peinroj, 2015), 5) Thai festivals (TAT, 2015), 6) Thai wisdom (Department of Cultural Promotion, Ministry of Culture; 2016), 7) Thai's fun (Kasivivat, 2018), and 8) Thai hospitality (Fakfare et al., 2019). Hence, the final determination of TECS attributes from a literature review can be summarized into 5 components as follow 1) Thai hospitality (Fakfare et al., 2019), 2) Thai arts, the physical setting (Supploy, 2018), 3) Thai way of life (Nirattrakul, 2015), 4) Thai food service (Kalanon, 2012), and 5) Thai wellness service (Sukkha and Peinroj, 2015). From those TECS attributes, it has been developed to be the questionnaire for this study which has 31 question items. The questionnaire was asking covering all 5 components according to the literature review, which includes Thai hospitality 15 question items, Thai arts, the physical 5 question items, Thai way of life 4 question items, Thai food service 4 question items, while Thai wellness service consists of 3 question items.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

A pure quantitative research method was conducted with the study of 112 self-identified both Thai and international boutique hotel guests in Bangkok during the COVID-19 pandemic. Based on the scale development procedure (Churchill, 1979), various reliability and validity tests have been carried out to confirm the scale structure, include four steps as follow,

1) initial items development derived from the literature review includes 31 variables that are extracted from both tangible and intangible components. The tangible components consist of Thai hospitality (Fakfare et al., 2019), Thai arts, the physical setting (Supploy, 2018), Thai way of life (Nirattrakul, 2015), Thai food service (Kalanon, 2012), and Thai wellness service (Sukkha and Peinroj, 2015). Likewise, intangible components include Wai, smile, sincerity, forgiveness, softness, warmth, empathy, humility, morality, courtesy, helpfulness, modesty, respectfulness, kindness, loyalty, friendship, and service-minded attitude (Sucher et al., 2013).

2) purifying measure implementation; the developed questionnaires were sent to three experts for content validity checking and the language used to cover and match the specified definition. The questionnaires have been amended according to expert suggestions by evaluating the content validity of each test, using the IOC formula to find the average of the consistency index of all experts. After the evaluation by the experts from the hotel business and academic, the number of measurement items has reduced to 28, with the IOC consistency index was between 0.5-0.7, and the 3 rejected items where index was 0.3 includes assistance from staff, Thai language, and staff interaction.

3) data collection has taken online due to the given COVID-19 pandemic situation, it is imperative to prevent the spread of the disease, therefore, online data collection methods by Google form have been applied. This research has used a multi-stage sampling method of 112 samples; the first step, Bangkok was selected as the data collection area, and the second step was to select boutique hotels in Bangkok by allowing guests to answer online surveys. It is an estimation scale questionnaire with criteria for determining the weight of the assessment into 5 levels according to Likert's scale method. The self-administered questionnaire covers the content and objectives of the study by selecting questions with the objectives of the content from level 0.5 and above only (Cronbach, 1970).

4) exploratory factor analysis has been used to purify and reliability measurement after collecting the data. It has been applied to identify groups of variables and to reduce a data set to a more manageable size. Since the items used in this study were derived from previous literature that has been conducted in Thai hotels. However, exploratory factor analysis was used in this study to purify and reliability in the contexts of Thai boutique hotels and during the COVID-19 pandemic situation (Kongpolphrom, 2018; Day, 2013). After exploratory factor analysis, there were none of the items deleted. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin showed the Thainess experience-centric service factor was at 0.944 which indicated the measurement items developed were reliable and valid. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity estimated by using the chi-square distribution was at 3773.997, the significant value was equal to 0.000, and the Cronbach's alpha of the total scale was 0.982. And then, analysing the confidence to get Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978).

The data was analyzed by employing descriptive statistics to describe personal profile of the respondents include gender, age, nationality, level of education, occupation, marital status, and average monthly income. Behavior of hotel guest include objective for traveling, number of nights stay at the hotel, average expenses per stay, number of stays at the hotel within a year, who are you traveling with, the reason for choosing to stay at the hotel with Thainess service, source of information about the hotel? the area you choose to stay, modes of transport to hotel, and period of stay at the hotel. Exploratory factor analysis was performed to refine the final instrument and is used to group the variables that are related to the same group. The components were extracted by analyzing the main components and rotate the axis in an orthogonal way by using Varimax with the Kaiser Normalization method. The appropriate factor loading is up from 0.5. Figure 1 below shows the process of research methodology.

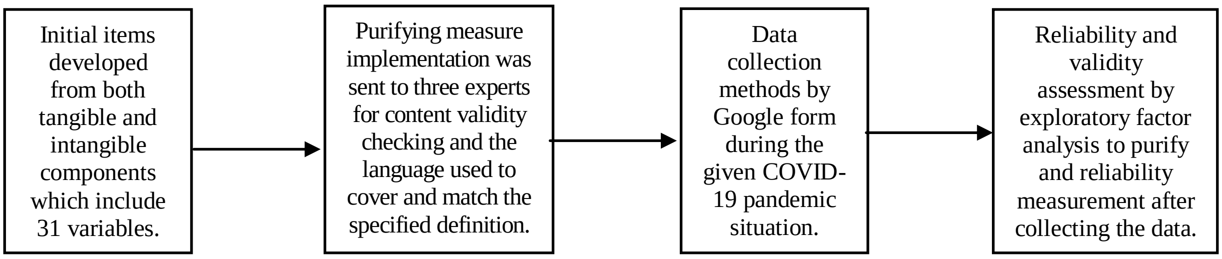

Figure 1. Flow Chart of Research Methodology

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The demographic profiles of all 112 respondents revealed that most of them were 67 males accounted for 59.80% and 45 females accounted for 40.20%. A great number of the sample were Generation Y (21 - 38 years old) amount of 62 people accounted for 55.40%. Mostly were Thai nationals' amount of 39 people accounted for 34.80%, 56 people who graduated with a bachelor's degree accounted for 50.00%, and they were the private company employees amount of 41 people accounted for 36.60%. A large group of respondents were the single status amount of 87 people accounted for 77.70 %, and the monthly income level was more than 1407 USD amount of 58 people accounted for 51.80%. The behavior of hotel guests illustrated leisure/traveling purpose amount of 88 people (78.60%).

The number of nights stay at the hotel was around 2-4 nights amount of 80 people (71.40%). About 29 people had expenses per stay that were more than 167 USD (25.90%). The number of stays at the hotel within a year was 1 - 2 times, amount of 54 people (48.20%). And about 49 people travelled with friends (43.80%). In addition, they chose to stay at the hotel with the Thainess location and locality reason amount of 47 people accounted for 42.00%. They searched the hotel information from the hotel booking application amount of 32 people (28.50%). Phuket province was famous area amount of 33 people (29.50%) and 44 people used private cars for traveling (39.30%). Lastly, the sample group mostly stayed at the hotel during vacation, amount of 34 people accounted for 30.4%.

After determining the content of 31 Thainess experience-centric service question items. The number of measurement items has reduced to 28, with the IOC consistency index was between 0.5-0.7, the 3 rejected items where index was 0.3 includes assistance from staff, Thai language, and staff interaction. The analysis results of reliability and validity of the questionnaire of Thainess experience-centric service from a sample of boutique hotel guests revealed that Cronbach's alpha analysis results of all items were greater than 0.70, which were Thai hospitality was between 0.980-0.982, Thai Arts, the physical setting was between 0.980-0.981, and the Thai way of life, Thai food service, and Thai wellness service were equally to 0.981. Thus, the questionnaire was considered reliable and could be used to analyze the data. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is two statistical calculations test. The research results obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin of 0.944, which is greater than 0.5 and close to 1, indicating that all data and variables were highly correlated and could be used for factor analysis of the research objectives. Likewise, the Bartlett's test should be statistically significant (Sig. < 0.05) and the Sig. value of 0.000, which is less than 0.05 indicates that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix (Vanichbuncha, 2019). Hence, all 28 variables are related enough for factor analysis as shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.944
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3773.997
	df	378
	Sig.	0.000

Table 2. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's Test

Total Variance Explained									
Component	Initial Eigen Values			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	18.829	67.246	67.246	18.829	67.246	67.246	8.097	28.919	28.919
2	1.455	5.197	72.443	1.455	5.197	72.443	7.763	27.725	56.644
3	1.145	4.089	76.532	1.145	4.089	76.532	5.569	19.888	76.532

Table 2 below shows the determination of initial communality from the Maximum Likelihood method assumes that initial is a value that indicates whether a variable is good to compare to other variables. Extraction communality of a variable after extraction of the factors found that the value extraction communality of the TECS1 variable was the lowest = 0.597, but it was still not very low and could be clearly classified as one of the components. To find the variance (Total Variance Explained) from the analysis, three components can be identified with the eigenvalue range of 1.145-18.829 and the cumulative variance of 76.532 percent. Component 1 describes the total variation 67.246%, Component 2 describes the total variation 5.197%, and Component 3 describes the total variation 4.089%.

From Table 3, the researcher chose the maximum likelihood axis rotation method using the varimax method. It found that the factor loading value changed compared to the factor loading value before the rotation of the axis. From the varimax axis rotation equal to the correlation coefficient between the variable and the rotating component, it found that the variables with a large factor loading of each component as follows, component 1 consists of 12 variables: Thai aroma, Thai herbs personal care, Thai herbs products, Thai food knowledge, Thai food identity, taste of Thai food, Thai food decoration, Thai style uniform, eye contact, smile, greet with Wai, and gentle service. All 12 variables have an eigenvalue of 18.829 and a component weight between 0.489-0.803. It has an explanatory variance of 67.246 percent, named “Thainess Experience Service”. Component 2 consists of 12 variables: warm service, attentiveness, respectfulness, thanks, politeness, Thainess facilities, Thai art, Thai identity decoration, the charm of Thai style atmosphere, invitation to return to the service, local products and services providing, and Thainess decoration in the guest room. All 12 variables have an eigenvalue of 1.455 and component weights between 0.577-0.793. It has an explanatory variance of 5.197% named “Thainess Atmosphere Value”. And component 3 consists of 4 variables: sincere service, enthusiasm of the service, friendliness, and humble service. All 4 variables have an eigenvalue of 1.145, with a component weight ranging from 0.714-0.851, with an explanatory variance of 4.089 percent, named “Thai Hospitality”.

Table 3. Rotated Factor Matrix Value

Variables	Factor		
	1	2	3
26. The hotel area has the scent of Thai aroma.	0.803		
27. The hotel offers personal care products made from Thai herbs.	0.797		
28. You have used personal products made from Thai herbs in hotel.	0.766		
25. You have gained knowledge of Thai food.	0.760		
22. Thai food service clearly indicates Thai identity.	0.744		
24. Thai food in the hotel tastes delicious to your palate.	0.723		
23. Thai food decoration reflects Thai identity.	0.644		
21. Staff uniform represents Thai style.	0.642		
3. Staff always make eye contact during the service.	0.659		
2. You always received service with a smile.	0.540		
1. Staff greeted you with Wai.	0.498		
4. You feel a gentle service.	0.489		
12. You always feel warm when you use the hotel service.		0.793	
10. You received the service attentiveness.		0.774	
11. You perceived respect in service.		0.767	
13. You always received thanks after using the service.		0.725	
9. Staff service you politely.		0.695	
15. The hotel facilities are built on the concept of Thainess.		0.694	
19. You can experience various forms of Thai art in hotel.		0.656	
18. The hotel's restaurant decoration reflects Thai identity.		0.653	
16. You can feel the charm of Thai style from surrounding area.		0.648	
14. You are invited to use the service again.		0.602	
20. The hotel uses local products for service purposes.		0.587	
17. The guest rooms are decorated with Thai uniqueness.		0.577	
5. You perceive the sincere service.			0.851
8. You see the enthusiasm of the service.			0.795
6. Staff provide you a friendly service.			0.746
7. You feel the humble service.			0.714

Table 4. Components Group Assignment

Component’s name	Number of Variables
Component 1 Thainess Experience Service	12
Component 2 Thainess Atmosphere Value	12
Component 3 Thai Hospitality	4
Total	28

The author obtained the results of arranging variables into components and naming elements which can be organized into 3 components and divided variables as shown in Table 4. The varimax axis rotation found 3 components which has an eigenvalue between 1.145 -18.829 and has an explanatory variance of 76.532%.

It means the components found can account for 76.532%. This may be because the author has reviewed the literature of the Thainess experience-centric service clearly which consists of (1) Thainess experience service (TES) consists of 12 variables; Thai aroma, Thai herbs personal care, Thai herbs products, Thai food knowledge, Thai food identity, taste of Thai food, Thai food decoration, Thai style uniform, eye contact, smile, greet with Wai, and gentle service.

It can be used as variables to determine the guests’ journey and service touchpoints and can encourage guests to interact and feel engaged with service activities and the surrounding. It can access the emotional, physical, mental, feelings, and memory of the guests deeply (Gołąb-Andrzejak and Gebarowski, 2018; Kandampully et al., 2018). As a result, creating the guests’ positive experience, satisfaction, and impressions. Thus, TES can be used as a service concept for the hotels to encourage guests to participate in the hotel services and facilities. Moreover, considering the guest journey and service touchpoints by using TES is creating their memorable experience and resulting in the returning for service; (2) Thainess atmosphere value (TAV) consists of 12 variables; warm service, attentiveness, respectfulness, thanks, politeness, Thainess facilities, Thai art, Thai identity decoration, Thai atmosphere, invitation to return to the service, local products, and services, and Thainess decoration in the guest room. It can create value, satisfaction, and emotional engagement. Especially, Thainess gives profound meaning, positive experience, value, differences and are accepted around the world (Fakfare et al., 2019; Suppoy, 2018). Hence, TAV can be determined as the service guideline to create the value of Thainess and causing positive experience and customer satisfaction respectively. However, to create value perception and their impressive service experience among guests all variables are important to consider.

The Thai boutique hotel is necessary to adapt to the service standard and hotel facilities; (3) Thai Hospitality (TH) consists of 4 variables: sincere service, enthusiasm of the service, friendliness, and humble service. It can create warmth and guests' satisfaction, meet the guests' needs and a memorable experience, as well as providing services that exceed their expectations can be considered as a measure of service success (Fakfare et al., 2019; Sucher et al., 2013). Thus, TH is considered important for providing services in Thai hotels, which are considered valuable cultural heritage resources without having to pay for purchases and are still inherent in Thai employees since were born with none to imitate. Most importantly, TH can also cause a feeling of warmth and comfort to the guests.

CONCLUSION

The development process results in a reliable and valid scale of Thainess Experience-centric service attributes under the perspectives of boutique hotel guests consisting of a 28-item measurement scales incorporating three dimensions: Thainess Experience Service, Thainess Atmosphere Value, and Thai Hospitality. Boutique hotel guests also demonstrated a preference towards hotel services as well as the basic demographic profiles and characteristics, which are useful for implementing hotel strategy enhancing guests' satisfaction and exceed their expectation prior to COVID-19 pandemic. Especially, the Thai single young male (Generation Y), who graduated with a bachelor's degree, and as a private company employee with a monthly income of more than 1407 USD. The purpose for travelling was leisure and stayed at the hotel for around 2-4 nights at the expense of more than 167 USD. Within a year, they came back to the hotel 1 - 2 times with friends and preferred the hotel location in the Thainess local area. In addition, they used the hotel booking application and like to go to Phuket with private car during their vacation. Hence, this group of guests who preferred to experience Thainess service and perceived Thainess value is considered as an interesting target group for Thai boutique hotels.

The originality of this research is highlighted in several points. The concept of Thainess as a marketing tool is used to create Thainess experience; it is considered as a personalized service that reflects the prevention of the disease epidemic with confrontation avoidance effectively (Kongpolphrom, 2018). Thainess as non-touch society variable in determining hotel guests' journey and service touchpoints in the hotel to encourage guests to interact and engaging with Thainess service activities surrounding, as a result, it can create a positive experience and guest's satisfaction (Fakfare et al., 2019; Kasivivat, 2018; Sucher et al., 2013). To create the Thainess experience service (TES) and encourage guests to interact and feel engaged with service activities. The hotel should initially identify the guests' journey and service touchpoints clearly. The component of service variables of TES and the application properly should be considered. For instance, all staff should wear Thai style uniform weather style or fabric, greet the guest with Wai, make eye contact, smile, and provide gentle service. Thai ascent aroma, Thai-style decoration, and offer personal care products made from Thai herbs in public areas and guest room should be provided. Staff should offer a tale of Thai food while serving, Thai food presentation and taste should represent the Thai identity explicitly. These can help to access the emotional, physical, mental, feelings, and memory of the guests while using the service deeply. In addition, the hotel should apply the TES to be the service model, this is able to enhance the guest satisfaction and their memorable experience.

To create the Thainess atmosphere value (TAV) and increase high-quality values and standard of hotel products and services. The hotel should focus on TAV variables as the service guideline. For instance, staff should provide warm service, politeness, attentiveness, respect for all guests without discrimination, and provide thanks after the guest has completed the service. Hotel facilities should be decorated in the form of Thai arts and represent Thai identity clearly. Invitation to return to the service should be always offered. In addition, local products and services should be decorated in the guest room. These are causing positive guest memory and satisfaction. However, the hotel is necessary to train TAV for the hotel service standard. This is to remind staff giving importance to the Thainess service value. Moreover, the hotel will be having an efficient service tool to create Thainess atmosphere value.

Finally, to create warmth and satisfaction, meet the guests' needs, and create a memorable experience. The hotel should encourage Thai hospitality (TH) to be the service standard. For instance, encourage staff to provide service sincerity, enthusiasm of service, friendliness, and humble service. TH should be always evaluated; however, the hotel may need to plan for selecting the potential staff with the Thainess service-minded and positive attitude.

In summary, Thainess experience-centric service (TECS) is considered one different strategy model for creating an impressive and memorable service experience. It can access the emotional, physical, mental, feelings, and memory of the guests deeply, especially for boutique hotels that need to create their own identity. TECS is also considered a personalized service which is important during the COVID-19 pandemic that can help to reduce the service encounter and the guest's confrontation while using the service. In addition, increasing the value perception and gives importance to individual guests. Moreover, this research contributes towards value creation by using the strategy of cultural value. Hence, the cultural value of each society can be considered for creating the guest experience and high-quality standards, and it can create a positive experience and guest satisfaction.

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Article history: Received: 12.08.2021 Revised: 06.12.2021 Accepted: 06.01.2022 Available online: 31.01.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.104-110
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40112-808

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, POLITICAL SKILL, ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE: A CASE FROM TOURISM COMPANY IN INDONESIA

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Citation: Idris, I., Suyuti, A., Supriyanto, A.S., & As, N. (2022). TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, POLITICAL SKILL, ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE: A CASE FROM TOURISM COMPANY IN INDONESIA. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 104–110 https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40112-808

Abstract: Tourism industry has occupied a strategic position in the country's economic growth. The factors that trigger the high performance of companies engaged in this industry are very crucial. The purpose of this study is to test the correlation of transformational leadership (TL), political skill (PS), organizational culture (OC), and employee performance (EP), and to investigate the role of OC as a mediation variable. The samples consisted of 110 respondents from Tourism Company in Indonesia. The sample was determined by Slovin formula. The data were collected through questionnaire instruments. The current study employed quantitative method. To test the hypotheses, PLS (Partial Least Square) was applied in analyzing the data. This study found that TL and OC, PS and OC and EP were positive and significance. The mediation test also justified that OC could mediate TL on EP and PS on EP. However, it is also indicated that TL did not affect EP. This study has the important implications for managers such as encouraging high EP in the tourism sector by strengthening OC (such as adaptive, collaborative, flexible, and team oriented), by enhancing the PS (such as understanding others, having high social skill, and increasing an ability to influence others). These findings confirmed and contrasted to the previous studies conducted.

Key words: employee performance, organizational culture, transformational leadership, political skill, tourism company

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism as one of the strategic sectors in Indonesia has experienced an increase over the last few years (Idris et al., 2021a; Idris et al., 2021b; Purnomo et al., 2021; Purnomo et al., 2020; Wahyuningtyas et at., 2019; Wahyuningtyas et at., 2020). From 2018 to 2019, international tourist visitors increased by 296.649 and domestic tourists roused by 9 million. Thus, improving the quality of human resources (HR) also needs to be improved. The Ministry of tourism noted that there were already 107,591 out of 3,900,000 employees who had been certified as professional employees in the tourism sector (Kemenpar, 2019). Therefore, the quality of employees has a big role in organizational success (Nurlina et al., 2020). Although the number of employees who have been certified is not more than 3%, the tourism sector in Indonesia is proven to be able to continue to improve its performance. Since 2019, the tourism sector has succeeded in contributing to the country's fourth largest foreign exchange earnings after oil and gas, coal, and palm oil, amounting to IDR. 280 trillion (Kemenpar, 2019). This achievement is an interesting phenomenon because although the number of uncertified human resources is less than those who are certified, the tourism sector still has a good performance (Rhama, 2020). Productivity, in today's organizations, through improving EP has interested the focus of many scholars in human resource management and organizational behavior (Osland et al., 2015; Ngwenya and Aigbavboa, 2017; Colquitt et al., 2005). Organizational performance highly bases on the performance of its members. In other words, EP will make a positive contribution to improving organizational performance (Gibson et al., 2012). The term of EP refers to individual's work performance after exerting required effort on the job (Pradhan and Jena, 2017), which is beneficial to the organization such as assisting the organization in achieving its objectives effectively and efficiently (Woods, 2012; Sundaray et al., 2011) and as a resource in gaining competitive advantage and maintaining organizational viability in the long term (Wright and Snell, 2009). EP can also be used as an evaluation material for managers in making various human resource decisions such as promotion, transfer, training and development (Robbins and Judge, 2017). Therefore, it is important for the organization to be aware about what factors can encourage high EP. TL consisted of inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration has a pivotal role in encouraging employees to improve performance (Ng, 2017; Buil et al., 2019). TL is a leadership style that has a deep impact on its members in viewing work as

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something of value (Bass and Bass, 2008). Employees who are inspired by TL tend to have positive social behavior and do a better job (Lai et al., 2020). TL positively and strongly influences EP beyond other leadership types such as transactional leadership (Birasnav, 2014). This is inseparable from the role of TL that is able to encourage members to think creatively-innovatively and solve work problems with new perspectives than traditional ways (Bass and Riggio, 2006).

In addition to inspiring leadership, the ability of leader to understand his members, and influence his members also plays an important role. Ferris et al. (2005) indicated this ability as a leader's PS. Leaders who have good PS tend to have strong interpersonal influence, high emotional and social intelligence and good adaptability even in unfavorable conditions (Idris et al., 2020). PS is a very valuable resource, even for someone with a dark personality to use them to drive performance improvements (Templer, 2018). Munyon et al. (2013) elaborated that PS predict positively and significantly the task performance of employees. Leaders with influencing skills and tactical skills have a strong correlation with high EP (Mahajan and Templer, 2021). EP and high work involvement are strongly related to the leader's PS characteristics such as networking ability, social astuteness, apparent sincerity, and interpersonal influence (Kim et al., 2019).

Although previous studies have investigated the role of TL and leader's PS as predictors of EP, most of these studies were carried out in the education sector and government organizations (Idris and Adi, 2019; Munyon et al., 2013) and some in the hotel sector (Kim et al., 2019). Previous research has also not explored the OC role as a mediator of TL and leader's PS on EP in tourism sector organizations. However, previous research has proven that high EP is formed due to a strong OC such as a culture of acceptance, diversity and adaptation (Maamari and Saheb, 2018) and archetypes (Ababneh, 2020). OC is built by leaders and disseminates it (Marsick and Watkins, 2003), which ultimately has an impact on EP (Xenikou and Simosi, 2006). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of TL, PS and EP and to investigate OC role in mediating TL and leader's PS on EP in the context of tourism sector organization in Indonesia.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Employee Performance

Performance is a crucial aspect for an organization. Organizations must improve employee performance to be able to achieve organizational goals. Performance is the output achieved from a person's efforts based on certain abilities conditions (Idris et al., 2020; Diana et al., 2021). Performance is a combination of effort, ability, and perception of the task. Employee performance (EP) is the quality and quantity of work achieved by an employee in carrying out in accordance with the responsibilities given (Kim and Chang, 2019). EP refers to a work result reached by an employee in carrying out the duties addressed to him based on the standards set by the organization (Mensah, 2015). Koopmans et al. (2013) stated that EP is a multidimensional concept that does not only refer to work results but also relates to behavior patterns and all actions of employees in accordance with organizational goals. To achieve organizational goals, leaders need to take care to the factors that affect EP in the workplace and therefore increase productivity (Ng, 2017). A dimensional approach was used in analyzing EP which involves contextual performance, duty performance, adaptive performance, and counter productive work behavior (Koopmans, 2014). First, contextual performance correlate to individual behavior that indirectly supports the psychological, social, and organizational environment while still carrying out their main tasks. Second, duty performance can be categorized as the expertise or competence possessed by a person in carrying out his main task. Third, adaptive performance is how well individuals adapt or adapt to new conditions or unexpected situations. Finally, counter productive work behavior refers to individual behavior that is negative and detrimental to organizational development (Koopmans et al., 2011).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leaders inspire their subordinates and are able to alternate the attitudes, beliefs, and personal goals of each partisan to achieve goals, and transcend the personal interests of their subordinates (Bass and Bass, 2008). TL is defined as a leader focusing on reaching better changes in the attitudes, beliefs, values, behavior, emotions, and subordinates needs in the future (Bass and Riggio, 2006). It involves four core dimensions such as inspirational motivation, idealized influence, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation (Avolio and Bass, 2002). Inspirational motivation involves changing and convincing subordinates' views of the importance of organizational goals. Idealized influence correlates to the leader's charisma as a person who is admired and trusted by his members. Individualized consideration refers to the understanding and attention of leader to each subordinate's potential and abilities. Intellectual stimulation refers to encouraging its members to be rational and solve problems with new approaches rather than traditional methods (Burn, 1978). The relation of leader and each followers in the context of TL is more than an commodities exchange (economic exchange of rewards) (Avolio and Bass, 2002), but has addressed the awareness, emotional and trust aspects that ultimately have an impact on EP (Caillier, 2014). Previous studies have shown that TL is a strong predictor of EP (Ng, 2017; Buil et al., 2019). This type of leadership not only has an impact on EP at the individual level but also at the team, group and organizational level (Braun et al., 2013; Searle and Barbuto, 2013). TL with its characteristics also plays a pivotal role in the OC transformation (Avolio and Bass, 2002). OC such as adaptive, collaborative and team-oriented are convincingly influenced by TL (Pradhan et al., 2017; Khan et al., 2020).

H1: TL positively and significantly affect EP.
H2: TL positively and significantly affect OC.

Leader's Political Skill

Every organization is actually a political arena, so that political expertise is inherent and a must for a person (Mintzberg, 1983). The term "PS" was first used by Pfeffer (1981) which refers to an ability of manager to maximize resources and resolve conflicts within the organization. Ferris et al. (2005) mentioned PS as "understanding others and using that on influencing them to conduct in ways which expand personal or organizational objectives". PS is developed into four main components or characteristics. First, social astuteness refers to a high level of sensitivity to social reality. Second, interpersonal influence involves a strong influence in the environment and can use it according to the circumstances needed. Third, networking ability refers to the skills to build and maintain a relationship with someone. Fourth, apparent sincerity refers to how high a person's integrity level, trust and sincerity (Ferris et al., 2005). Ferris et al. (2007) was characterized PS as an inclusive social skill that includes behavioral, cognitive, and affective skills that have direct implications for outcomes. Individuals who have high social skills tend to show good performance (Chelagat et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2019). Otherwise, individuals who have low PS tend to perceive their environment as threatening, thus potentially hindering their job success (García-chas et al., 2019). In addition to its important implications for EP, PS have a strong correlation with OC transformation. OC that continues to experience parallel changes with adaptability which is a characteristic of PSs (Bentley et al., 2015). PS characteristics are important social capital for leaders to create the desired values (Li et al., 2017). Marsick and Watkins (2003) supported the idea that OC is built by leaders and those with strong influence.

H3. PS positively and significantly affect EP.

H4. PS positively and significantly affect OC.

Organizational Culture

Pettigrew (1979) as the first person to write down the notion of OC, defined culture as an openly and collectively accepted system of meaning that applies to certain groups and at certain times. Culture in an organization is very possible in shaping the behavior of its members because this is a process of sharing values which then becomes a guide in behaving (Schein, 2010). Robbins and Judge (2017) categorized OC on seven main characteristics that distinguish it from other organizations such as risk-taking and innovation, attention to detail, outcome, people, and team orientation, stability, and aggressiveness. A healthy OC will lead to better organizational development (Robbins and Judge, 2017) because all aspects of the organization can be affected by culture, especially the behavior and perspective of employees about their work (Cameron and Quinn, 2011). A positive and longstanding OC directs its members to carry out positive work activities and becomes one of the drivers to improve the quality of work (Diana et al., 2021). The cultural aspect has been widely recognized as an important factor for organizations because it can drive EP (Maamari and Saheb, 2018). OC is critical predictor enhancing EP (Paais and Pattiruhu, 2020), because it drives employee to learn collectively and how to successfully cope with the problem (Hogan and Coote, 2014). Furthermore, we argue that OC can be a mediator between TL and EP and between leader's PS and EP. Previous research has explained that PS characteristics are important social capital for leaders to create the desired values (Li et al., 2017). Transformational leadership with its characteristics parallels OC such as adaptive, collaborative and team-oriented culture (Pradhan et al., 2017). Marsick and Watkins (2003) stated that leaders or people who have a strong influence are able to build their OC, which ultimately has an impact on the quality of EP (Hogan and Coote, 2014).

H5. OC positively and significantly affect EP.

H6. OC can mediate between TL and EP.

H7. OC can mediate between leader's PS and EP.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study was classified as explanatory research. The sample consisted of employees who work in public company (PD. Jasa Yasa—which covers natural and historical places) in Malang, East Java, Indonesia. The number of 125 samples was calculated by using the Slovin's formula (Sugiyono, 2017; Sekaran and Bougie, 2016).

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + \mathrm{Ne}^2} \quad n = \frac{182}{1 + (182 \times 0.05^2)} \quad n = \frac{182}{1 + (182 \times 0.0025)} \quad n = \frac{182}{1.455} \quad n = 125.08$$

Information: n = number of samples; N = Total population; E = margin of error

The 110 responses were obtained after deleting 15 responses for incomplete responses reason. This number already meets the minimum sample size requirements in PLS (Hair et al., 2017) which is aimed to examine the proposed hypotheses. This study also used a 5-point Likert scale that included strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). TL is assessed by four indicators (TL characteristics--inspirational motivation, idealized influence, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation) which were adapted from MLQ (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire)(Podsakoff et al., 1990). Meanwhile, to measure PS, the PSI (Political Skill Inventory) was used that consisted of its PS characteristics (interpersonal influence, networking ability, social astuteness, and apparent sincerity) (Ferris and Treadway et al., 2005). In addition, OC was assessed by four items adopted from the questionnaire developed by Cameron and Quinn (2011). Finally, EP was measured based on two indicators consisting of contextual performance and task performance adapted from IWPQ (individual work performance questionnaire) (Koopmans et al., 2013). Regarding the demographic distribution of respondents, it is shown in Table 1.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Measurement Model

The model was determined by measurement model which was evaluated by convergent validity (CV) and discriminant validity (DV) as well as construct reliability. The value of CV can be seen by loading factor and AVE (Average Variance Extracted). CV in this study, as presented in table 2, has exceeded the minimum loading factor limit of 0.6 (Chin, 1998) and is also greater than the required AVE value of 0.5 (Ghozali, 2014). Therefore, all constructs in the study can be said to be convergently valid. Furthermore, to evaluate DV, the cross-loading value was used. The indicator is declared valid if the value of loading factor in the same corresponding variable is more than the value of indicator in other variables (Ghozali, 2014). Table 3 shows that overall, the indicators of each variable produce a loading factor more than the cross-correlation value in other variables. Thus, it indicates that all constructs have fulfilled the DV requirements. The last step to measure model is to evaluate the construct reliability. This is to assess whether the constructs used are consistent in measuring the latent variables (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). Composite reliability values should be more than 0.7 and Cronbach Alpha (CA) exceed 0.6.

Table 4 shows that all the variables used in this study have composite reliability values that are in the 0.835-0.855 and CA is in 0.614-0.789. Thus, it can be concluded that each indicator can be indicated to be consistent in measuring its latent variables.

Table 1. The distribution of respondent demographic

Characteristics	Categories	Frequencies	Percentages
Gender	Male	60	55
	Female	50	45
Age	≤30-39	30	27
	40 - 49	50	46
	50 - ≥60	30	27
Education	Senior High School	5	4
	Bachelor's degree	90	82
	Master's degree	15	14
Length of work	1-5 (years)	14	13
	6-10 (years)	25	23
	11-15 (years)	41	37
	>15 (years)	30	27

Table 3. Discriminant validity (cross loading)

Indicators	TL	OC	EP	PS
X1.1	**0.747**	0.538	0.148	0.443
X1.2	**0.694**	0.532	0.184	0.208
X1.3	**0.811**	0.631	0.465	0.416
X1.4	**0.833**	0.563	0.199	0.356
X2.1	0.459	**0.615**	0.249	0.242
X2.2	0.590	**0.786**	0.258	0.202
X2.3	0.519	**0.768**	0.141	0.348
X2.4	0.500	**0.786**	0.563	0.47
X2.5	0.657	**0.768**	0.312	0.387
Y1	0.353	0.288	**0.790**	0.449
Y2	0.267	0.486	**0.900**	0.518
Z1	0.380	0.464	0.410	**0.748**
Z2	0.320	0.325	0.524	**0.668**
Z3	0.389	0.365	0.491	**0.907**
Z4	0.385	0.314	0.281	**0.712**

Table 4. The result of construct reliability

Variables	Composite Reliability	Cronbach Alpha	Conclusion
TL	0.855	0.784	Reliable
PS	0.835	0.756	Reliable
OC	0.850	0.789	Reliable
EP	0.847	0.614	Reliable

Table 2. Convergent validity (loading factor)

Variables	Indicators	Loading Factors	Cut off	AVE	Inf.
TL (X1)	X1.1	0.747	0.6	0.598	Valid
	X1.2	0.694	0.6		Valid
	X1.3	0.811	0.6		Valid
	X1.4	0.833	0.6		Valid
OC (X2)	X2.1	0.615	0.6	0.533	Valid
	X2.2	0.786	0.6		Valid
	X2.3	0.680	0.6		Valid
	X2.4	0.786	0.6		Valid
	X2.5	0.768	0.6		Valid
PS (Z)	Z.1	0.748	0.6	0.717	Valid
	Z.2	0.668	0.6		Valid
	Z.3	0.907	0.6		Valid
	Z.4	0.712	0.6		Valid
EP (Y)	Y.1	0.790	0.6	0.584	Valid
	Y.2	0.900	0.6		Valid

Table 5. The results of GOF model

Variables	R^2
EP	0.532
OC	0.357
$Q^2 = 1 - (1 - R1^2) \times (1 - R2^2)$ $Q^2 = 1 - (0.468) \times (0.643)$ $Q^2 = 1 - 0.300$ $Q^2 = 0.700$	

Table 6. Hypothesis testing of structural model in partial least squares

Hypo-theses	Relation-ship	Path Coefficient (β)	Std. Error	T-Statistic	P-Value	Decision
1	X1 → Y	-0.101	0.133	0.846	0.398	Rejected
2	X1 → Z	0.272	0.125	2.163	0.031	Accepted
3	X2 → Y	0.332	0.110	2.975	0.003	Accepted
4	X2 → Z	0.299	0.117	2.435	0.015	Accepted
5	Z → Y	0.461	0.085	5.490	0.000	Accepted
6	X1→Z→Y	0.126	0.065	1.964	0.050	Accepted
7	X2→Z→Y	0.137	0.058	2.306	0.022	Accepted

Structural Model

Structural model serves to assess how well the proposed model. It can be evaluated by goodness of fit (GOF) model by assessing a Q-square predictive relevance or Q^2 (Ghozali, 2014). The results can be seen in Table 5. Table 5 shows that the value of $R^2$of EP is 0.532 or 53.2%. This indicates that EP can be elaborated by TL and PS by 53.2%. Furthermore, 46.8% is other variables that are not part of this study. The value of R^2 of OC is 0.357 or 35.7%. This explains that OC can be affected by TL and PS by 35.7%. Meanwhile, the remaining 64.3% is other variables contribution outside this research. Furthermore, Q^2 is 0.700 or 70%. This means that EP can be affected by the model by 70%. In other word, TL variables, political expertise and OC can contribute to EP by 70%. While the remaining of 30% is other variables contribution which is not concerned on this study.

Hypotheses Testing

The next step is the assessment of the causal relationship developed in the structural model (hypothesis testing), the relationship among TL, PSs, OC, and EP. The bootstrapping method using 500 sub samples (Hair et al., 2017) was applied to analyze the causality among variables. The assessment of the hypothesis test used the t-statistic value, which it would be significant if t-statistic value is more than t-table (1.96). Figure 1 and table 6 show that except for hypothesis 1, all proposed hypotheses are accepted.

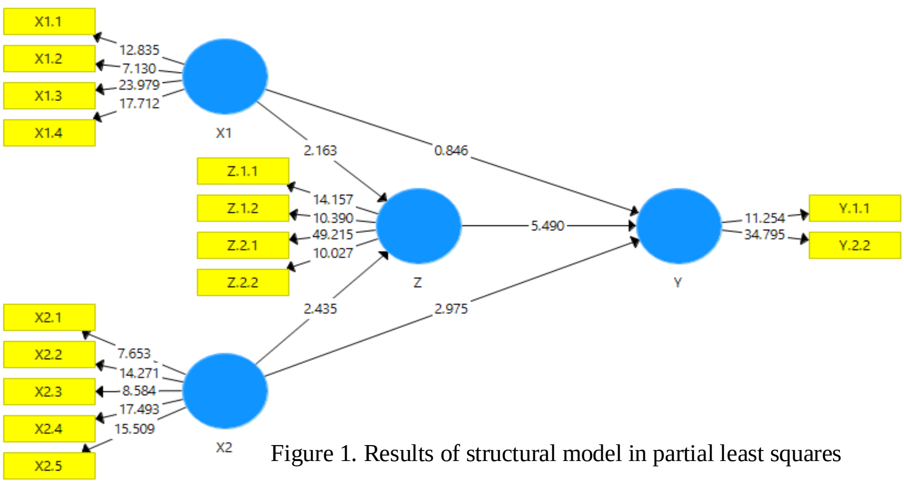

Figure 1. Results of structural model in partial least squares

Beyond the expectation, TL does not affect EP positively and significantly (0.846 >1.96). Thus, H1 is rejected. However, TL and OC showed a positive and significant correlation by 2.163 > 1.96. Therefore, H2 is accepted. In addition, PS affect EP (2,975 > 1.96) and OC (2.435 > 1.96) positively and significantly. Thus, H3 and H4 are also accepted. Furthermore, OC has a positive and significant influence on EP with 5,490 > 1.96. Therefore, H5 is accepted. OC also mediates the effect of TL on EP (1.964 > 1.96) and PSs on EP (2.306 > 1.96). Therefore, H6 and H7 are accepted.

Regarding the assessment of TL on EP through OC (indirect effect), it can be classified as perfect mediation because the relationship between TL and EP is only significant when it involves mediating variables. Meanwhile, the role of OC as a mediator between PSs and EP is categorized as complementary or partial mediation, considering that those relationships (positive and significant direct or indirect effect) are in the same direction (Hair et al., 2017).

DISCUSSION

This study is designed to investigate OC role in mediating the influence of TL and PS on EP, which is not explored deeply by previous studies, especially in the context of tourism destinations in Indonesia. Based on the research findings, leader's PSs show a strong relationship with EP. This finding at the same time expands the results of Chelagat et al. (2021) as well as Munyon et al. (2013) that the leader's PS are convincingly able to contribute greatly in improving EP. As mentioned earlier, PS correlates to an ability in understanding others and influencing them to achieve certain goals such as improving performance (Ferris et al., 2005). Social skills as one of the main characteristics in influencing others, have a significant role to improve employees in their work quality (Kim et al., 2019). The high performance of employees is closely related to the leadership's expertise in influencing their subordinates through affective, cognitive and behavioral abilities (Ferris et al., 2007). This study also found that EP is also influenced by OC. This is supported the findings of Maamari and Saheb (2018) and Paais and Pattiruhu (2020) which were stated that OC is a predictor that plays an important role in encouraging EP. This theme is also supported Idris (2019) that OC has a strong correlation with EP. Culture in the organization has a function as a guide for employees to behave and carry out their responsibilities (Schein, 2010). Hogan and Coote (2014) stated that OC such as flexibility, cooperation, responsibility and risk-taking can help employees make decisions in various conditions and solve work problems, which in turn can improve their performance.

Not as expected, surprisingly, TL directly shows a negative coefficient value and has no effect on EP. This indicates that in the context of tourist destinations in Indonesia, TL does not have an impact on high EP. This results supported Eliyana et al. (2019) and Rachman et al. (2020) which revealed that TL does not play a significant role in motivating employees to encourage performance of employees. This finding is a unique considering that several previous studies reveal different findings that TL can influence the behavior of members to go beyond their personal interests for organizational goals (Bass and Bass, 2008), which is manifested through extra role behavior and increased performance (Lai et al., 2020; Buil et al., 2019). Zhu et al. (2013) also indicated similar findings that leaders who often motivate and inspire their employees and are good role models tend to be highly trusted, which is why they are willing to do a good job. Although TL has no significant effect on EP, TL has been shown to have a strong influence on building OC. Pradhan et al. (2017) stated that OC such as adaptive, collaborative and team-oriented is closely related to the role of TL. This is supported by Khan et al. (2020) that TL plays a vital role in building OC. In building OC, the leader's PSs also act as a strong predictor. Li et al. (2017) stated that PS with its characteristics is important social capital for leaders to influence others and create the desired values. Further important findings reveal that OC plays a role as a mediator for TL and EP. This mediating role can be categorized as a perfect mediation (Hair et al., 2017). This indicates that TL can improve EP by strengthening OC. Previous relevant study has revealed that TL plays a significant role in stimulating OC such as cooperation and adaptation to uncertain conditions (Lasrado and Kassem, 2021), which ultimately provides a higher level of performance (Maamari and Saheb, 2018). Finally, as hypothesized, OC also mediates the influence of leader's PSs on EP. This is acceptable considering that culture is built by leaders based on what they believe in and the influence they have (Bass and Avolio, 2007). The ability to influence others as a feature of PSs has a strong relationship to OC (Bentley et al., 2015), which leads to encouraging EP (Hogan and Coote, 2014). The present study contributes to enriching the literature and have important implications for managers. One of the most crucial implications is that to encourage high EP in the tourism sector, leaders must strengthen OC, such as adaptive, collaborative, flexible, and team oriented. In addition, OC has a strong correlation with EP (Hogan and Coote, 2014; Lasrado and Kassem, 2021). OC can mediate the relationship of leader's PSs and EP. These findings also contribute to filling the void in the literature, especially in the context of tourism industry sector, which previously had not been explored deeply. This study also advises managers on the importance of influencing other people and building OC, considering that OC can stimulate high EP.

CONCLUSION

Surprisingly, TL does not affect EP positively and significantly. This indicates that the role of TL, in the context of service organizations in the field of tourism, does not have a contribution in improving EP. As we expect, the leader's PSs play an important role in influencing EP. Furthermore, both TL and leader's PSs are convincingly able to encourage OC. In addition, OC is proven to be able to predict EP. Another important finding also confirms that OC perfectly mediates the relationship between TL and EP and acts as a complementary mediator between leader's PS and EP. The limitations of this study consist of; firstly, the samples are limited to tourism sector organization located in the Malang area. Thus, generalizations may only be made to organization that have similar characteristics. Secondly, this study only focuses on analyzing the correlation among TL, PS, OC, and their effect on EP. Therefore, further research is expected to add other variables that play a strong role in improving EP, such as transactional leadership which is not part of this study.

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Article history: Received: 22.08.2021 Revised: 06.12.2021 Accepted: 06.01.2022 Available online: 31.01.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.111-119
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40113-809

PROTECTION OF THE GEOLOGICAL HERITAGE OF THE AKTOBE OBLAST AND ITS USE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF GEOTOURISM

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Citation: Sergeyeva, A.M., Abdullina, A.G., Akhmet, G.Zh., Koshim, A.G., Saparov, K.T., & Yeginbayeva, A.Y. (2022). PROTECTION OF THE GEOLOGICAL HERITAGE OF THE AKTOBE OBLAST AND ITS USE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF GEOTOURISM. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 111–119. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40113-809

Abstract: The purpose of the article is to study the geological objects of the Aktobe oblast and their use for the development of geotourism in the region. The analysis of published materials and field research data shows that the geological objects of the Aktobe oblast have all the properties and have much possibility to actively develop geotourism which depends on the level of local management and investments. The GAM method was used to assess geological objects. This method presents various estimates of main values (MV) and additional values (AV), which are very useful to preserve and develop the territory. As a result, the method provided different estimates in the development of geotourism.

Key words: geo-heritage, geological and geomorphological objects, Aktobe oblast, geotourism, protection of geological objects

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INTRODUCTION

Due to the spread of COVID-19 all over the world and the closure of the borders of many countries for the entry of tourists, the interest in domestic tourism has increased, particularly, in territories with objects of geological and geomorphological value, i.e. in the active development of geotourism. Geotourism presents a type of innovative tourism that has been developing rapidly in recent years not only throughout the world, but in Kazakhstan too which enters the international tourism market as a potential region for the development of this type of activity and is recognized as an exciting and new direction of tourism on geological and geomorphological items of interest (Ghazi et al., 2013; Wendt, 2020). According to geotourism is defined as a form of nature tourism that gives special attention to the landscape and geology, to the preservation of cultural heritage and traditions, to the study of history, geography, to the popularity of the unique nature of the territory, to the investment promotion. Ólafsdóttir et al. (2018) and Štrba et al. (2020) defined geotourism as the understanding of the Earth sciences through the recognition and teaching of not only geological but also geomorphological features of the terrain and processes that are considered a resource for geotourism. Many scientists are of the opinion that geotourism can be understood as a new branch of applied geology focused on the geological environment and geomorphology which supports the development of alternative forms of tourism at the global level (Manyuk, 2016). Therefore the role of geo-protection increases which, thuswise, gets equal importance along with the protection of wildlife. This goal is also set forth in the definition of geotourism proposed by GaŁka (2019). Geological monuments are often called natural museums. They are of great scientific, cognitive and educational value. They also provide an opportunity to investigate the formation conditions of rocks making up

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the territory. In this case the rock exposures are monuments of geological history. And the more such objects are, the more in-depth study can be given to the geological history, as in essence every bedrock exposure is exclusive and contains unique information about the long history of the earth's development and consequently it carries data of great scientific value. Each new geological manifestation is a specific discovery that changes modern ideas and to a significant degree expands the boundaries of our knowledge, including the vision into the depths of millions of years (Bruno et al., 2014; Gill, 2017).

Earlier the objects of geological heritage were classified into 21 type, as follows - stratigraphic, paleontological, sedimentation (sedimentary, sedimentological), igneous (including volcanic), metamorphic, mineralogical, ore-petrographic, geochemical, seismic, structural-geological, paleogeographic, cosmogenic, geothermal, geocryological, geomorphological, hydrological-hydrogeological, engineering-geological, radiogeological, neotectonic, pedological (soil; including paleosoils) and historical-mining-geological (Kiernan, 2015). But most of the unique objects refer to a complex type, which includes two or more of the mentioned types as components. Although the combination of components of a complex type may vary, it is closely dependent on the local features of the geological environment and the conditions of its exposure on the surface, it seems essential to trace some of its patterns. It can be done through the analysis of fundamental scientific information about the main geological phenomena and the conditions of their localization (Mikhailenko et al., 2021; Williams et al., 2020). The importance of geo-diversity is represented by several important values:

- scientific value;
- cultural value is associated with geomorphology - explanation of geological and geomorphological features with the use of supernatural forces and beings, historical and archaeological aspects of geo-diversity (the importance of geo-diversity for ancient settlements or fortress systems, spiritual and religious aspects (Kubalíková, 2013);
- aesthetic value refers to the visual (and non-visual) appeal provided by geo-diversity, including the psychological impact on a person (Santangelo and Valente, 2020);
- economic and functional value is represented by the use of mineral resources, such as fuels, building materials; the use of landforms and the use of geo-diversity, respectively, geo-inheritance, geotouristic and geoeducational activities (Gray, 2004);
- scientific and educational value - is associated with understanding the origin of life and topographic forms, the evolution of the landscape and climate and paleogeographic reconstruction of structures (Reynard, 2005).

According to Panizza and Piacente (2008) and Pralong (1993), geomorphological objects are defined as geomorphological land forms and processes that have acquired aesthetic, scientific, cultural-historical and social-and-economic value due to human perception of geological, geomorphological, historical and social factors. In the context of tourism and recreation, these four different values can be regarded as exceptional components of the tourist value of a geomorphological object. All tourist goods, services and infrastructure produced and created on the basis of geomorphological land forms and processes result from the application of this value and its four components, which are understood in terms of the degree and modality of use. The articles of Comănescu and Dobre (2009), Coratza et al., (2018), Castaldini and Coratza (2017) describe the various stages of the inventory, they also address the problems related to the protection of geological heritage and suggest the management of geomorphosities. Panizza (2001), Comănescu et al., (2017), Badiali et al., (2018) discuss the issue of former land forms destroyed as a consequence of human activity, a key problem in urban areas where the original geomorphology was greatly affected by anthropogenic activity. The object of the study. The Aktobe oblast is located at the southern end of the Ural folded system and in regards to the geological structure is the most extensive and diverse region of Western Kazakhstan. Within this territory there are geological and geomorphological areas known as the Kazakh Urals and its province, the Peri-Caspian Depression and its margin. The region includes such natural landscape formations as the Or-Ilek Upland, Mugalzhary, the Northern Aral Sea region, the Irgiz river region and the western slope of the Turgai trough and their margins (Abdullin, 1981). As the data analysis demonstrates, over the long time the attendance of geological objects of the Aktobe oblast has been continuously growing. This growth is followed by a violation of nature management regulations, an excess of the recreational capacity of existing tourist routes which reduces the recreational and tourist value of the region. The excess of recreational capacity affects not only the tourist appeal of geological objects but also the preservation of landscapes, natural objects, as well as their functioning.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Geological monuments of nature are selected natural objects representing a variety of geological events in the history of the Earth: reference and unique stratigraphic sections, specific elements of the landscape or their combinations expressing separate stages of the formation of the modern look of our planet, manifestations of minerals, mineral or rock associations, textural or structural features of rocks, traces of the vital activity of former organisms, underground water outlets, waterfalls, solutional caves and labyrinths, locations associated with the work of outstanding naturalists and pioneering explorers, evidence of early developments in the mining industry, sites of currently operating quarries, etc. (Hadmoko et al., 2021; Ilieș et al., 2020). Currently the most effective way to promote and protect geological heritage, especially for the purposes of tourism development, is, as mentioned above, geotourism. The concepts of geotourism and the geological and geomorphological diversity of objects are related to the geological environment in the abiotic sphere and highlight the role of geological elements. In this context geotourism plays a crucial role since it implements geological conservation in practice and contributes to its comprehension among the general public (Mirari and Benmlih, 2020). Ruban (2015) and Hurtado (2013) are of the same opinion stating that the protection of geological heritage depends on public opinion and that it is to be preserved. Therefore the best way to protect is to involve the population in the protection of geological heritage or geological monuments of nature and provide services to promote their value, unique character, advantages and ensure their protection to attract visitors. According to Newsome (2012) effective marketing and management of geotourism significantly contribute to the successful development of the region and, with proper local management, can make a successful contribution to its sustainable development, otherwise, the development of geotourism may pose a threat to the geological heritage. Some researchers suggest that the successful management of popular geotourism destinations requires to manage visitors and their number, to provide the interpretation of geotourism of high-quality and the corresponding infrastructure, as well as effective legislation (Pourfaraj et al., 2020). In the process of studying the best practices of geotourism development in protected natural areas we used a bibliographic method that opened the way to trace the evolution of the concept of geotourism from the genesis of this concept abroad till its use by regional researchers.

To write the article we used mainly field research materials (2012-2014, 2017-2018), statistical, reference, stock and literary materials on the natural conditions and resources of the region. Descriptive, comparative-geomorphological, statistical and cartographic research methods were used to characterize the geological monument of the territory. In addition the analysis and systematization of scientific publications and materials on the object and subject of research was carried out. A description and a tourist route for famous geological objects in the Aktobe oblast are presented (Segedin, 2002; Seyitov and Zhunisov, 2002). When 4 geological objects were determined the Geosite Assessment Model (GAM) was applied. GAM is widely used in Europe in various territories and has given good results in the assessment of geosites. The GAM method includes only expert opinions required for the preliminary development of geotourism in the Aktobe oblast. This method provides various assessments of the main values (MV) and additional values (AV), which are very useful results in the conservation and promotion of the territory. This study was conducted on the basis of the opinions of 9 experts (geologists and geographers) who have deep knowledge of the geological objects of the Aktobe oblast.

The experts answered 18 questions, assessing each geological object. The questionnaire has been developed on the basis of indicators and sub-indicators (values) of the GAM methodology. This method consists of two sets of values: MV and AV. MV include scientific and educational values, scenic-aesthetics values and protection of a geological object. AV include functional and tourist values. The scientific and educational values of VSE consist of 3 sub-indicators proposed, which cannot be understood by a wide audience without additional components (Pereira, 2010; Reynard et al., 2007).

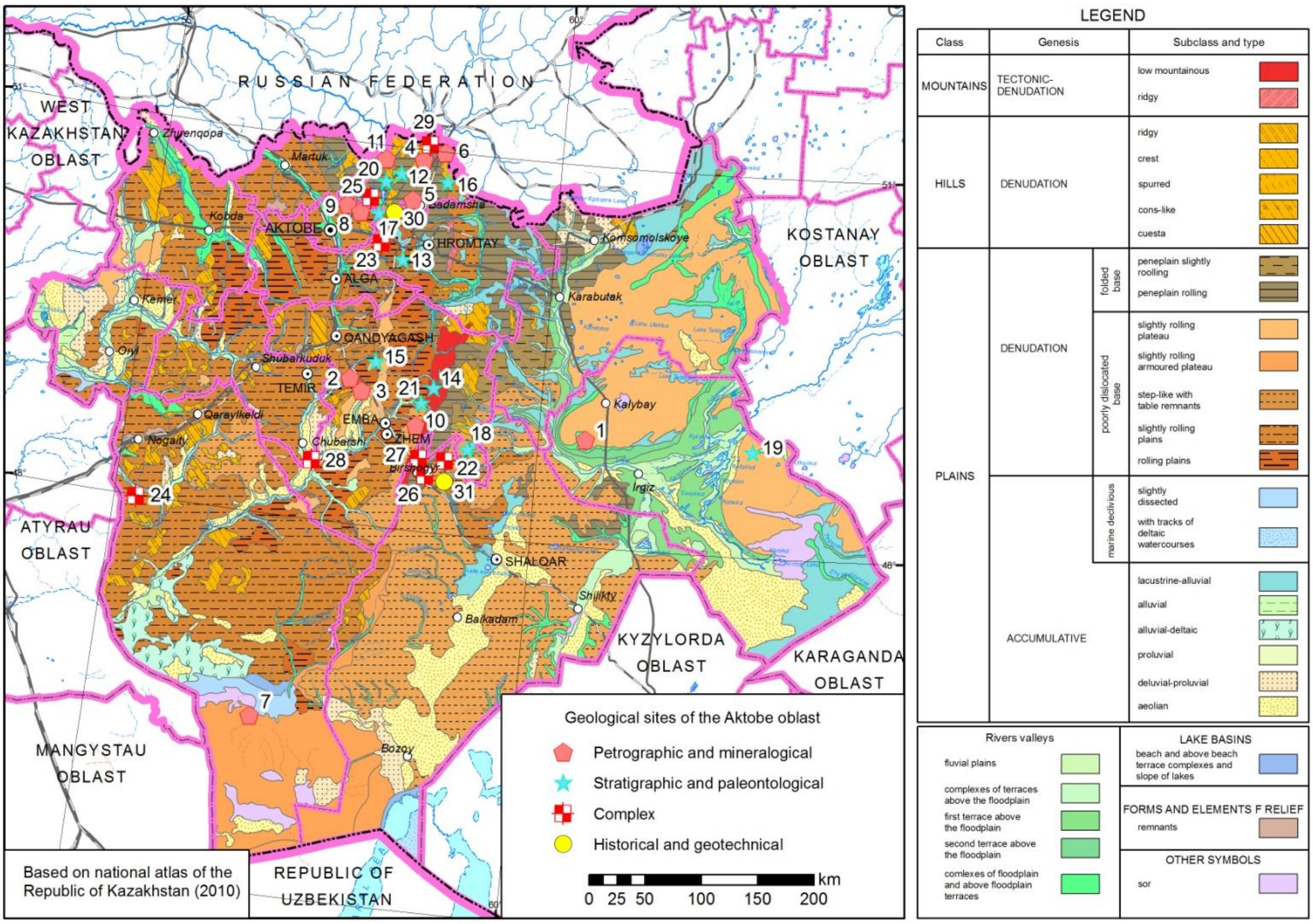

Figure 1. Geological sites of the Aktobe oblast. (Source: author's development) *Petrographic and mineralogical* – 1. Zhamanshin; 2. Shili; 3. Zhylansai; 4. Chaushka; 5. Kuagash; 6. Shandasha; 7. Donyztau; 8. North Alexandrovka; 9. West Petropavlovsk; 10. Massif Aulie; 11. Serpentinite melange; *Stratigraphic and paleontological* – 12. Coastal rivers Medet; 13. Ornectassay; 14. Kenkuys; 15. Karakol; 16. Romankol; 17. Coastal rivers Aktasty; 18. Tikbutak; 19. Shalkarnura; 20. Dombar hills; 21. Kysyltobe; *Complex* – 22. Shuyldak; 23. Aidarlyasha; 24. Aktolagai; 25. Coastal rivers Zhaksy Kargaly; 26. Bortebai; 27. Paleovolcano Zhalgyztau; 28. Kokzhide; 29.The gorge of the Ebeyti river; *Historical and geotechnical* – 30. Aktastinsky reef; 31. South Zhamantau

Scientific and educational values include the level of rarity, representativeness, knowledge and interpretation. The aesthetic values of the VSA are included in the MV because they are very important as time passes. This indicator includes viewpoints of sub-indicators, surfaces, surrounding landscapes and ecological improvement of objects. VPr protection is considered as the basic value as it is an important activity before the promotion and development of tourism in general. The parameters ensuring a high level of protection of geological objects are the current conditions, the level of protection, vulnerability and the permissible number of visitors. AV is divided into two indicators: functional values VFn and tourist values VTr. The functional values VFn consist of several indicators such as accessibility, additional natural values, additional cultural values, distance to the center and the proximity of important roads. They are not immediate elements of tourism, but have a direct effect on the development of geotourism. Tourist values VTr assess the current state of tourist services, including transportation, proximity of visitors to the center, number of visitors, tourist infrastructure, guide services. This method uses only 10 MV sub-indicators and 9 AV sub-indicators, which can take numerical values: 0.00, 0.25, 0.50, 0.75 and 1.00 (for more details of model see Vujičić et al. (2011), Braholli and Menkshi (2021)). The following formula is used to determine MV:

$\mathrm{MV} = \mathrm{VSE} + \mathrm{VSA} + \mathrm{VPr}$ The formula that is used to determine AV: $\mathrm{AV} = \mathrm{VFn} + \mathrm{VTr}$

RESULTS DISCUSSIONS

Geological routes along the outcrops of sections on the terrain involve the most representative areas of the Aktobe oblast, with their peculiar and sometimes unique objects of geological history. The description of the routes of geological excursions begins with sections of relatively young Paleogene deposits of the Eastern Caspian Sea region and the Aktobe Cis-Urals region. The outcrops of sections of Paleozoic and Proterozoic rock complexes are very diverse, they are commonly found on the territory of the Mugalzhar mountains (Baimagambetov, 2012). There are 31 geological monuments of nature in the Aktobe oblast, and 15 of them are located within the Ural-Mugodzhar mountain country, 3 ones are in the Pre-Ural trough and the adjacent north-western slope of the Caspian syneclise. It makes up 9.4 % of the total number of geological natural monuments of the Republic of Kazakhstan. Another 14 geological objects are proposed to be granted the status of regional significance: geological ones - Shili, Zhylansai, Chaushka, Kuagash, Shandasha, Donyztau, North Alexandrovka, West Petropavlovsk; paleontological ones – Medet, Ornectassay, Kenkuys, Karakol, Romankol (Figure 1). Based on the GAM method a qualitative assessment of each geological object of the Aktobe oblast was carried out. Tables 1, 2 demonstrate numerical estimates of indicators and sub-indicators for each of the selected geological objects (Figure 2). Zhamanshin crater is a geomorphological meteorite crater. The diameter of the crater reaches 10 km, there is also a less expressed outer ring. The age calculated by the radiological method makes up 12 million years. In 1939 geologists Vakhrameyev and Yanshin (1941) in the Northern Aral Sea region, composed of shallowdipping Paleogene sedimentary rocks, for the first time drew attention to a small area where Paleozoic metamorphic basement rocks were found on the surface.

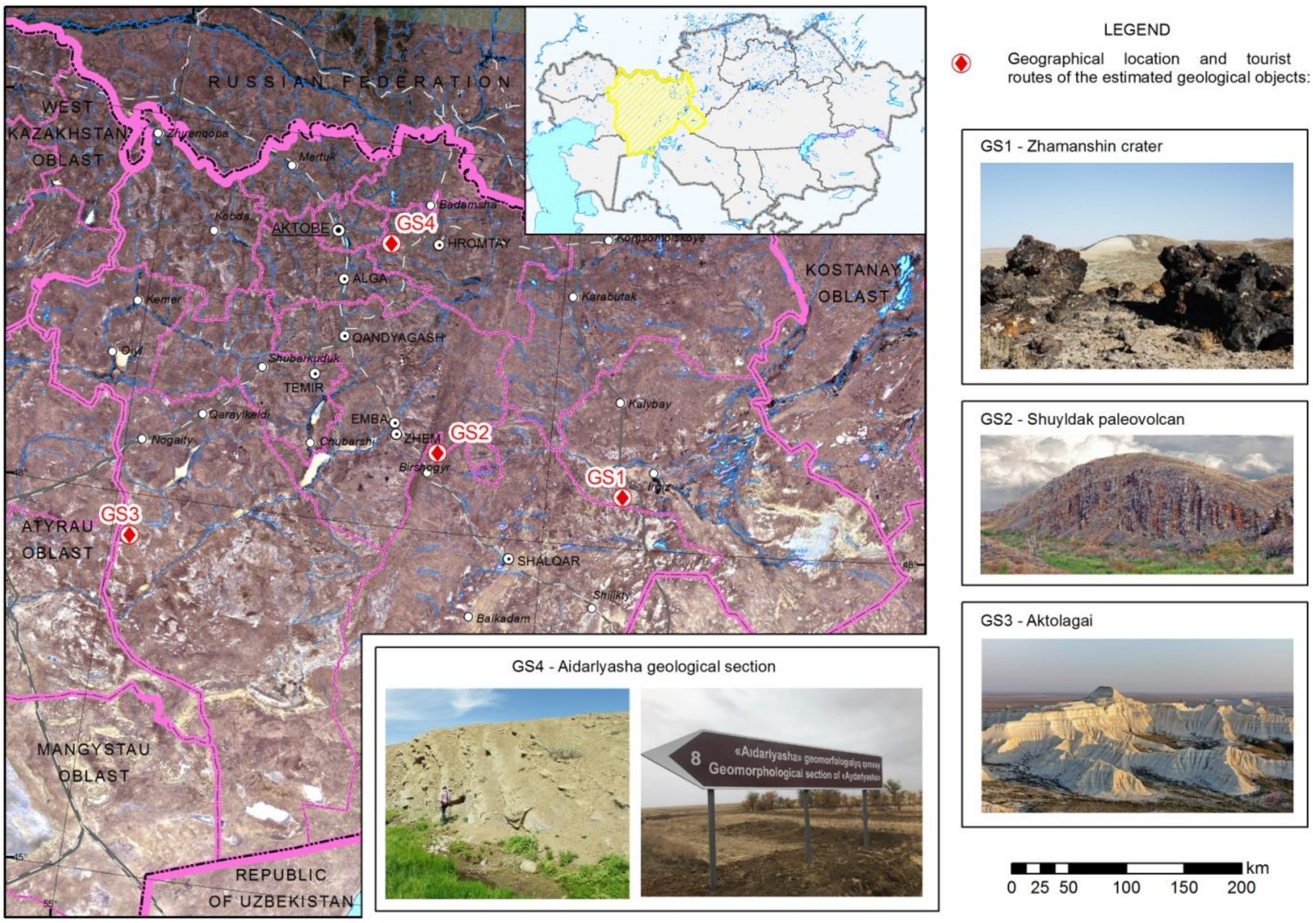

Figure 2. Geographical position of the assessed geological objects: GS 1 - Zhamanshin crater, GS 2 - Shuyldak paleovolcan, GS 3 - Aktolagai, GS 4 - Aidarlyasha geological section. (Source: author's development)

Table 1. Assessment of selected geological objects of the Aktobe oblast on the basis of the GAM method developed by Vujičić (2011) (Source: Result of the study)

Indicator / Sub-indicator	Values pointed by an expert (0,00–1,00)			
	Zhamanshin crater	Shuyldak paleovolcan	Aktolagai	"Aidarlyasha" geological section
	GS 1	GS 2	GS 3	GS 4
	Main values (MV)			
I. Scientific and educational values (VSE)				
Unique character (SIMV1)	0.75	0.80	0.80	0.75
Representativeness (SIMV2)	0.65	0.70	0.75	0.65
Level of interpretation (SIMV3)	0.80	1.00	1.00	0.80
II. Scenic-aesthetics values (VSA)				
Relief (SIMV4)	0.45	0.80	0.80	0.65
Surrounding landscape and nature (SIMV5)	0.35	0.85	1.00	0.75
Ecological state (SIMV6)	0.90	1.00	1.00	0.60
III. Protection (VPr)				
Current state (SIMV7)	0.50	0.60	0.85	0.50
Level of protection (SIMV8)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Vulnerability (SIMV9)	0.25	0.50	0.50	0.60
Number of visitors (SIMV10)	0.45	0.25	0.35	0.50
Additional values (AV)				
I. Functional values (VFn)				
Accessibility (SIAV1)	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.50
Additional natural values (SIAV2)	0.25	0.50	0.60	0.60
Additional anthropogenic values (SIAV3)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Proximity to important road network (SIAV4)	0.50	0.25	0.25	0.60
II. Tourist values (VTr)				
Organized visits (SIAV5)	0.25	0.25	0.20	0.50
Number of visitors (SIAV6)	0.40	0.20	0.40	0.50
Tourist infrastructure (SIAV7)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Guide services (SIAV8)	0.50	0.25	0.50	0.50
Services (SIAV9)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.05

Table 2. Classification of selected geological objects in different zones based on the GA model (Source: Result of the study)

Geological objects	Main values (VSE + VSA + VPr)	Additional values (VFn + VTr)	Overall assessment
GS 1	2.2 + 1.7 + 1.2 = 5.1	1+1.15=2.15	7.25
GS 2	2.5+2.65+1.35= 6.5	1+0.7=1.7	8.2
GS 3	2.55+2.8+1.7= 7.05	1.1+1.1=2.2	9.25
GS 4	2.2+2+1.6= 5.8	1.7+1=2.7	8.5

The works over the last 15-20 years have proved that about 700 thousand years ago a giant meteorite fell here and the rocks of the foundation were thrown out of a 700-meter crater as a result of an explosion whose energy reached tens of thousands of megaton bombs. The pressure increased to hundreds of kilobars and megabars, when over-pressured minerals could be formed – coesite, stishovite and even over-pressured carbon - lonsdaleite, found, in particular, in a meteorite crater (Boyko et al., 2009). For many years Florensky (1980), Izokh (1990) were developing a hypothesis of the origin of tektites according to which the age of the crater is about 10 thousand years. It is one of the few deposits of tektites (irgizites) on Earth and the only crater in which tektites and impactites are simultaneously detected (Figure 3).

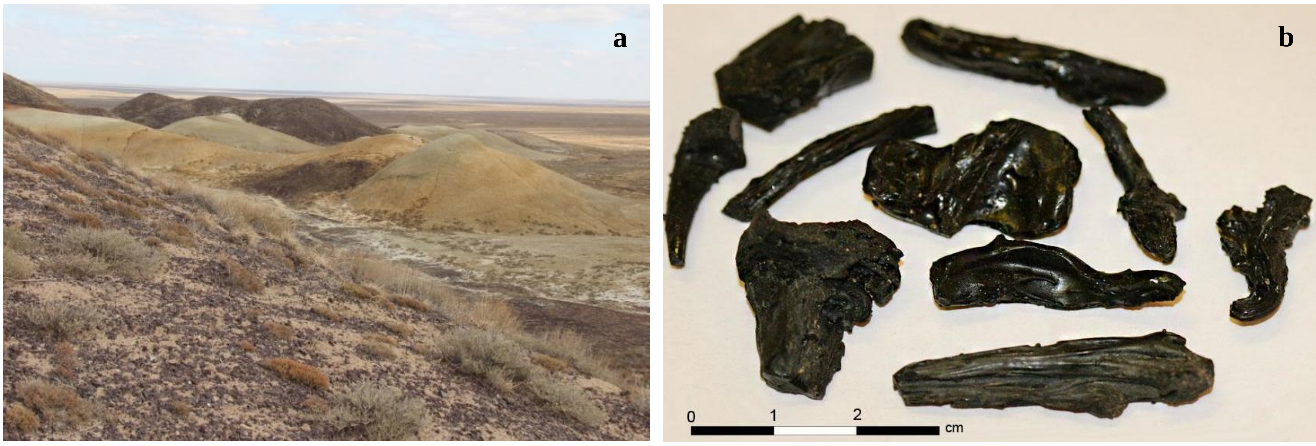

Figure 3. (a) Relief type in Zhamanshin; (b) Zhamanshinite and irgizite (Source: Authors' own)

It is is a very interesting place for scientific tourism. However there is no hotel, a comfortable place for people there. But the geotourism zone gives an opportunity to investigate the crater, which has no analogues in the world, and see the formed rocks. So far, the development of tourism in this direction is very slow. The Aidarlyasha geological section is a reference section of the boundary of the carboniferous and Permian systems, the location of the fauna of ammonoids, fusulinids, conodonts. The section is located on the right steep bank of the Aidarlyasha River (Figure 4).

Figure 4. (a) Conglomerates of the right bank of the r. Aydarlyasha;
(b) Aidarlyash section; (c) General view of the "Aidarlyasha" geological section (Source: Authors' own)

A unique location of fossil organic remains, which are irregularly distributed in the section. The lower part of the section has a predominant content of fusulinids and conodonts, ammonoids are rare. The study of Aidarlyasha commenced since the 1950s. In 1991 on the occasion of the 150th anniversary of the discovery of the Permian system by R. I. Murchison scientists conducted studies of all geological faults referring to this period. It is known that the Carboniferous period, which lasted 350-360 million years and the Permian-Paleozoic era, which lasted 285 million years, were the last stages of that time. During the Devonian period before the Carboniferous, the weather was wet and warm, trees grew to huge sizes, trilobites, frame animals developed and at the end of the Carboniferous and Permian period the climate became arid, the previous species of animals and plants disappeared, new plants and animals came to exist adapted to the new situation. The Carboniferous and Permian periods are characterized by the disappearance of trilobites, the development of amphibians, the coming of reptiles, insects. The miracle of Aidarlyasha is not only in that, the study of the cross-section of the cut gives insight into the peculiarities of the development of each stage of the Earth's crust, to assess the potential of minerals on the territory of the Aral and Caspian Seas, the West Kazakhstan region. The valley of the Aidarlyasha River is a unique location of fossil organic remains that are in the state of a unique preservation. The section of the boundary Carboniferous and Permian layers contains information about the conditions of sedimentation, climate and the level of life development in a certain place and time. The finds in Aidarlyasha location are a vivid evidence that once a tropical sea was splashing on the territory of the Aktobe oblast and amazing animals lived. It is valuable not only as a natural monument but also gives scientists an opportunity to have a glimpse into the depths of time, to track the processes that took place in the Permian period. It was one of the most difficult periods in the history of the Earth: the process of folding was in progress, some mountains collapsed and others rose. Aidarlyasha is one of the "echoes" of that period (Abdullina et al., 2019).

The section of the Carboniferous and Permian boundary layers contains information about the conditions of sedimentation, climate, and the level of life development in a certain place and time. The section is of scientific importance for specialists in the field of geography, geology, it can serve as a place of educational internship and excursions for students of geological and geographical specialties, as well as an object for geological tourism.

The Shuyldak paleovolcano. The Shuyldak Canyon in the eastern spurs of the Mugalzhary ridge, located northwest off Shalkarteniz, penetrates a complex of volcanic rocks of the Early Paleozoic period formed in deep-water conditions (up to 3 km) in the spreading zone. In other words this zone of rocks (mainly basalts) was the bottom of the Ural Sea which separated Kazakhstan and Eastern Europe (Shakirov, 2012). The formation of the Ural Sea began in the early Ordovician when a split of the eastern edge of the Eastern European continent took place, which is fixed by a volcanic series of rocks: basalts and rhyolites. In turn these volcanites are associated with coarse-grained strata typifying rifts. As a result of this split the Mugalzhar block, composed of metamorphic rocks, shifted to the east, clearing a space for the Ural Sea. The relicts of rocks of this stage are represented by an ophiolite association typical of mid-ocean ridges and rifts and indicating the expansion (spreading) of the ocean floor. Extremely good preservation in the section along the Shuyldak River provides us the opportunity to see nearly all forms of underwater lava flows and similar ones described in modern ocean rift zones. The Shuyldak River gives an opportunity of free movement on the surfaces of lava flows, to climb the tops of volcanoes and also to study volcanic structures in the section with the help of drilling wells. It results in new information about this type of volcanism. The Shuyldak paleovolcanic area is already a place for numerous scientific research, professional excursions. The Shuyldak paleovolcano the evidence of the high magmatic permeabllity characteristic for the boundaries of the Paleozoic tectonic plates. The fluid that accompanies volcanic activity provides metamorphic and metasomatic transformations of strata and ore genesis. Chalk mountains of Southern Aktolagai. The length is 90 km, the width is 5-10 km, the highest point is Mount Kiyakty (217 m). The Aktolagai plateau and adjacent territories are located in the area of typical semi-deserts between the rivers Sagiz and Zhem (Emba). The western drop-offs of the Aktolagai Southern Plateau extend to more than 16 km, which are classical Upper Cretaceous, Paleogene and Neogene outcrops for almost the entire salt-dome region of the Peri-Caspian Depression. In the west the border is drawn in such a way that the nature reserve site covers not only the drop-offs of the Aktolagai plateau but also the terrace at the foot of the drop-offs with outcrops of Cenomanian terrigenous rocks and Turon chalk-marl rocks, as well as the Tolagaysor section (Abdullina et al., 2021; Fishman et al., 2007). The northern border is drawn taking into account the inclusion of unique outcrops of the Maastrichtian stage at the foot of the plateau drop-offs into the protection zone. There are exposures of micro-disjunctive tectonics here. The drop-offs of the plateau are composed of Paleogene rocks (Figure 5).

Figure 5. a) Rifts is the most spectacularly expressed in the structures of Aktolagay plateau; b) Landscape of South Aktolagai (Source: Authors' own)

Table 3. Basic Geological objects of the Aktobe oblast (Source: Result of the study)

№	The name of the object	Description of the object	Proposals on the measures to protect the objects	Proposals on the use
1.	Zhamanshin (area)	Impact crater 7*7 km	To ensure the preservation in the current state, to prevent construction and other works related to changes in the morphology of the relief	To include into advertising brochures on geotourism
2.	Shili	Impact crater (diameter 2,5 km.)		
3.	Zhylansai	Salt dome (Impact crater)		
4.	Shuyldak (river valley and left-bank zone 1-3 km wide)	Paleovolcanic, fragments of paleovolcanic buildups. Lavas of various morphology: pillow, tube-shaped, reservoir ones. Parallel dikes, deposits. Extrusion-lava and geyser structures.	To ensure preservation in the current state, to ban construction on the reservoir on the Shuyldak river, to exclude mining as a building stone.	Organization of a scientific and educational training ground to get insight into the structure of the 2nd layer of the paleoceanic crust and paleovolcanic forms of a pre-insular type of volcanism.
5.	Aidarlyasha (river valley)	The reference section of the boundary of the Carboniferous and Permian systems approved by the international community. The location of the fauna of ammonoids, fusulinids, conodonts.	To ensure the preservation in the current state. To ban all types of construction and the construction of dams.	Scientific excursions, disciplined visits by tourists.
6.	Southern Akto-lagai (plateau)	Reference stratigraphic section of the Campa-nian, Maastrichtian and Eocene sediments.	To ensure the preservation in the current state.	
7.	Aktastinsky reef	A body of light reef algal limestones among the terrigenous deposits of the Kungurian stage of the Lower Permian on the western wing of the Belagor anticline	Currently limestones are intensively developed for industrial purposes. There is a threat of complete destruction of the reef. The preservation of the geological object is required.	It is of interest both for geological research and mass tourism.
8.	Shalkarnura (chinks)	The location of the bone remains of ancient rhinoceros-Indricotherium of Oligocene age. There are remnants of other mammals.	To ensure the preservation in its natural state. To ban all types of economic activity.	It is of interest for professional geological and paleontological research.
9.	Dombar hills	A limestone ridge 4 km long and about 300 m wide, is the richest cluster of early carbon ammonoids of planetary significance.	To ensure the preservation in the current state. To ban any economic activity, especially the development of limestones as minerals.	It is of interest for paleontological and stratigraphic studies.
10.	Paleovolcano Zhalgyztau	A large well-preserved andesite-dacite extrusion structure with the remains of an island-type volcanic cinder (blowing) cone.	To keep it in the current state. To ban quarrying of building stone.	To include into the group of the Southern Mugalzhar paleovolcanic polygon. To use it for paleovolcanic scientific excursions.
11.	Serpentinite melange	Blocks of rocks of Ordovician-Silurian age among the laminated serpentinites	To preserve and prevent mining operations.	Scientific excursions, objects for organized tourism.
12.	The gorge of the Ebeyti river	A picturesque gorge rich with numerous rock outcrops of intrusive, metamorphic and sedimentary rocks of the Precambrian and Lower Paleozoic periods.	To ensure the preservation in the current state. To ban further economic activity, to carry out reclamation work on destroyed agricultural structures.	To create a natural park and use it for mass organized tourism.

The north-eastern section of the boundary of the object was chosen in such a way so as to include in the protected area a specific section of the Aktolagai plateau, relatively isolated from the southern tip of the plateau in the result of salt-dome tectogenesis. The eastern border is drawn in such a way that the entire Shiilisai salt dome is to be covered by the protection zone. Here, on the north-eastern wing, the outcrops of the Lower and Upper Cretaceous rocks are clearly traced. Magnificent outcrops of Sarmatian rocks can be observed in the steep slopes of the Terensai ravine which cut through this section of the plateau. The southern border limits the southern drop-offs and slopes of the Aktolagai plateau, composed of the Upper Cretaceous and Paleogene rocks, as well as the part of the terrace at the foot of the southern drop-offs of the plateau. Here, the buried channel of the Oligocene river, made of alluvium, has been preserved in the drop-offs of the plateau. Thus, the protection zone of the Southern Aktolagai Plateau includes not only classical sections of the Neogene, Paleogene, Upper Cretaceous; the tectonic-sedimentation negative structure of the Shiilisai - the above-roof cauldron, but also amazing denudation relief forms. Therefore, the object Aktolagai Southern Plateau is fully a geological object and to the same extent, if not to a greater one, it also occurs to be a geomorphological object (Koshim et al., 2021). The unforgettable landscapes, various paleontological remains and the visibility of the geological processes that took place here millions of years ago make the Aktolagai plateau very attractive not only for specialists, but also for the tourist community. Currently, the Aktolagai plateau is not included in any tourist catalog. It is easy to forecast that the popularity of the plateau as an object of mass tourism will increase in proportion to the spread of information. Over time that will give an opportunity to create the infrastructure and the necessary modern services. The development of the tourism industry, which is crucial for the Aktobe oblast, should take into account the geological structure of the territory and the availability of a large number of interesting and unique objects of geological heritage, which provide opportunities to organize geotourism. No doubt that so as to develop this sphere of industry with no negative impact on nature it is required first of all to take into consideration the objects of the geological heritage of this region, to highlight the most valuable and unique ones. And currently with no regulations for the use of geological objects in tourist activities, one can rely only on the integrity of instructors and guides who conduct routes using monuments of the geological history of the Aktobe oblast. Table 3 presents the character and proposals for the protection arrangements on geological objects. Though the Aktobe oblast is sufficiently studied from the geological point of view, at the same time it is characterized with problems of protection. The main reason is that the objects are not reflected in the schemes of territorial planning (land use), do not have cadastral registration, passports and preservation orders are not issued. A long time period from validating an order to the execution of all necessary documentation may result in the loss of the value or integrity of the objects. Thus, the ancient Alabas volcano (the "Shuyldak Paleovolcanic district" object) was partially destroyed as a result of mining operations, more over in 2011 there were 5 plants engaged in the extraction of crushed stone in the Shalkar district. The object "Algal reef limestones of Lower Permian of the Aktastinsky reef" is also being developed by an open-pit method. Currently the northern, eastern and western parts of the reef body are partially preserved and the southern part has been worked out by a quarry for building materials. The exposed walls of the quarry give an opportunity to have a qualitative study of the internal structure of the reef body. In addition to the effective protection of the objects listed above the official approval of the nature protection status for promising natural monuments of regional significance is of much importance. In our opinion an additional inventory of geological objects is required. One of the objects to be claimed for the nature protection status is the top of the Mugalzhar ridge – the mountain Bolshoy Boktybai (657 m), located in an area of intensive mining production.

CONCLUSION

The main role in the formation, preservation and destruction of the diversity of the Earth's subsurface and landscapes is played by endogenous and exogenous geological processes due to their power and duration, which cannot be compared with the duration of human existence as a biological species. However, in the last 50 years, both anthropogenic and technogenic processes have begun to influence the formation of geo-diversity. So far, these human impacts on the Earth of the territory of the Aktobe oblast as a geological body affect only the lithosphere and are carried out in the following main directions:

- geological study, evaluation and exploration of mineral deposits (carried out without significant violation of the subsurface integrity);
- mineral production.

Aktobe oblast is very rich in geological and geomorphological heritage. But many geological objects are not subject to protection. Geological heritage is often a place of significant tourist and recreational potential. The effective implementation of the principles of geotourism, the promotion of geotourism and geo-heritage can decisively contribute, on the one hand, to the development of tourism and, on the other hand, to the protection of natural heritage. The stable high growth dynamics of the Aktobe oblast is closely related to the development of production, which involves the richest mineral resources in the economy, there is an interaction of natural and artificially created elements, providing the appearance of changes in the environment. In this regard, due to the limited work and collaboration between current biodiversity activists and Earth scientists, it is important to integrate and link biotic and geological conservation. Human activity has greatly changed the character of the natural landscapes of the Aktobe oblast and Kazakhstan as a whole. There is practically no landscape that has not experienced at least indirectly the influence of human economic activity. Priority in the organization of new specially protected areas are given to the areas with the greatest concentration of wildlife and inorganic nature that require special protection, which will be of help for Kazakhstan to preserve its priceless wealth.

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Article history: Received: 18.09.2021 Revised: 06.12.2021 Accepted: 10.01.2022 Available online: 01.02.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.120-128
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40114-810

TOURISM EVOLUTION IN RURAL SOUTH AFRICA: FROM NATIVE RESERVE TO APARTHEID BANTUSTANS c 1920-1994

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Citation: Rogerson, C.M. (2022). TOURISM EVOLUTION IN RURAL SOUTH AFRICA: FROM NATIVE RESERVE TO APARTHEID BANTUSTANS c 1920-1994. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 120–128. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40114-810

Abstract: Historical research is valuable for understanding the evolutionary pathways of tourism destinations. The aim is to contribute to the historical tourism scholarship of rural destinations in the Global South. The focus is the development pathways of rural tourism in specific areas of South Africa, namely the rural (former) Homelands or Bantustans that were created by apartheid planning. The study uses an archival approach with material sourced from a range of historical documentary sources. The historical specificities of these rural spaces catalysed the appearance of particular forms of rural tourism. The analysis unfolds through three sections of material. First, the earliest period for the development of tourism in the 'Native Reserves' is chronicled. The second section reviews the apartheid project for the making of the Bantustans. Third, the tourism developments occurring in these rural spaces are examined for the apartheid period from 1948 to the early 1990s focussing especially on the phenomenon of casino tourism.

Key words: rural tourism, archival research, native reserves, Bantustans, South Africa

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INTRODUCTION

A quarter of a century ago Britain's leading historian of tourism, John K. Walton, implored scholars to 'take the history of tourism seriously' and address its limited research development (Walton, 1997). Several influential works subsequently authored by Walton (2005, 2009a, 2009b, 2009c, 2011) provide a compelling case for further correcting the 'present-mindedness' of mainstream tourism scholarship. Arguably, tourism history is critical for interpreting the processes of the evolution of destinations as pinpointed by Hanpachern and Chatkaewnapanon (2013). Further, an "insightful understanding of current patterns of tourism growth cannot be completely comprehended without examining how tourism systems have been established and have evolved over time" (Bui, 2021: 1). According to Walton (2009b:115) "all tourism research needs a sense of historical awareness" as "the present cannot be understood without reference to what has gone before". Another recent call for building historical tourism scholarship was made by Saarinen et al. (2017: 311) who urged "the extended application of historical perspectives in order to inform contemporary debates and practices".

The aim in this article is to contribute to the historical tourism scholarship of rural destinations in the Global South. The focus is the development pathways of rural tourism in specific areas of South Africa, namely the rural (former) Homelands or Bantustans that were forged under apartheid planning (Phillips, 2017). The analysis starts in the 1920s when tourism began to evolve in the country and concludes in the years of late apartheid and democratic change in 1994 which consigned the Bantustans to the proverbial dustbin of history. Although the majority of literature concerning tourism in South Africa centres on contemporary issues and debates, an observable trend in the country's tourism scholarship is the emergence of several research investigations which excavate tourism's past and tourism history. Arguably, an understanding and learning from the past is highly relevant in the uncertain times of the COVID-19 environment (Rogerson and Baum, 2020; Rogerson and Rogerson, 2021a). The appearance and strengthening of an historical tradition in South African tourism scholarship is distinctive in tourism literature about the Global South most especially as it furnishes fresh insight into processes of tourism destination change (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2021a; Saarinen and Rogerson, 2021).

The existing historical writings have been produced both by tourist historians (eg. Carruthers, 1989, 1995; Grundlingh, 2006; Saunders and Barben, 2007; Bickford-Smith, 2009; Dlamini, 2020; Pirie, 2022) and increasingly by tourism geographers of South Africa (Rogerson and Visser, 2020). Historical tourism studies in South Africa have been undertaken at various scales of investigation - national, regional, and local - and for both urban and rural areas. In terms of tourism in urban settings historical contributions include studies investigating the making of urban tourism in the country's major cities of Johannesburg (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2019, 2021b), Cape Town (Bickford-Smith, 2009), and Pretoria (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2022a) as well as small town resorts such as Hermanus (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2020a). The development of the heritage tourism base of Mahikeng also has come under scrutiny (Drummond et al., 2021). Thematic examinations have been undertaken concerning the changing complexion of the accommodation services sector at different geographical scales (Rogerson, 2011; Rogerson, 2013, 2018; Rogerson and Rogerson, 2018; Rogerson, 2019, 2020; Rogerson and Rogerson, 2022b) and including the activities of pioneer African entrepreneurs in the hotel trade (Sixaba and Rogerson,

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2019). Other urban-focused research explores the chequered development of early health tourism (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2021c), the evolution of caravanning as a mundane form of urban tourism (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2021d) and, the growth of business and conference tourism in South Africa (Rogerson, 2019). The impress of apartheid legislation on tourism trajectories including the struggles against the production of racialized tourism spaces represent a further group of research studies (Rogerson, 2017; Rogerson, 2020; Rogerson and Rogerson, 2020b). In rural areas the largest amount of work concentrates on the social history (Dlamini, 2020) and the establishment of various protected areas (Carruthers, 2011) and most especially of game reserves such as Kruger National Park (Carruthers, 1989, 1995; Brett, 2018). The formative years of mountaineering (Carruthers, 2013) as well as the evolutionary pathways of early rural tourism in South Africa also have been analysed (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2021e).

This study concerns the evolution of tourism in the apartheid-created rural Bantustans. It contributes an understanding of the distinctiveness of rural tourism in South Africa as an aspect of tourism change in the global South (Saarinen and Rogerson, 2021). The establishment of the Bantustans was once styled famously by the anti-apartheid activist Steve Biko (1987: 83) as "the greatest single fraud ever invented by white politicians". The analysis unfolds through three different sections of discussion. First, the earliest period for the development of tourism in the 'Native Reserves' is chronicled. The second section reviews the apartheid project of the making of the Bantustans. Third, the tourism developments taking place in these rural spaces are examined for the apartheid period from 1948 to the early 1990s including the phenomenon of casino tourism. In terms of methods the study applies an archival approach. At its core Mills and Mills (2018) observe that archival research involves the study of collections of documents – pamphlets, newspapers, annual reports, memoranda – to gain an understanding of historical phenomenon and processes. Archival repositories for this study include the Historical Papers Collections of the University of the Witwatersrand (Johannesburg), the collections at the National Library of South Africa (Cape Town depot), and, the record of House of Assembly debates.

INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS IN SEARCH OF THE PRIMITIVE

According to Grundlingh (2006: 111) deeply embedded in the historical marketing of South Africa as a tourist destination was "the juxtaposition of the 'primitive' and the 'modern'". Rassool and Witz (1996) point to the long history of tourists being attracted to visit South Africa because of opportunities to view 'native life in its tribal state' as manifested in 'authentic African settings'. During the 1920s, a time of the beginnings of marketing for international tourist visits to South Africa, it was recognised that "with natural beauty, a comfortable climate and, not the least important, an exotic, indigenous non-western people South Africa was a natural for the tourist trade" (Wolf, 1991: 101). As early as the 1930s in parliamentary debates taking place about tourism development in South Africa there was awareness that alongside the game reserves, natural scenery and the gold mines a leading attraction of South Africa was "our native life" (*House of Assembly Debates*, 19 February 1937 Col. 2024). In 1936 a major national investigation of the country's tourism industry highlighted "the bounteous gifts South Africa has to offer in the way of varied scenic beauty, of her fauna and flora, and of her native life in all its attractive picturesqueness" (Norval, 1936: 128).

A vital role in the early development of tourism in South Africa was assumed by the expansion of the railways and the promotional advertising from 1910 that was produced by the South African Railways and Harbours (SAR & H) organisation (van Eeden, 2011). The advertising of South Africa emphasized the country's untouched and 'primitive' attractions but at the same time stressed that these could be experienced all in perfect comfort. Publicity material produced by SAR & H directed at the international tourist proclaimed as follows:

"Gone are the days when Southern Africa was looked on as a land of unknown dangers, primitive in its make-up and savage in its composition. Nowadays the ultra-modern and the primitive go hand in hand, and constitute perhaps the country's most potent appeal to the citizens of the overcrowded older countries. Fascinating natural wonders, curious mysteries of past ages, kraals and settings of a coloursome native life, and the vast solitudes of the veld and rugged mountain areas can all be visited in comfort" (South African Railways and Harbours, 1934: 2).

Promoting the imaginary of 'Savage South Africa' had often formed part of the human showcases at exhibitions, theatres and galleries in Europe and America during the 19th and early 20th centuries (Rassool and Witz, 1996: 359). Following accusations of racism these 'savage' human showcases gradually were phased out and mostly had disappeared by the 1930s with the consequence that in order to observe 'native life' Europeans and Americans "now had to come to Africa to see primitiveness on display" (Rassool and Witz, 1996: 359). Wolf (1991: 107) argued that in the 1920s and 1930s that "the African population was high on the priority list of what potential tourists from America wanted to see". The message of viewing the 'primitive' with comfort was conveyed to potential American visitors in an advertisement posted by the South African Government Bureau in New York and which appeared in a travel magazine in 1929:

"South Africa is one of the most modern and progressive sections of the world…luxurious hotels and railroads, delightful golf and yachting clubs, superb motor roads, and all the comforts and conveniences of modern civilization… But there is also the immensely picturesque native side of South Africa so alluring to the tourist…the quaint Kraal life... wild war dances... weird, age-old tribal customs… the dignified Zulu chief and his retinue of dusky wives...stalwart warriors with their spears, shields and knobkerries... the primitive musical instruments… the women's fantastic headdresses… the superstitious mummery of the witch doctor (*Travel*, October 1929: 31 cited in Wolf, 1991: 107)". The two areas of South Africa where 'native life' was offered as an attraction to tourists were the rural spaces of Zululand and the Transkei.

The history of tourism in Africa has an unfortunate record of exploitative and demeaning portrayals and of dehumanizing people by treating them as objects (Pirie, 2022). This is clearly exemplified in SAR & H advertising and the portrayal of 'Native life' from the 1920s and continuing into the late 1940s. In one 1926 pamphlet it was stated: "Although the native in his raw state may be seen in many parts of South Africa, it is in Zululand, more particularly, that one meets him at his best. Here he is to be seen in his old-time simplicity. He is in his true environment, amidst the rural and peaceful surroundings of his forefathers, where the savage Chaka – the Black Napoleon – lies buried but not forgotten, though a century has passed" (South African Railways and Harbours, 1926: 9). In a dedicated SAR & H publication produced in 1936 'native life' was described as both of "absorbing interest to the dilettante" and contributing 'novel allure' to make South Africa "a veritable tourist paradise" (Uys, 1936: 5). The pamphlet highlighted various aspects of 'Native life' that might attract visitors, including traditional marriage ceremonies, crafts such as mat-making and the production of ornamental weapons, musical instruments, superstitions and witchcraft. Notably, the operations of 'witchdoctors' were given much attention with the recommendation that "no visitor to South Africa should miss" (Uys, 1936: 27).

Much prominence was accorded to the presentation of pictures of Zulu chiefs and 'warriors' as welcoming of visitors (Figure 1). This imaging of Zululand continued into the late 1930s. In a 1937 Railways publication Zululand was described for potential international visitors as "a huge intriguing native area" where "the natives in their primitive state provide thoroughly interesting studies" (Carlyle-Gall, 1937: 18). Visitors were advised this "is essentially a rather primitive corner of Africa" where "on the verdant hillsides of the interior, Zulu herd boys watch their charges, while bead-bedecked women hoe the fields and the lordly menfolk gaze over the rolling landscape and talk of valorous days that are no more" (Carlyle-Gall, 1937: 69). Similarly, in 1939 the region was styled as enjoying a "wealth of native life" with "stalwart warriors" (South African Railways and Harbours, 1939: 2) and further reiterated that the "Zulus are a most fascinating people" (South African Railways and Harbours, 1939: 19). In a description appended to one photograph of a Zulu 'warrior-chief' it was stated: "save for the colour of the skin and the texture of the hair, this Zulu warrior, by his semi-nudity and the symmetry of his limbs, might well be taken for a bronze statue of a Roman gladiator come down from its pedestal" (Uys, 1936: 11).

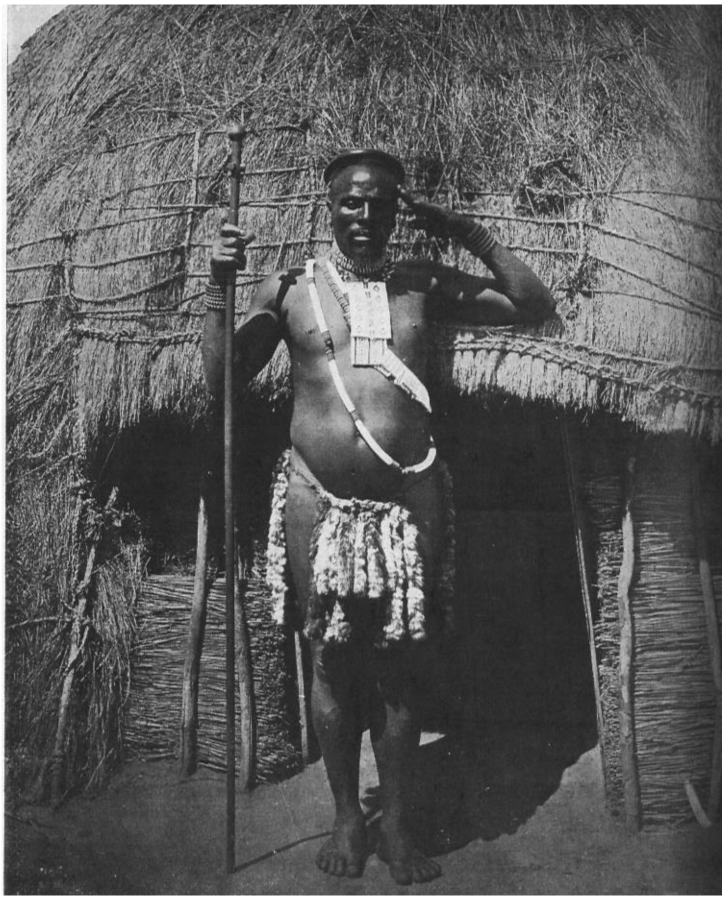

Figure 1. Profiling of 'Native Life' in South African Railways Advertising in the 1930s (Source: South African Railways and Harbours, 1939: 1)

The territory of the Transkei began to open up for tourism with the rail linkage to Umtata (established for migrant workers to the gold mines) and importantly also in the 1930s because of improvement in roads. Publicity material from the South African Railways in 1937 stylized this area as "a strange primeval land" with "picturesque Bantu life" (Carlyle-Gall, 1937: 75). As in Zululand the marketing of this region focussed mainly around 'the primitive' and on the attractions of 'Native life'. This is shown in the following descriptor:

"It is the unique privilege of the visitor to South Africa to be able, as it were, to step from the pulsating twentieth-century scene into a vastly different world – the ancestral domain of the native. And in the Transkeian Territories human society in its very beginning is to be seen in the weirdly-romantic native reserves" (Carlyle-Gall, 1937: 79).

Assurances were provided, however, that "present-day urban amenities are much in evidence", "accommodation is, in every respect, entirely satisfactory, the hotels being up to date" and, whilst tourists enabled to view the magnetic attractions of the Transkei, they are "at the same time not deprived of the amenities of modern life" (Carlyle-Gall, 1937: 77). South African Railways publicity material about the Transkei and Zululand as 'The Real Africa' continued into the early apartheid period (South African Railways Tourist Office 1949). Native life "in the raw" was promised as the appeal of these areas offering "singularly rich fields for the searcher after the primitive" (South African Railways Tourist Office, 1949: 1). As described for the 'Native territories' of Transkei and Zululand: "Here the Native goes about his daily round in much the same manner as he did before the coming of the white man. Tribal customs are observed with all their colourful solemnity; periodical dances are staged with vigorous enthusiasm; and even in respect of simple domestic duties the ways of the Native are full of quaintness and interest to folk accustomed from infancy to European ideas" (South African Railways Tourist Office, 1949: 1). In depicting the populations of the 'Native territories' as 'exotic', 'traditional' and 'primitive' with landscapes that are 'wild' and 'untamed' tourist representations of these areas were positioned as the polar opposite of the 'modern', 'civilised' tourists and their normal vacationscape (Wildman, 2005). Through all its promotional activities for Transkei and Zululand in the 1930s and 1940s the SAR & H took great care to emphasize the modern comforts of the country's railways and suitability for 'genteel leisure visitors', including women.

THE MAKING OF BANTUSTANS AND GOVERNMENT POLICY NEGLECT OF TOURISM

The landmark 1948 electoral victory of the National Party launched a fresh chapter in terms of tourism development in the 'Native territories'. In particular it ushered in a period of policy indifference and neglect of tourism development as the state focussed on consolidating its power and began its apartheid project which embraced a critical focus on these spaces (Grundlingh, 2006). Arguably, the utilization of space by the apartheid state to segregate and control the African population "was deeply rooted in South Africa's colonial period (1652-1948)" (King and McCusker, 2007: 6). According to King (2006: 81) the electoral victory of the National Party in 1948 "resulted in the emergence of apartheid policies that reinforced colonial systems of spatial segregation, control of movement and production, and empowerment of traditional governance systems". Issues around tourism were not under serious consideration until 1963 with the establishment of a Department of Tourism (Grundlingh, 2006). The implementation of the policy of 'Bantu Homelands' became a mainstay of apartheid planning (United Nations Centre Against Apartheid, 1970; Phillips, 2017). Beinart (2012) points out that homeland policy was implemented relatively slowly and unevenly during the apartheid years. This was achieved by initial consolidation of the 'native reserves' and subsequently providing the imagined territories with self-governance.

The Bantu Authorities Act of 1951 was the original piece of legislation that provided the legal foundation for the establishment of the Bantustans. The apartheid government created the homelands "on the basis of its definitions of peoplehood" which drew upon the work of government ethnologists and politically conservative anthropologists to form "the idea of peoplehood in terms of a discrete cultural, linguistic, and political identity" (Schutte, 2003: 474). In terms of the socio-economic development for the Homelands in 1950 the Government appointed a commission under the Chairmanship of Professor F.R. Tomlinson "charged with the task of devising a 'comprehensive scheme for the rehabilitation of the Native Areas with a view to developing within them a social structure in keeping with the culture of the Native and based upon effective socio-economic planning'" (Hobart Houghton, 1957: 14). The Tomlinson Commission conducted a mammoth investigation into the question of social and economic planning in the Reserves with its results presented in 18 volumes and an abridged summary report published in 1955 (Union of South Africa, 1955). The policy findings were submitted to government in 1954. The core problem in the reserves was identified as the lack of non-agricultural wage opportunities. The Tomlinson report estimated that 50 000 employment opportunities would have to be created each year for the following 25 years. Its central proposals mirrored those of previous studies in its advocacy of the need for a general reform of agriculture and the diversification of economic activities through the industrialisation of the Reserves and the bordering 'White' areas (Nieuwenhuysen, 1964).

The growth of industrial capacity was favoured as the potential basis for new job creation. The Tomlinson report stated that "a programme of industrial development will, therefore, occupy a central position in the general programme of development for the Bantu areas" (Union of South Africa, 1955: 131). Evans (2019) sees this recommendation as aligned to the growth of interest in broader colonial planning for rural industrial development at the period of the end of empire. In the late 1950s "the apartheid government shifted its focus to 'separate development' and emphasized that the homelands would eventually become independent from the South African state" (King, 2006: 82). Under the 1959 Promotion of Bantu Self-Government Act a number of ethnic territories were established with a system of local government. The most significant was the Transkei territory which was formalised in 1959 and became 'semi-autonomous' and 'self-governing' in 1963 (United Nations Centre Against Apartheid, 1970). At the macro-scale Smith (2004) suggests that the Bantustan strategy was explicitly aimed at reducing the growth of African urbanisation and most especially in and around the economic heartland centred upon Johannesburg and Pretoria. The construction of the homelands was seen as central to a shift in the 1960s of state policy towards 'high apartheid' and involved the classification of the African population into various ethnic categories that enabled the state to forcibly relocate urban and rural residents" (King, 2006: 81). Initially viewed as a source of cheap migratory labour it is argued that over time "the 'homelands' were decreasingly significant as suppliers of migrant labour, and increasingly important as repositories of surplus people" such as the unemployed and underemployed who were "corralled" into these areas (Beinart, 2012: 14).

As shown on Figure 2 the apartheid state demarcated ten ethnically-based Homelands. Lissoni and Ally (2018: 1) argue that the Bantustan project, albeit presented as a form of black self-determination, was "rejected by the liberation movement and its supporters as a political fraud: reservoirs of cheap African labour ruled by "puppet" governments, often consisting of illegitimately installed chiefs (and white civil servants from Pretoria), governed by tribal custom and coercive force". Notwithstanding assertions by the apartheid government that the homelands represented ideal units for separate development "the geographical organization of these spaces revealed their true intent to remove blacks from white areas and undermine the black population's capacity for political and economic empowerment" (King, 2006: 81-82). Behind the smokescreen of 'separate but equal' there was a reality of blatant racial oppression in the homeland system as apartheid sought to destroy African economic prospects and strip blacks of citizen rights in order to perpetuate white rule (Southall, 1982; Jensen and Zenker, 2015). The homelands represented "an economic ploy to ensure South African industry of a continuous supply of cheap black labour without paying any social price for it" (Schutte, 2003: 474).

Overall "very limited resources went to the homelands, critics maintained, rendering any semblance of economic autonomy ludicrous" (Jensen and Zenker, 2015: 941). Nevertheless, wasteful expenditure characterised the Homeland project with one of the most extreme being the extraordinary profligacy that South Africa attempted to build 10 new capital cities, one in each of the ethnic Homelands. As apartheid policies became more pronounced in the 1960s and 1970s the national government focussed attention on moving the Bantustans towards independence (King and McCusker, 2007; Phillips, 2017). The Bantu Homelands Constitution Act No. 21 of 1971 was the keystone legislation which gave South Africa the authority to grant independence to any of the Bantustans. Of the ten ethnic Bantustans only four - Transkei

(1976), Bophuthatswana (1977), Venda (1979) and Ciskei (1981) - eventually become ‘pseudo-states’ by acceding to ‘independence’ under the programme of grand apartheid (Jones, 1999). This change of status from self-governing state to ‘independence’ provided, however, a changed institutional environment for tourism development to occur in these areas.

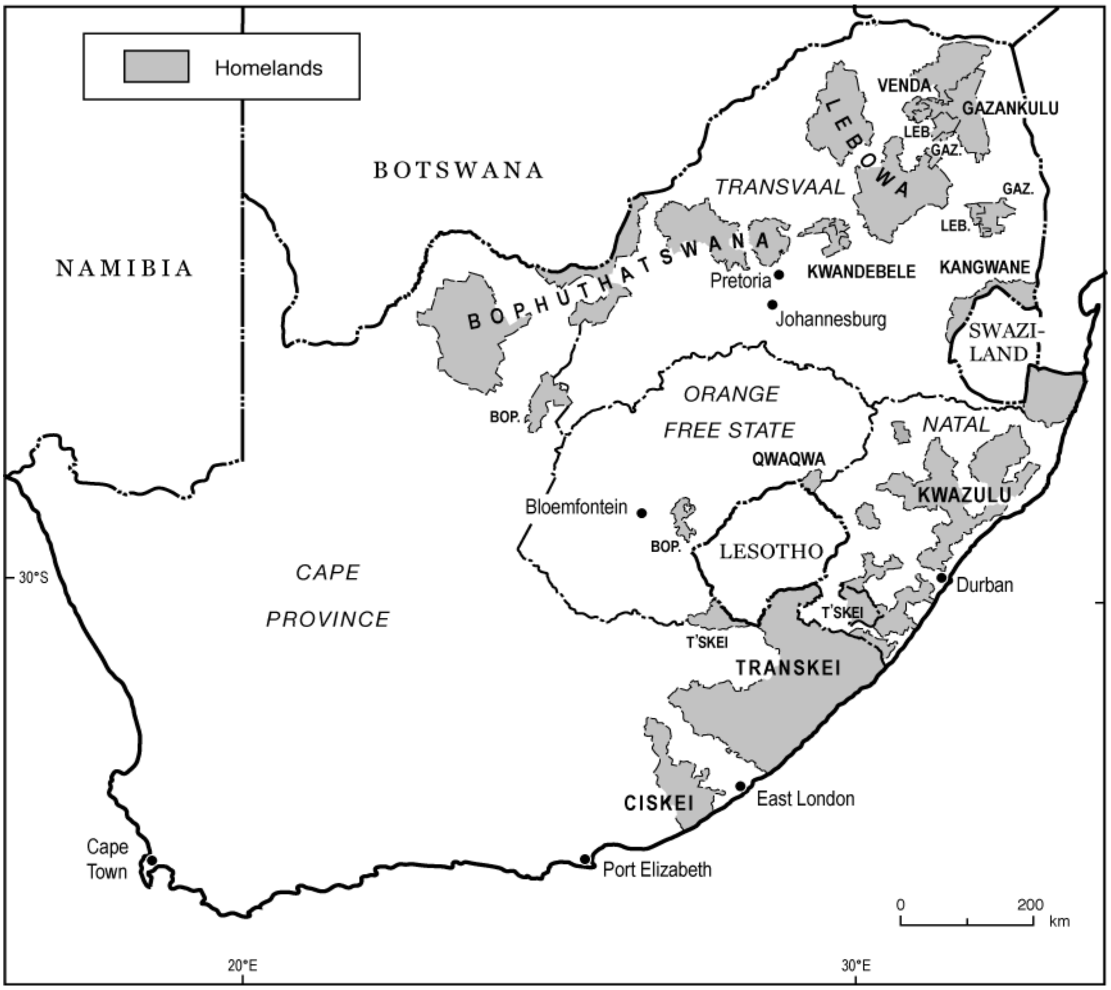

Figure.2. The Spaces of the Bantustans or Homelands of Apartheid South Africa (Source: Author)

TOURISM IN THE HOMELANDS UNDER APARTHEID

Given the lack of interest of the newly elected (1948) National Party government in tourism development as a whole, it is not surprising that tourism was not under consideration in the socio-economic planning report undertaken by the Tomlinson Commission (Union of South Africa, 1955). Pockets of tourism growth, however, did occur most notably at the Wild Coast area of Transkei which was a favoured destination for (white) domestic tourists from the 1940s. The Wild Coast was opened up for tourism by white cottage owners who confected the small seaside settlement of Coffee Bay with holiday cottages. By the 1960s Wildman (2005: 88) argues that Coffee Bay began to attract “a lot of domestic tourists” and in the early 1970s Coffee Bay even could be styled as “a flourishing holiday village” that was an increasing popular focus for the growing market of (white) domestic tourists under apartheid (Wildman, 2005: 96).

This area was exceptional for during the apartheid years mobilities and access to the Homelands often was challenging and restricted which constrained possibilities (especially) for rural tourism in villages. The message was stressed in parliament debates in the mid-1960s that international tourists coming to South Africa primarily were interested in wildlife “or else they come to see the Bantu” (*House of Assembly Debates*, 30 September 1966 Col. 3286). Rassool and Witz (1996: 360) highlight that visits by international tourists to the ‘picturesque bantu-lands’ were made difficult because “the roads and the accommodation in the ‘native territories’ were not adequately developed”. In addition, permits were required from the Secretary for Bantu Administration to visit many rural areas with the public restricted to only the highways running through Homeland territories. Schutte (2003: 474) reflects that “to take a byroad was an offense that not only incurred a fine but also made the offender politically suspect”. Indeed, those who did not adhere to government regulations were warned that they would be ‘severely punished’ (Rassool and Witz, 1996: 360). As a consequence, under apartheid legislation the public had “limited opportunities to observe indigenous ‘traditional’ culture due to restrictions on tourism in the homelands” (Schutte, 2003: 474). This said, it was stressed another limitation on international tourists in these areas was the fact that “most significantly many tourists were coming to the conclusion that in the ‘native territories’, the ‘natives’ were not native enough” (Rassool and Witz, 1996: 360). One example from Natal of the dwindling of ‘’native life’ was the controlled tours to the Valley of a Thousand Hills, the so-termed ‘House of the Zulu’, where tourists expressed growing disappointment on finding that the juxtaposed to the traditional thatched huts that they came to view were walls of corrugated iron as a reflection of 'modern' housing. In Natal organised tours were reorganised such that they were no longer "of that character where the tourists are really allowed to see exactly what the life of a Native kraal is, in the manner that they used to do some years ago" (*House of Assembly Debates,* 30 September 1966 Col. 3286).

Policy development surrounding tourism promotion in the Homelands began to occur from the 1960s. Following the 1963 grant of 'self-government' to Transkei there was recognition in South African parliamentary debates of the potential for developing tourism in the Transkei to glimpse 'Africa in the raw' and also of the corresponding need for improvement of the quality of local hotels in line with quality and grading standards which had been introduced in 1964-65 for South African hotels (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2022b). Attention was drawn to the increasing numbers of tour buses travelling into Transkei as well as tours that included overnight stops within Transkei. It was stated that "tours are arranged into the country districts, where dances are arranged for these overseas tourists to see. It is the most popular place for overseas tourists to-day" (*House of Assembly Debates,* 20 September 1966 Col. 3317). In particular, contrasts were drawn with Natal "where tours are not being arranged into Bantu areas any more, but in Transkei they are arranged for overseas visitors, and that is why the tours are so popular" (*House of Assembly Debates,* 20 September 1966 Col. 3317).

During the early 1970s, a period when the limitations and disappointments of planned industrial decentralisation programmes in the Bantustans, were becoming evident there were signs of further interest for promoting tourism in the Homelands. In parliamentary debates it was asserted that there might be "major advantages for the development of the tourism potential of the homelands" and that it was critically important "that the homelands be made aware of tourism, but particularly as far as the broad infrastructure of tourism is concerned" (*House of Assembly Debates,* 23 October, 1974 Col. 6210). Optimism was expressed for the development of tourism attractions in the Transkei "with its thrilling mountain scenery, trout fishing, sea angling along the Wild Coast, Coffee Bay and Mazeppa Bay" (*House of Assembly Debates* 23 October, 1974 Col. 6211). In 1974 South Africa's Minister of Tourism stated that "tourism is a very valuable asset" to the Homelands and in relative terms "it is of greater importance to them than to us" (*House of Assembly Debates,* 24 October, 1974 Col. 6255).

A major 'turning point' for tourism development was the acceptance of 'independence' by four of the Homelands. Notwithstanding widespread opposition towards the implementation of separate development, in 1976 Transkei became the first of South Africa's Bantustans to accept 'independence'. Wildman's (2005: 87) research at Coffee Bay shows that whilst 'independence' for Transkei "may have created new forms of tourism opportunities for the black government, it at the same time upset the region's traditional tourist base". Coastal tourism proprietors reported occupancy rates dropped dramatically following 'independence' as the core base of regular white domestic tourists was nervous if not 'scared' of holidaying in an area with a black government. This said, the major factor behind the collapse of Wild Coast tourism in the late 1970s was the decline of essential services. However, other tourism markets were opened by 'independence'. From the 1970s tourism became implicated in the apartheid project through the close linkages of major tourism enterprises and non-tourism capital with the political leaders of the Homelands (Grundlingh, 2006; van Eeden, 2007). Tourism developers and Bantustan governments were facilitated to take advantage of the status of 'independence' as a means to circumvent South African government restrictions towards what was deemed as such 'morally dubious' activities such as gambling, inter-racial relations and pornography. The Transkei, as with other subsequent 'independent' Bantustans, "provided the ideal location for white South Africans to indulge themselves" (Wildman, 2005: 86).

The growth of casino tourism in the four independent Homelands is viewed by Briedenhann and Wickens (2004) as an early form of rural tourism in these areas. Timothy (2001) contends tourism developers and homeland governments used the independent status of homelands to circumvent the strict policies of the South African government and establish resort complexes as well as a network of large casinos. Rural tourism thus was boosted by the programme of casino developments in the Homelands. The Tswana homeland, Bophuthatswana, was the first to receive such casino developments. The imperative need of the apartheid state both to legitimise Bantustan independence and to wean these chronically impoverished areas from their revenue dependency upon South Africa produced what Crush and Wellings (1983) refer to as an alliance of convenience with tourism capital. In terms of the 1971 Self-Governing Territories Constitution Act the Bantustans were granted powers to write their own laws which allowed for the establishment of casinos alongside the legalisation of gambling. In addition there were other laws which sanctioned interracial relationships and pornography (van der Merwe, 2017).

All the Bantustans were non-viable economic entities, struggled to attain financial independence and survived only through massive subsidies provided by the (white) South African government. It is against such a backdrop that Lucas Mangope, Bophuthatswana's president, and the Southern Sun hotelier, Sol Kerzner, entered "a mutually beneficial relationship to create casinos within the borders of the bantustans" (van der Merwe, 2017: 2). Meetings between the two parties are known to have been taking place at least since 1976. The hotelier, Sol Kerzner, "utilised the political and moral landscape of apartheid South Africa, and drew on bantustan "independence" to establish several casinos in these apartheid-created rural spaces (van der Merwe, 2017: 14). After lengthy negotiations with the 'slumlords' of Bophuthatswana, Southern Sun concluded an agreement for exclusive gambling rights in the territory and began investing and promises to open the local tourism economy. The first hotel/casino complex in the Bantustans was built at Mmabatho, the capital of Bophuthatswana, and readied for its opening to coincide with 'independence' in December 1977. The Mmabatho casino was followed closely by the much larger and more ambitious Sun City complex, proclaimed to match Las Vegas, which opened during December 1979 (van Eeden, 2007).

The Sun City casino was located just two hours drive from South Africa's economic heartland and its major cities of Johannesburg and Pretoria. For the apartheid government Sun City was used "to legitimise the homelands and was a convenient tool to transfer the cost of subsidising the bantustans from state funds over to private investment" (van der

Merwe, 2017: 21). In terms of the social production of space it was critical that Sun City was "literally established in another country" (van Eeden, 2007: 184). Sun City was designed in the lavish Las Vegas strip style, becoming the most notorious of all the Bantustan casinos with its roulette, slot machines, pornography, multi-racial sequined show revues and designer golf course. The establishment of "casinos and resorts in the bantustans satisfied the cravings of white South African for vices that they could not find at home" (van der Merwe, 2017: 1).

The casino rights to the 'independent' Homelands were divided between the two main hotel enterprises, the Holiday Inn and Southern Sun (Rogerson, 1990). The rights to casino development in Transkei and Venda were awarded to the South African subsidiary of Holiday Inn whilst Ciskei and Bophuthatswana granted the licence to Southern Sun. The period of the early 1980s was popularly styled as one of 'casino wars' which were played out between Southern Sun and Holiday Inn, as both enterprises sought to maximise access to the urban consumer gambling markets of South Africa by establishing competing casino resorts. Throughout the 1980s and early 1990s these mega-resort casino developments that were purpose-built by Sun International within the Bantustans emerged as significant tourism nodes, especially for domestic South African tourism. Indeed, within only a few years of completion, Sun City was drawing over a million visitors per year, the majority day visitors, albeit with a growing segment qualifying as tourists by spending at least one night away from their normal place of residence (Rogerson, 2004). Nevertheless, in van der Merwe's (2017) detailed study of gambling in Bophuthatswana, it was demonstrated that whilst Sun City brought exposure and infrastructure to the area most of the justifications for casino development never materialised, including high tax revenues, increased local employment, and the development of a heritage for the Tswana people. Instead, it was concluded that the "Sun City casino scheme aimed to further enrich individuals such as Kerzner and Mangope with the promised benefits unrealised for the 'citizens' of Bophuthatswana. Similar conclusions are reached concerning the impacts of the casino development that occurred in Transkei (Wildman, 2005).

CONCLUSION

The historical evolution of rural tourism destinations is a knowledge gap in tourism and change literature surrounding the Global South. Using a range of archival sources this study provides a first glimpse of the tourism trajectories that emerged in South Africa's former 'Native Reserves' which formed the basis for the territories that under apartheid were called the Bantustans or Homelands. As described by one observer these areas constitute the "geographical scars of apartheid" (Jensen, 2015: 91). Arguably, the historical specificities of these rural spaces triggered the appearance of particular forms of rural tourism. Initially, in colonial times there occurred visits from small cohorts of international tourists who were in search of 'primitive Native life'. Under apartheid the group of 'independent' Homelands offered the ideal location for white South Africans to indulge themselves and "to participate in peccadilloes long denied to them at home" (Crush and Wellings, 1983: 683). Beyond gambling Haines and Tomaselli (1992: 156) highlight these areas functioned as "pockets of permissiveness" offering soft-porn movies, semi-nude cabaret and opportunities for inter-racial sexual liaisons which were banned elsewhere.

Although the Bantustans were abolished formally prior to democratic transition their geographies have left a lasting imprint in South Africa's rural areas (Ramutsindela, 2001; King and McCusker, 2007). Following democratic transition a new institutional environment emerged to impact leisure tourism possibilities in these areas. Changes in casino legislation eroded the comparative advantage of these rural spaces for gambling and forced the casino resorts to adapt their business strategy with re-adjustments of their product mix (Ezeuduji et al., 2014). Beyond the casinos the opportunities for growing cultural tourism became a new potential focus in many of the former rural Homeland spaces. Overall, however, in the post-apartheid years these areas mostly have endured high levels of unemployment, becoming 'spaces of despair' and experiencing a situation of 'under-tourism' (Tseane-Gumbi and Ani, 2019). Schoeman (1998) showed that following democratic transition there had been virtually no tourism development in the former Qwa-Qwa Homeland. Likewise, it was disclosed after five years of post-apartheid national reintegration minimal tourist developments had taken place in the former Venda and Gazankulu Homelands (Anyumba, 2000). From 1994 most of the territory of the former Homelands became what has been styled as 'in-between' rural spaces and experienced minimal leisure tourism with local tourism dominated by visits from friends and relatives (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2021f). The unfolding of this 'modern' phase of rural tourism development in the former rural Homelands requires further exploration by tourism scholars.

Acknowledgements

Arabella Rogerson is thanked for editorial inputs and Wendy Job credited for preparation of the map. Robbie, Dawn and Skye Norfolk offered valued inputs. The University of Johannesburg provided research funding.

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Article history: Received: 16.08.2021 Revised: 06.12.2021 Accepted: 10.01.2022 Available online: 01.02.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.129-135
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40115-811

A POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT BASED ON PARTICIPATORY APPROACHES: A CASE STUDY IN THE KEDUNG OMBO TOURISM AREA-INDONESIA

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Citation: Ariyani, N., & Fauzi, A. (2022). A POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT BASED ON PARTICIPATORY APPROACHES: A CASE STUDY IN THE KEDUNG OMBO TOURISM AREA-INDONESIA. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 129–135. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40115-811

Abstract: This research aims to find an alternative policy framework on tourism development Kedung Ombo-Indonesia. This study uses a qualitative approach by applying Multipol analysis method. Collecting data uses a focus group discussion method. The research participants are stakeholders of the area, such as local governments, reservoir managers, forest directors, and society. The result shows that an institutional development policy supported by good governance development programs is the best policy in the integrated scenario. Meanwhile, tourism development policies supported by developing public facilities, tourism convenience, tourism interest, marketing and promotion, and service quality are the best policy in the individual scenario.

Key words: development, Kedung Ombo, policy, tourism, Multipol

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism has become a dynamic social and economic phenomenon impacting many countries and societies (Arintoko et al., 2020). Tourism is a path of progress for many countries globally and a leverage factor in preserving local culture, tradition, and custom, directly contributing to the gross domestic product and playing an active role in environmental protection (Liu et al., 2019). Furthermore, through an integrated policy, tourism generates a higher quality of job vacancy for increasing economic and social growth, and it offers a triple-win impact for countries to move towards an inclusive and resilient economy (Khan, 2020; Yanes et al., 2019; Baptista et al., 2019; Băndoi et al., 2020; Gohori and Merwe, 2020; Prandi et al., 2021). Indonesia is a rich potential natural tourism country, and the tourism sector has become a central issue playing a vital role in the Indonesian economy (Utomo et al., 2020). Tourism development in Indonesia has been proven to provide significant benefits for the national economy and accelerate the process of economic transformation to rural areas (Nugroho et al., 2018). According to the vital role of the tourism sector in various dimensions, tourism is a sector that is always encouraged by the Indonesian government (Kodir et al., 2020). However, the tourism development in several regions in Indonesia shows insignificant results and a risky unsustainable program. Without planning involving stakeholders, overlapping policies and tourism planning more emphasize on technical aspects are the causative factors. As a complex system (Baggio, 2020), tourism development requires an accurate plan supported by all stakeholders (Coburn et al., 2021; McComb et al., 2017; dos Anjos and Kennell, 2019; Joseph et al., 2021), and it should be based on a target-oriented, participative, and comprehensive strategic approach (Arbolino et al., 2020). Tourism development in Kedung Ombo in Central Java Province is an example of unsuccessful tourism development. The absence of planning, the direction of development policies, and weak coordination among stakeholders have caused the development process to run slowly and almost unsustainably (Ariyani and Fauzi, 2019). The process of development, which has been started in 1999, has only produced a few tourist spots developed by several parties where the condition of the attractions, facilities, and convenience is limited. As a result, the impact on the society around the place has not been realized (Ariyani and Umar, 2020).

Kedung Ombo is a village that has rich natural resources for tourism, such as a forest and reservoir, which is the largest reservoir in Southeast Asia (1.8 kilometers in length, 18 meters in width, 96 meters in height, consisting of 2.830 hectares of water areas and 3.746 hectares of land). This place is located in three districts which are Grobogan, Sragen, and Boyolali. In the Kedung Ombo area, the local government does not handle it alone. Still, there are strong institutions in managing the place, Indonesian State Forestry Corporations in Juwangi and Gundih and the manager of Kedung Ombo Dam. Suppose the tourism potency in Kedung Ombo is well developed; it will significantly assist the economic growth by the infrastructure improvement and local community welfare related to the expansion of job vacancies. Moreover, it will help to reduce the forest damage due to high levels of illegal logging and optimize the multifunction of

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the reservoir as irrigation, power plants, and a tourism place according to the target of the Kedung Ombo reservoir at the beginning of its building. Furthermore, the scarcity of tourist destinations, especially in the Grobogan and Sragen regions, is also an opportunity to develop the tourism area in the future. This research is designed to find an appropriate policy framework for tourism development in Kedung Ombo. The policy framework will be a roadmap that the development should be able to acquire the tourism potency and impact on regional economic growth. It also can reduce forest damage and protect the primary function of the reservoir. The proposed policy framework includes policy options, scenarios, and programs based on the principle of Multipol (Panagiotopoulou and Stratigea, 2014). The result of the research is expected to fill the gap in the tourism development policy in Indonesia, especially in areas involving multi-actors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sustainable Tourism Development Concepts

Along with the successful and inherent tourism, which has positive and negative impacts on society, economy, and environment, a sustainable issue becomes an essential topic and concept in tourism planning and development (Postma and Schmuecker, 2017). Sustainable tourism is defined as all forms, including tourism management and development activities that maintain natural, economic, and social integrity and ensure the maintenance of natural and cultural resources (Kisi, 2019). Furthermore, sustainable tourism is also a development model in which human and natural resources are united and well-coordinated with the economic, social, resource, and environmental issues (Guo et al., 2019).

Achieving sustainable tourism requires a sustainable development process involving all interested parties' planning and coordination (Panasiuk, 2020). The development goal of potential tourism is to create long-term mutually beneficial interactions between increasing community welfare, environmental sustainability, and visitor satisfaction, and inclining the integration and unity of community development around the area (Romão et al., 2017).

Tourism Development Policies

Tourism development is defined as a part of efforts to actualize the integration in the use of various tourism resources and integrate all forms of aspects outside of tourism that are directly or indirectly related to the continuity of tourism development (Lin et al., 2021). The success of tourism development highly depends on the integration of policy, planning, and management tools (Pazhuhan and Shiri, 2020). In addition, tourism planning and policy are the most significant factors determining how tourism develops and how tourism benefits and impacts are distributed (Dredge and Jamal, 2015). Planning and policies are needed as a road map to determine development direction and regulate the tourism actors for running the activities (Almeida et al., 2017; Angelevska and Rakicevik, 2012). Furthermore, effective tourism planning helps deal with the negative effect of tourism, primarily environmental and community impacts (Almeida et al., 2017) (Dunets et al., 2019). In this context, the environment of policymakers becomes a strategic element to maintain the integration of the various motives, interests, and goals of stakeholders in order to realize sustainable tourism in the future (Arbolino et al., 2020). A tourism policy is a product of a very complex process and is related to various aspects (Rizal et al., 2021). A tourism policy is a set of discourses, decisions, and practices which are promoted by the government in collaboration with either the private or social executants to achieve a variety of goals (Velasco, 2020). Additionally, a tourism policy is an intentional action beyond the level of theoretical reflection and political intentions, which are realized into a concrete action that involves the use of public resources and the responsibility of public sector stakeholders (Zielinski et al., 2020). The government has to be a central actor, yet tourism policies do not have to be promoted and implemented exclusively by the public (Velasco, 2020). Therefore, a synergy among the government, entrepreneurs, and society is needed to plan the tourism project and development (Rizal et al., 2021; Aktymbayeva et al., 2021). The development of tourism policies, plans, and strategies should ideally ensure a harmonious symbiosis with the environment, and social life of the area occurred (Liasidou, 2019). Tourism policies must be integrated with consistent actors or at least actions designed to be consistent (Koliouska and Andreopoulou, 2020).

A tourism policy includes an uncertainty associated with selecting appropriate methods for generating scenarios, identifying the indicators used to assess scenarios, evaluating scenarios to prioritize the policy formula, and assessing the impact of policy scenarios (Perveen et al., 2017). There are many factors that can be obstacles to developing the tourism area, such as lack of attractions, demands, local resilience, climate change, and political restrictions (Paunović and Jovanović, 2017). Besides, the issue is to plan a project that emphasizes more on the technical aspect which should be a political issue about regulating all tourism elements towards sustainable tourism development (Aktymbayeva et al., 2021; Rizal et al., 2021).

Planning and policies are closely interrelated in the context of tourism governance (Dredge and Jamal, 2015). Effective governance and management are vital factors in developing a sustainable tourist area (Liu et al., 2019). Tourism governance helps to explore the constituencies of tourism places and focuses on providing direction and boundaries for tourism destinations (Bichler, 2021). Furthermore, the notion of governance has complemented tourism planning, which is not enough or can be replaced by just organizing or coordinating (Volgger et al., 2018).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

This research implements the qualitative approach to map the policy options, the scenarios, and the priority programs for the tourism development in Kedung Ombo sustainably. Collecting data is conducted through the participatory approach that is focus group discussions by involving the participants and informants, which is representative of the local government of Grobogan, Boyolali, and Sragen District, dam management, forestry management, and the local community.

The data are analysed using the policy analysis method with Multipol technic (Multicriteriapolicy). Multipol is the multicriteria evaluation method to test the effectiveness of various policies and actions to the scenario, including determining the framework from the best options of actions, policies, and scenarios for the project (Panagiotopoulou and Stratigea, 2014; Martelo et al., 2020). The stages of implementing the participatory approach and data analysis based on the Multipole method are shown in Figure 1. The participatory stage results a series of inputs needed in the Multipole analysis method. The inputs include success criteria, alternative programs, policies and scenarios as presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Successful Criteria, Alternative Program Action, Policy and Scenario (Source: Primary Data)

Criteria	Symbol	Program	Symbol	Policy	Symbol	Scenario	Symbol
Increasing tourist attraction	C1	Public facility building program	A1	Tourism development policy	P1	Integrated development scenario	S1
Increasing visitor satisfaction	C2	Tourism facility development program	A2	Infrastructure development policy	P2	Individual development scenario	S2
Increasing the economic activity and entrepreuneur	C3	Entrepreneurship education and training program	A3	Institutional development policy	P3		
Increasing the job opportunity for local community	C4	Tourism care development program	A4	Community development policy	P4		
Increasing the economy-social relationship in surrounding area	C5	Security, safety and environmental protection program	A5				
Developing the care community towards tourism	C6	Good governance development program	A6				
Decreasing the environmental damage	C7	Tourist attraction development program	A7				
Protected the main reservoir function	C8	Service quality development program	A8				
Increasing the local revenue and forest multifunction	C9	Communication and information technology development program	A9				
Increased collaboration between local government, Perhutani, and Kedung Ombo management	C10	Marketing and promotion development program	A10				

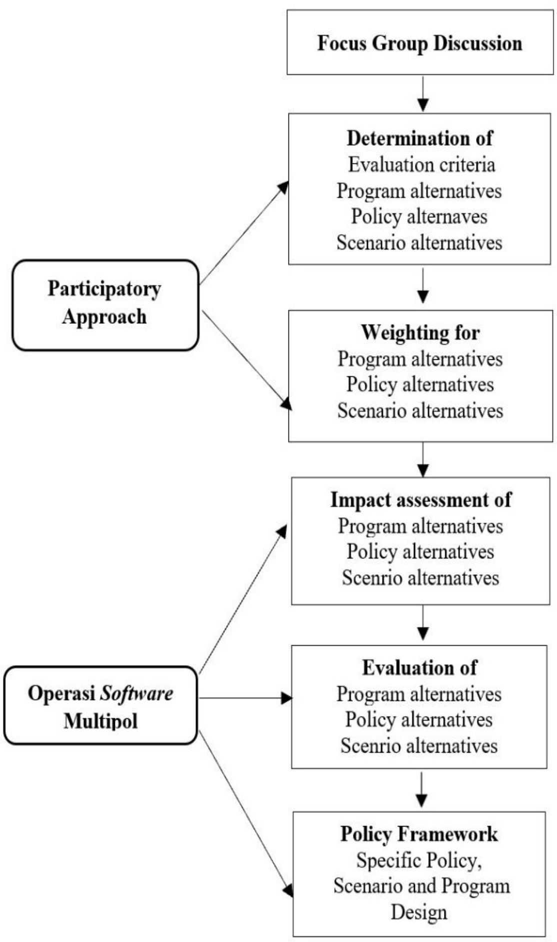

Figure 1. Stages of Determining the Policy Framework Based on the Multipole Method

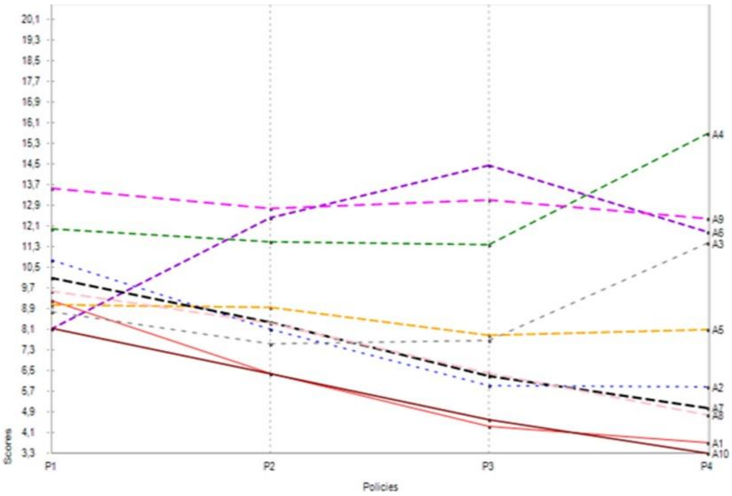

Figure 2. Program Map Towards Policy

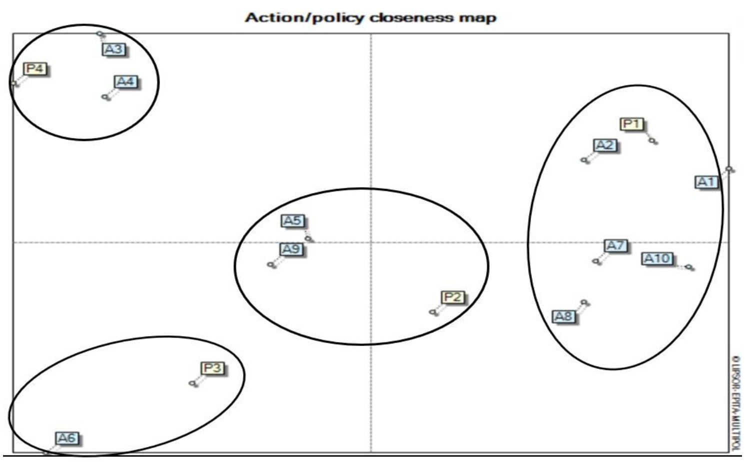

Figure 3. Closeness of Program Towards Policy

Evaluation criteria are assessment dimensions that can be measured from the various possible options being considered that can be achieved. Evaluation criteria are the basis of any evaluation process to assess the performance of alternative scenarios, policies, and programs involved in the evaluation process. Scenarios are structured future developments in which the goals and objectives set for the system/problem at hand are achieved. Policy is a strategy to achieve the goals and objectives in planning that is closely related to the political, social, economic, and physical context in which the evaluation takes place. Meanwhile, program actions relate to potential interventions aimed at policy implementation (Panagiotopoulou and Stratigea, 2014).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Evaluation Program towards Policy

The results of program evaluation towards the policy are shown in Table 2, showing the order of priority programs that are favoured in the tourism development of Kedung Ombo. The priority order is based on the average value and the standard deviation of each program to the policy. From Table 2, it is known the development program of communication and information technology is the most superior program. The finding is appropriate to the condition of the Kedung Ombo area, which is still very lacking in access to information technology. In contrast, the development program of marketing development and promotion is not a priority. Figure 2 is shown the featured programs of each policy. From figure 2, it can be seen that the tourism development policy (P1), the development program of communication and information technology, is the most superior program, while the marketing and promotion development programs are the least favoured. In the infrastructure development policy (P2), the communication and information technology development program is the superior program. In the institutional development policy (P3), the good governance development program (A6) is the flagship program. Meanwhile, in the community development policy (P4), the tourism care community development program (A4) is the superior program. Figure 3 shows the proximity of action programs to the policy. From Figure 3, it is known that the tourism development policy is closely related to public facilities development programs, tourism facilities development programs, tourist attraction development programs, service quality development programs, and marketing and promotion development programs. Meanwhile, infrastructure development policies are closely related to security and safety programs, and communication and information technology development programs. Meanwhile, institutional development policies are closely related to good governance development programs. Furthermore, community development policies are closely related to entrepreneurship education and training programs, and tourism care development programs. The closeness of the policy with the program can be interpreted that to implement a policy, it must be supported by closely related programs.

The Policy Evaluation Towards Scenario

The results of the policy evaluation towards the scenario, are presented in Table 3, that shows the order in which policies are favoured. The tourism development and promotion policy (P1) is the most superior policy, followed by the institutional development policy (P3) as the next leading policy. The next rank is the community development policy (P4), and the infrastructure development policy (P2) is the last leading policy. Figure 4 presents the order of policy advantages in each scenario. It is known that the institutional development policy (P3) is the most superior policy in the integrated development scenario (S1), while the community development policy (P4) is not favoured. In the individual development scenario (S2), the community development policy (P4) is the most featured, while the infrastructure development policy (P2) is not the superior policy. Figure 5 shows that the tourism development policy (P1) is a policy determinant of success in developing tourism in Kedung Ombo. This policy needs to be espoused by institutional development policies (P3) which are in the upper right quadrant, while community development and infrastructure development policies are the supporting policies.

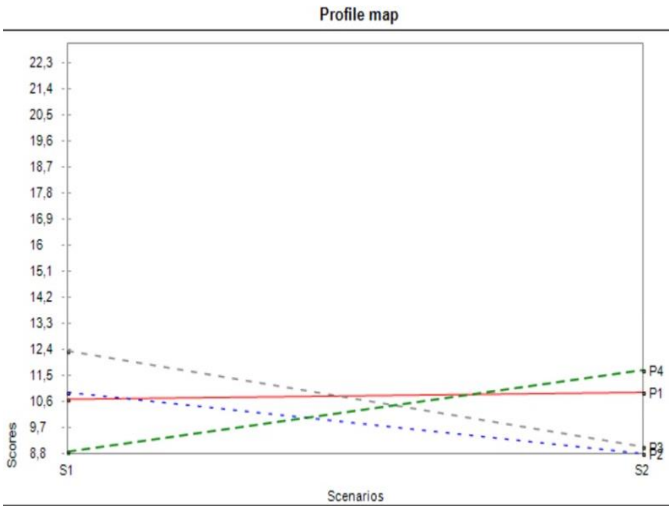

Figure 4. Priority Policy Map Towards Scenario

Table 2. Program Excellence Order
(Source: The Multipol Analysis Results)

Action Program /Policy	Mean	Deviation Standard	Ranking
A1	6	2.1	2
A2	7.8	2	6
A3	8.8	1.5	7
A4	12.5	1.7	9
A5	8.5	0.5	6
A6	11.7	2.3	8
A7	5.3	0.9	4
A8	7.4	1.8	3
A9	13	0.4	10
A10	5.7	1.8	1

Table 3. Order of Policy Excellence
(Source: The Multipole Analysis Results)

Policy/Scenario	Average	Deviation Standard	Ranking
P1	10.8	0.1	4
P2	9.8	1.1	1
P3	10.7	1.7	3
P4	10.3	1.4	2

Figure 6 shows the policy options for each scenario. In the integrated development scenario (S1), the institutional development policy (P3) and the infrastructure development policy (P2) are the superior policies, while in the individual development scenario (S2), tourism development policies and community development are the leading policies.

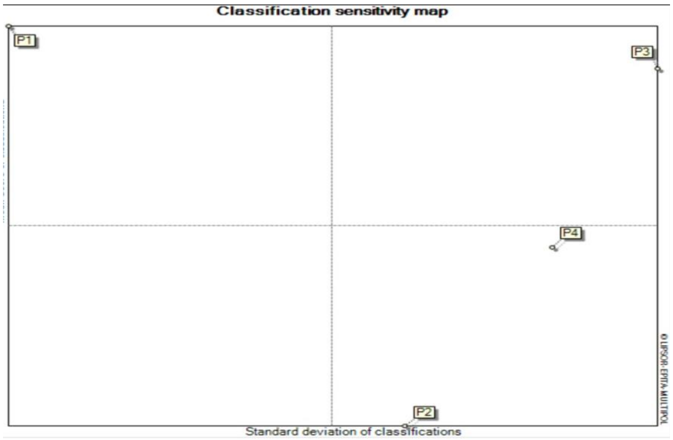

Figure 5. Policy Sensitivity Map

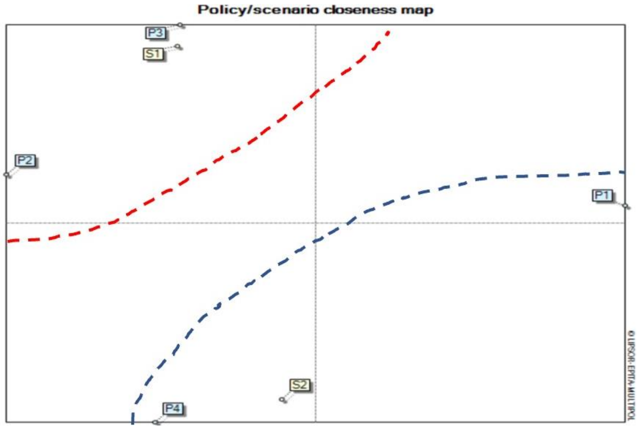

Figure 6. Policy Closeness Towards Scenario

Policy Framework for Realizing Kedung Ombo Tourism

The results of the evaluation to program, policy and scenario have been outlined, becoming the basis for determining alternative policy framework which is suitable with implemented tourism development in Kedung Ombo. This policy framework is presented in Figure 7, explaining the policy path for each scenario along with the proposed programs.

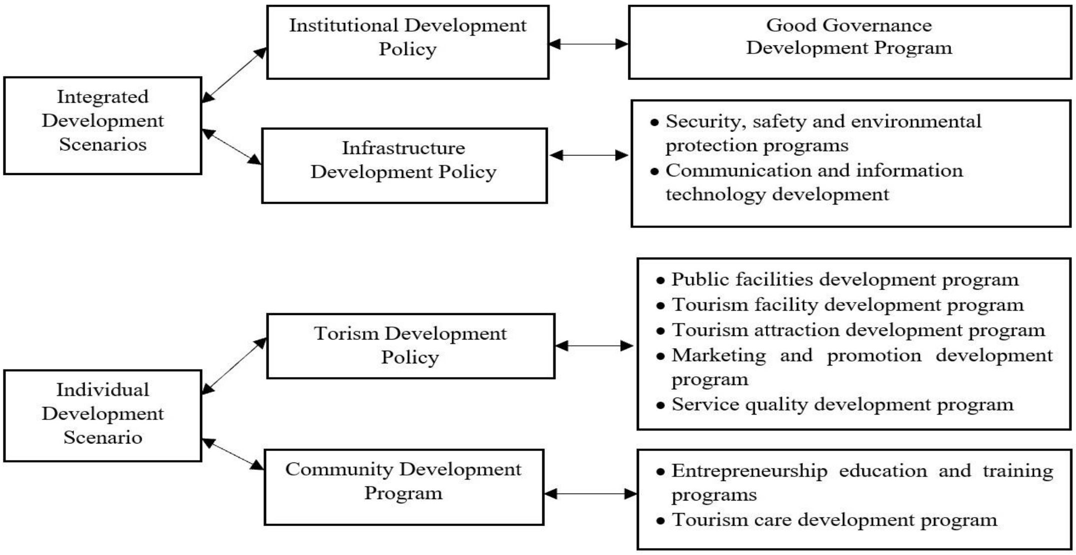

Figure 7. Potential Policy Pathways to Achieving each of the Future Scenarios of Kedung Ombo Tourism

Figure 7 explains the road map to tourism development in Kedung Ombo, started from the scenario choices, policies, and the superior programs. From the figure, it can be known to develop tourism in Kedung Ombo can be chosen two alternative development scenarios which are both integrated and individual scenarios. The integrated scenario combines all stakeholder tourism plans in the integrated system. The integrated scenario describes the collaborative work of local governments, forest and reservoir managers and communities to develop tourism in Kedung Ombo together.

This scenario emphasizes the efforts to connect between various stakeholders and resources to shape tourism multi-purpose. Tourism attractions that can be developed include horse racing, agro tourism, safari parks, golf courses, cable cars to enjoy the view of the Kedung Ombo area from a height, playgrounds, and culinary delights. The integrated scenario is an appropriate alternative if it is supported by the commitment of all stakeholders.

Considering the actors freely assigns their goals and takes a strategic action to achieve the goals (Heger and Rohrbeck, 2012), the individual development scenario can be the alternative tourism development in Kedung Ombo. The individual development scenario is how Kedung Ombo tourism in the future will structurally be developed by each stakeholder separetedly. For example, each district develops their tourist destinations according to the potency of the region. This scenario is adequate relevant reminding there are so many and various interest actors in the Kedung Ombo area that have different goals and missions. As a consequence of this choice, each stakeholder must develop their capacity to provide the necessary resources to improve the infrastructure, tourism facilities and services, community building, and tourism workers.

CONCULSION

The emphasis of this paper is on finding a development policy design based on a participatory planning approach in the tourism area of Kedung Ombo. The Multipole method that is used provides the solutions that facilitate the interests of several parties by presenting alternative options scenarios for tourism development along with the required policy directions for the implementation of development and program proposals. The results of the Multipole evaluation point out that the institutional development policy is the best policy in the integrated scenario. The integrated scenario is a development scenario carried out together by all stakeholders in a coordinated manner. This scenario is appropriate to Kisi's statement that one of the indicators of sustainable tourism is cross-border cooperation and stakeholder participation (Kisi, 2019). This scenario directs that all tourism locations and attractions in the Kedung Ombo area are connected. The superior program supporting this scenario is the good governance development which determines the involvement of stakeholders and regulates their respective roles based on coordination. This policy is appropriate to overcome the sectoral ego which has become prominent in a phenomenon involving many actors. In individual scenarios, each stakeholder undertakes their development of potential tourism resources.

In this scenario, tourism development policies and community policies are the leading policies. Priority programs needing to be implemented to follow this policy are programs for building public facilities, developing tourist attractions, developing marketing and promotion programs, developing service quality programs, education and training programs and developing tourism care. Considering the dynamic nature of the environment, the proposed policy framework provides the possibility of decision-making flexibility regarding unforeseen changes in the external environment in the future. Therefore, policy decisions must be prepared to be reoriented based on appropriate policy choices for each situation and environmental attribute in the future. Thus, the sustainable development of Kedung Ombo tourism will be achieved. Finally, the lessons that can be drawn from this study are related to the complex participatory processes and interactions between policies, actions and scenarios in tourism management and planning. As this study can make clear, no single policy has to do with a single program. On the other hand, a multi-policy combination and consideration of various actions or programs suit tourism development under different scenarios.

Acknowledgment.

This study was supported by the Decentralization Grants of Education and Culture Republic Indonesia Ministry in 2020. We also thank for representatives of the participants who have helped and assisted during the research.

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Article history: Received: 12.08.2021 Revised: 15.12.2021 Accepted: 11.01.2022 Available online: 01.02.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.136-143
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40116-812

THERMAL TOURISM AS A DRIVER OF LOCAL DEVELOPMENT, AN ILLUSTRATION OF OPPORTUNITIES AND CONSTRAINTS. CASE STUDY OF HAMMAM-GUERGOUR IN THE PROVINCE OF SÉTIF, ALGERIA

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Citation: Fertas, L., Alouat, M., & Benmahamed, H. (2022). THERMAL TOURISM AS A DRIVER OF LOCAL DEVELOPMENT, AN ILLUSTRATION OF OPPORTUNITIES AND CONSTRAINTS. CASE STUDY OF HAMMAM-GUERGOUR IN THE PROVINCE OF SÉTIF, ALGERIA. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 136–143. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40116-812

Abstract: Algeria is the largest country in the Mediterranean Basin, but it have classified at the bottom of the ranking in terms of tourism's share of GDP. It is a pristine tourist destination that has unfortunately not been sufficiently exploited, This paper attempts to analyse and understand the dilemma between an incompatible natural potential and the persistence of the proven delay of touristic development by the case study of a mountain municipality of Hammam Guergour. Which is well known for its mineral springs, and which in turn has contributed to the activity of thermal tourism. We used the (SWOT) method which allows internal and external analyses of Thermal tourism. SWOT analysis is used to exploit the opportunities for development in the region, and then how development actors can outperform. The aim is to determine how force factors are used to take advantage of opportunities for development in the region, and then how development actors can overcome weaknesses and then push back threats. We noted striking disparities between the more or less structured spaces in the high plains of the Sétif region, such as the Sétif – El Eulma axis; and a deconstructed mountain space, because the implementation of activities and equipment's does not respond to the existing constraints of Hammam Guergour.

Key words: thermal tourism, SWOT analysis, Hammam-Guergour, local development

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INTRODUCTION

A promising tourism potential in slow motion

The tourism industry became the fastest growing industry in the world. Although tourism has long been considered one of the structuring components of the tertiary sector, it has remarkably evolved towards the secondary sector. The latter has significantly boosted tourism, which has notably contributed to the economic development of several countries. Tourism today represents an economic activity employing 10% of the world's workforce for more than a billion tourists. In 2017, tourism increased exponentially by 7%, the highest increase in seven years (UNWTO, 2018). Therefore, tourism has become an essential economic sector and a development driver, an important source of income, and an alternative for many countries and regions using attraction strategies and facilities to attract visitors with rapidly changing expectations (Gwiazdzinski et al., 2019). International organizations, including the World Bank, the European Union, and the World Tourism Organization, recognize international tourism as a promising development sector. International tourism could be a powerful tool to directly address the poverty issues, especially in developing countries (Caire and Le Masne, 2007). The United Nations declared 2017 as the International Year of Tourism for Sustainable Development. In fact, sustainable tourism development is defined as the tourism sector's ability to stimulate economic growth by creating jobs, attracting investment and fostering entrepreneurship, while helping to preserve ecosystems and biodiversity and protect cultural heritage (UNCTAD, 2017). During the 2011-2014 period, Northern Africa was one of the top tourist destinations on Africa. This region recorded the highest number of international tourist arrivals, reaching 47% of the total tourist arrivals on the continent (UNCTAD 2017). Algeria is a practically an unknown tourist destination which, unfortunately, remains under-exploited, unlike other Mediterranean countries. Indeed, this country possesses an important tourist potential capable of creating an important and successful tourism industry (Herouat, 2012). This largest country of the Maghreb ranks lowest regarding its tourism sector's contribution to GDP, ranked

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111th out of 184 countries, far behind Tunisia (49th) and Morocco (38th). Indeed, the latest report of the World Tourism and Travel Council (WTTC) highlights the stagnation of the tourism sector as it contributed to the GPD with 2.5% in 2017. Therefore, Algeria’s tourism activity remains the lowest among the 12 Mediterranean countries (Cheriet et al., 2016). The Algerian State has long been the exclusive actor in the investment and management of the tourist sector.

The extent of the caused damage led to the emergence of a new perspective on this sector that has long been neglected and even underestimated. A difficult economic and financial crisis affecting Algeria since June 2014 (the drastic drop in oil prices from almost 120 dollars a barrel to 26 dollars with the appearance of covid 19), led decision-makers to consider a new alternative to promote the tourism sector using the appropriate tools available.

Promising tourist potential

Algeria is at 2 hours flight from Europe, offering exceptional assets: a sunny Mediterranean climate, a very vast space, unique landscapes, and varied historical sites. With its multiple, African, Mediterranean and Eastern regions, it offers a trilogy of landscapes: the sea, the mountains and the desert. The Algerian coastline extends over 1600 kilometers with vast beaches of fine sand and a sea warmer than in Italy or Spain. The mountainous inlands are more favorable to hiking and adventure tourism Kelfaoui et al., 2021) Indeed, the Djurdjura Massif, offers alpinism and skiing opportunities during the winter period. The Algerian Sahara, one of the most beautiful places in the world, covers an area of 2 million Km². Moreover, the Hoggar and the Tassili, home of an ancient civilization, is a unique tourism gem. The Algerian Thermal springs are located in the mountains, on the northern border, from east to west, attracting mainly local tourists (Widmann, 1976). The thermal tourism may be an interesting domestic tourism option in Algeria, given its therapeutic virtues that promote real investment and development opportunities, and the abundance of natural sources throughout the country. This tourism type fits perfectly as a sustainable tourism that does not require one season, unlike seaside or Saharan tourism, and therefore it offers sustainable attractiveness opportunities. The thermal assessment, carried out in 2015, identifies 282 thermal springs, spread over 38 provinces of the national territory, more than 200 hot springs are listed in the Northern part of the country (Bendaikha and Larbi, 2012).

Figure 1. Roman theater of Djemila (North of Algeria) classified as a World Heritage Site (Source: Authors, 2020)

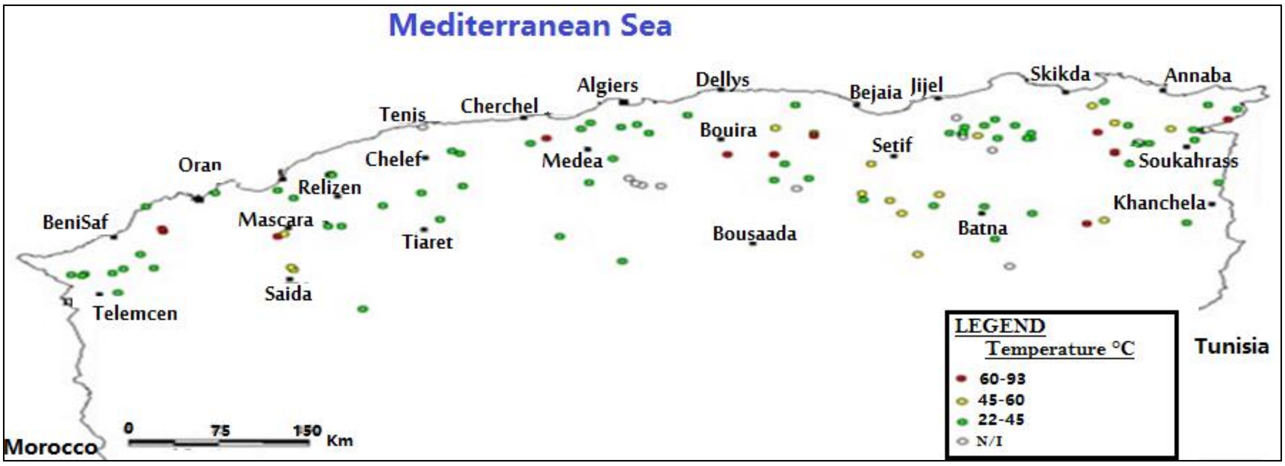

Figure 2. Temperature of main thermal springs in Algeria (Source: Fekraoui and al., 2000)

For the Arabian society, thermal therapy is both religious and medical (Boufassa, 2018). Marriage preparation is traditionally performed at the Hammam (traditional baths). Indeed, this is where wedding rituals are celebrated according to customs and traditions (Zirari, 1993). It is believed that the Hammam is surrounded and inhabited by the Sollah or the Salihine, commonly called in the society's cultural fabric - the good spirits of places and waters. The infertile women pray intercession and pledge (Adel and Benghabrit, 2014). Dekhlat-el-Hammam, which means the entrance to the Hammam, is a popular passage in all life events: birth, circumcision, marriage. The Hammam is a special place to relax, as it representgood hygiene, purification, well-being and the strengthening of social relationships.

"Bathing" is subject to specific rules based on the Qur'an and the Hadith of the Prophet (pbuh). In fact, measures are implemented to ensure that bathing and all forms of relationships between men and women in this place are properly managed (Benkheira, 2010). The separation between men and women is strict, except for married couples proven by a civic act. Our study concerns Hammam Guergour, also called Hammam Sidi-El-Djoudi, a spiritual leader to whom the Zaouia is dedicated - a word that also comes from the Arabic word (inzawa), meaning "to withdraw from the outer world" and refers to a religious place of worship, with rooms reserved for teaching the Holy Quran and meditation. Also, the founding saints of the Zaouia are buried nearby. The bathing ritual is mandatory when visiting the Zaouia. The Hammam-Guergour municipality houses a spiritual religious site and a recognized natural tourist potential: thermal water known worldwide for its therapeutic qualities and a mountainous region expected to be highly visited during all seasons. Policies designed to address significantly the key points affecting the tourism sector in its multiple forms, extending over time and space, and exploiting the advantages and assets it offers, will lead to a coherent and sustainable policy, within the local governance framework that recovers the basic elements of the public service and substitutes the energy sector, a sector long valued and in danger of disappearing in the long run. A local tourism development plan based on sustainability and collaboration with local communities is needed. Finally, we will discuss the local tourism assets of this region, and the risks that threaten its development.

ANALYSIS METHODOLOGY

1. Location of the study area

The municipality of Hammam Guergour is one of the 60 municipalities of Setif province (Figure 3) located at 50 km north-west of Algiers, covering an area of 85.7 Km², a mountainous region bordered by the Babor and Biban ranges, with steep slopes, dominated mainly by the mountains of Kraim el Ghar and Mount Tafath, reaching over 1600 meters. This municipality is distinguished by its North east sub climate, with a hot, dry summer and a cold, wet winter, with an average annual rainfall of 700 mm (Mrad et al., 2020). The thermal spring of Hammam-Guergour is located in the North-West of Setif province, on the border of the National Road No 74. It is at the exit of Oued Bousselem's gorges.

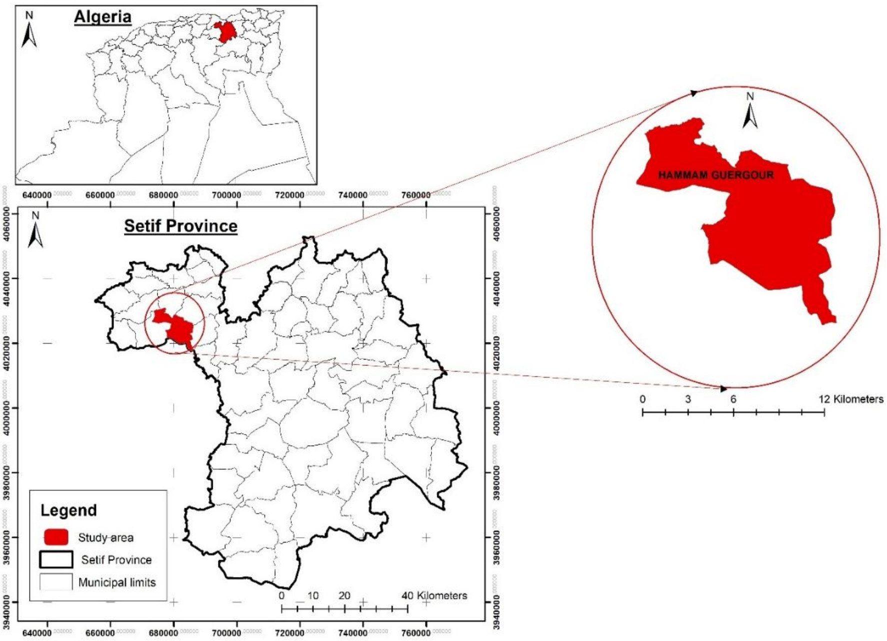

Figure 3. Locatin of Municipality of Hammam Guergour, Setif, Algeria (Source: Authors, 2020)

2. Aims and challenges:

This paper aims to answer some relevant questions to understand the particular situation of the Hammam Guergour municipality. In our work, we tackled, on the one hand, the thermal tourism of the municipality, which was not previously examined precisely through time and space, except for the Tourist Development Plan (TDP) by the National Agency for Tourism Development. On the other hand, we attempt to conduct an in-depth analysis to explain the existing gap between the region's natural potential and the perpetuation of a delay in local development. We will highlight the factors preventing the economic and social development of the Hammam Guergour community and its future, following the World Tourism Organization's charter stating that "tourism must be ecologically sustainable in the long term, economically viable and ethically and socially equitable for the local population (Rouzet and Seguin, 2010; Venzal, 2012). To this aim, the following questions were asked:

- What are the strengths and weaknesses of Hammam Guergour's tourism potential?
- What are the constraints that hinder the expansion of thermal tourism in this region?
- How can thermal tourism become a driver for the region's local development?

A discussion aiming to introduce a policy integrating thermal tourism in the dynamics of the Hammam Guergour's local development enables a coherent and balanced functioning in the short, medium and long term. Finally, we outline the actions likely to boost the development and enhancement of local tourism assets and promote its potential over time. We also highlight the contribution of local actors to transform the municipality into a tourism destination.

3. Analysis method

We used the case study as a research strategy, with a literature review and data collection. The main results include the identification of the interrelations and impacts that exist between the region of Setif and Hammam Guergour in particular, to determine the reasons of tourism development the failures (region and micro-region). To better focus our work and to distinguish all the strengths, weaknesses and opportunities that prevent the tourism development of Hammam Guergour municipality, we used the SWOT analysis (Strengths, Weakness, Opportunities, Threats) to establish a comprehensive diagnosis that helps in the decision-making of an effective tourism development strategies.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. The SWOT analysis of the tourism in Hammam Guergour:

The SWOT analysis allows to collect and to intersect the internal and external factors of the region. The aim of this technique is to determine the way in which the strength factors are used to properly exploit the development opportunities of the region, and then to determine ways in which development stakeholders can overcome the weaknesses and threats. The analysis is organized along two axes as follows Table 1.

4.2 The historical, natural and therapeutic assets and potentials of the region

The Hammam Guergour is a historical place where the emergence of thermal groundwater is the founding factor of the agglomeration, and allowed ancient civilizations to flourish for a long period of time. Ruins buried under the current urban network together with the few vestiges attest to an ancient Roman city that flourished more than 2500 years ago. Thus, the Roman city that had developed near its sources bore the name of: Sava.

Remains of this city are found in this region: vestiges, (pipes, swimming pools) a mausoleum and several Christian inscriptions including a memoria of the martyrs Rogatianus Donatus, Garg (ilius) (Camps, 2000). The region holds a dense forest potential, as the Ouled Rezoug and Babors forests in the North-East of the region. The Babors Natural Reserve, covering an area of 2367 Ha, is one of the most important natural reserves in the country. It hosts a rich and rare species of flora and fauna. The studies and research work record no less than 416 plant species. This is the only area in North Africa apart from the Rif forest in Morocco (PAW de Sétif, 2008).

Table 1. SWOT analysis of the tourism in Hammam Guergour

ASSETS	HANDICAPS
STRENGTHS 1. Hammam Guergour is a place of history and gathering, besides being a hammam. 2. A rich forest potential with a rich fauna and flora. 3. The Boussellam wadi, both a hydrological and tourism asset, crossing the municipality and the urban center. 4. The natural radioactivity of the thermal waters of Hammam Guergour is recognized worldwide. 5. The thermal spring offers multiple therapeutic and medical benefits. 6. Hammam Guergour holds an important and varied accommodation potential compared to other stations in the region.	**WEAKNESSES** 1. The municipality's landscape is rugged, making it difficult to access and circulate, together with limited urban land. 2. The irrational exploitation the thermal waters reservoir can jeopardise its development. 3. Contamination risks and physicochemical degradation of water quality. 4. Limited economic return of the station. 5. Poor touristic image of the places and local ruins on the marketing networks. 6. Poor management compromised the economic and tourism development.
OPPORTUNITIES 1. A unique geographical location qualified as a crossroads and transit point. 2. An important demographic potential. Setif is the second largest province with about 02 million inhabitants (2018), behind Algiers. 3. a well-known thermal destination with 09 stations scattered in the North and South of the region. 4. Important archaeological sites and monuments. 5. Raising awareness of thermal tourism potential by the Algerian State, and the regional administration.	**THREATS** 1. The region is at risk from seismic activity. 2. Pollution affecting the ecosystem of Oued Boussellam. 3. Forest fires threaten the silvo-tourist balance. 4. The isolation of the municipality hinders local dynamics.

The Babors forest is a well-preserved source of biodiversity, a place of endemic fauna and flora such as the *Cedrus Atlantica Manetti*, the *Populus termula*, the *Abies numidica* and *Sitta ledanti vielliard* (Zerroug, 2012). The rich flora and fauna of the region is concentrated in Jebel Babor, highest massif at 2004 m above sea level (Bounar, 2018). The Oued Bousellam is the main hydrographic axis of the Setif area, characterized by an average monthly flow varying seasonally, with a maximum in February at 56 m^3/s, and a minimum in August at 1.1 m^3/s. The river crosses the cliffs of Hammam Guergour to finally reach Wadi Sahel, possesses 36% of fish species of continental Algerian waters (15 species) (Bacha and Amara, 2007). The word "thermal" is derived from the Latin "thennae", and the Greek "thermos", meaning hot. Several definitions were attributed to thermal waters; they are based mainly on their temperature (Schwenke, 2007). A mineral water can be considered "thermal" when its surface temperature is higher than a conventional minimum value associated with the average annual air temperature of the area. Thermalism refers to all activities related to the use and exploitation of thermal waters (Flurin, 1999). It is the natural therapy that aspires to the treatment of pathologies for a lasting rehabilitation of the individual (Di Patrizio et al., 2016).

Thermalism is, therefore, all the activities associated with use and exploitation for therapeutic purposes of certain natural mineral springs. The highly radioactive thermal waters of Hammam Guergour place them in first place in Algeria and in fourth place in the world after the baths of Brembach (Germany) and the Jachimov baths in ex-Czechoslovakia and the baths of Ischia Island in Italy (Table 2). This radioactivity results from the content of uranium, radium and potassium dissolved by the waters as they flow through the rocks. Hammam Guergour waters are well known for their ability to heal old wounds and other therapeutic purposes (PAT). Indeed, these (calcium sulfate enriched in sodium chloride), offer the opportunity to develop a very varied thermal and medical care pack, (Table 3). The Hammam Guergour thermal station holds 96 Rooms, 38 Bungalows and 04 villas, with 02 therapeutic swimming pools, showers and baths, massage and thermal baths cures. Two others traditional Hammams on the right bank of Oued Boussellam, one for women, the other for men, mainly for personal hygiene, are divided into 02 to 03 rooms: a dressing room, a resting room at ambient temperature and a high temperature sweating room.

Table 2. Classification of the richest mineral waters in some countries based on their radioactivity level (radon) in 1938 (Source: Kebir, 2017)

Source Radioactive mineral water	Countries	Radioactivity in nanocuries
Neuquelle	Brembach (Germany)	305
Wemerlauf	Jachimov (Czechoslovakia)	240
Altromishe	Ile d'Ischia (Italy)	193
Hammam Guergour	Guergour (Algeria)	122
Grabenbackergelle	Castein (Austria)	80
Arénas	Acnas Lerez (Spain)	65
Riettquelle	Baden Baden (Germany)	56.5
Lepape	Luchon (France)	41.5
Luso	(Portugal)	33.6

Table 3. Therapeutic purposes of Hammam Guergour (Source: DTWS, 2015)

rheumatology and osteoarticular traumas	Dermatology
neurology	Gynecology
cardio - arterial diseases	diseases of the urinary and metabolic system
phlebology	diseases of the digestive and metabolic system
psychosomatic affections	Respiratory and ENT conditions

4.3 Opportunities and assets of the region

Generally, the areas frequented by tourists' cross administrative boundaries and involve territories that also play a role in the construction of the territory-destination. Also, tourists can exploit several administrative territories (Hankinson, 2010). The Setif region is surrounded by six provinces: to the east, the province of Mila; to the west, the province of Bordj-Bou-Arréridj; to the north, Béjaia and Jijel; and to the south, M'Sila and Batna. The region occupies a strategic position and forms a transit area crossed by the East-West highway, the national road RN5, the railway line East-West, and the 8 May 1945 airport, offering 8 air links. They are considered as main arteries and structuring axes at the national level, offering the region better accessibility and a mediating image. It has a significant demographic weight with an estimated population of around 02 million inhabitants (DPSB, 2018). It is the second most populated province after Algiers, the capital of the country. Approximately 55% of its population is under 30 years old and it covers an area of 6,549.64 km2, with an average density of 292 inhabitants per km2. Also, this area offers an important thermal springs potential with 09 resorts between modern and traditional (Table 4), divided into 04 centers: Hammam Guergour, Hammam Sukhna, Hammam Ouled Tebbane and Hammam Ouled Yelles. These tourist sites are capable of transforming the Setif region's image towards a thermal tourist destination that offers a development perspective of thermal tourism.

Table 4. Distribution of Hammams according to municipalities in the Sétif region (DTWS, 2013)

Municipality	**Station**	**Exploitation**	**Accomodation capacity**	**Effectives**
Hammam Guergour	Thermal Complex	Modern	96	22
	Traditional Hammam	traditional	12	-
Hammam Sokhna	Hammam Lekhder Belmihoub	Modern	28	21
	Hammam ArabTarem	Modern	14	11
	Hammam Mekhlouf Belazem	Modern	24	08
	Hammam Al Sokhna	Traditional	20	12
El - Hamma	Hammam Sidi Amer	Traditional	-	-
Mezloug	Hammam Ouled Yelles	Traditional	20	18
Ouled Tebbane	Hammam Sidi Mansour	Traditional	-	-
Total	**09**		**212**	**92**

The region holds an important archaeological heritage site and historic monuments, like the Historic Site of Djemila (Figure 4) one of the most beautiful Roman ruins in the world and included in the UNESCO World Heritage since 1982. The Ain Lehnech site is 7 km north of El-Eulma, (Setif region) one of the oldest prehistoric sites in North Africa, discovered by Professor Camille Arambourg in 1947. Recent excavations and paleontological research conducted in 1992 revealed the existence of a prehistoric deposit dating back to the Oldowayen (Sahnouni et al., 2002). The Algerian State awareness concerning the dynamism of thermal tourism is growing. A national strategy has been outlined with guidelines of the master plan of tourist development encouraging public-private partnership and the implementation of an operational funding plan to support tourism activities. Also, the region is home to a business tourism space located along the region's median axis which includes the two main cities (Sétif and El - Eulma).

Figure 4. The Cuicul: Roman city theater (Authors, 2020)

4.4 Weaknesses and threats in the study area

Hammam Guergour's municipality relief is very rugged. The headquarters of the municipality and the Daïra are based outside the agglomeration of Hammam-Guergour itself. Overlooked by mountains and gorges dug by Oued Boussellam, this area was always considered difficult to access. The deep valleys are often confined to narrow gorges, making accessibility and urban mobility quite challenging. The urban base of the agglomeration is wedged between two mountains divided into two parts by Oued Boussellam. They are connected by a pedestrian bridge and another mechanical bridge. Traffic jams are very heavy and congested. The unsustainable exploitation of thermal waters in the municipality of Hammam Guergour is the biggest threat to this fragile and vulnerable resource, with a 2% annual population growth rate (2018). This over exploitation is stressed by the fact that it's the only source of income for local inhabitant. Contamination risks and degradation of the physicochemical quality of water, through the use of chemical fertilizers in agriculture, and the unregulated water resource exploitation and industrial discharges are increasing. Indeed, Oued Bousellam. Chemical pollution by ammonium contents that reached a rate of 4.4 mg/l, a nitrite value of 2.43mg/l, iron 2.06mg/l and bacteriological contamination 230 .10 ³ UFC /100ml 2011) aggravate the environmental situation (Sersoub, 2012). The economic return of the state-owned station is limited. In 2018, the station reported a 162 million DA revenue. During the same year, the station received 61846 visitors with a 63% average annual rate of accommodation. Compared to the station of Hammam Sokhna in the southern part of the region, which received nearly 180,000 visitors in 2018 (Reporters 2019), it is three times more than the Hammam Guergour station.

On the other hand, we also note the lack of medium-range hotel capacity (1, 2, stars), thus demonstrating the recourse of certain visitors to book overnight stays in apartments owned by the local inhabitants, providing them with additional income. In addition, it is difficult to quantify the income and the number of visitors at the two traditional Hammams, as payment is made without a ticket. The place's image transmits thoughts without linguistic use. Indeed, images are likely to awaken the attraction of the potential tourist towards an appealing destination. One of the leading works in tourism studies. The Tourist Gaze (Urry and Larsen, 2011) emphasizes the role of iconography in modern tourism practices (Bernadou, 2017). Hammam Guergour is lacking a tourist image of its places and local vestiges on the advertisement networks due to insufficient tourism and travel agencies that provide marketing and commercialization. Added to this, the absence of infrastructure is a major constraint to any kind of development and investment, where even local residents are struggling to cope. Finally, the tourist iconography of Hammam Guergour still requires development.

4.5 Threats and risks hindering local development

The region is prone to seismic activity varying from 3.9 to 5 degrees on the Richter scale. It is part of the Guergour-Anini network, cited by (Vila, 1980), as a reverse fault system of various orientations, N-S, E-W, NE-SW. These are neotectonic faults affecting recent Quaternary deposits ranging from 5.71 km to 14.28 km in length. Based on the seismicity analysis of Northeast Algeria, this fault network is considered potentially active (Harbi et al., 2003). The Bousellam river crossing Hammam Guergour urban center is at risk of pollution throughout the year due to the various waste water discharges from the urban centers (Sheikh Laayfa, Sétif, Mezloug, and Hammam Ouled Yelles). The watercourse has become the outlet of industrial units lacking water treatment and filtering systems.

Also, the agricultural chemicals used by the farmers as pesticides and fertilizers, passively contribute to the vulnerability and the deterioration of the wadi's aquatic ecosystem. Recurrent forest fires threaten the silvo-touristic balance of the region. Indeed, several fires have occurred in the region of Hammam Guergour, on 23 June and 1 July 2020, one in the forest of Jebel Ayad, with an estimated area destroyed at 544 ha. Forestry professionals attribute the responsibility for most of the fires to human activities. The most numerous interface zones are at the start of a fire (Belkaid and Carrega, 2012). For a long time, Algerian forests (Figures 5 and 6) paid a high price for fires in times ofpolitical disturbance (Marc, 1916). The Algerian Prime Minister, Mr Djerad, mentioned that: "the hypothesis of a criminal act has not been ruled out". Sometimes, fire is necessary to maintain certain forest ecosystems, but for tourists, it is a loss of a sense of nature, walking, cycling, the disappearance of places for relaxation and leisure, making it difficult to restore the silvo-tourist balance of burnt-out areas".

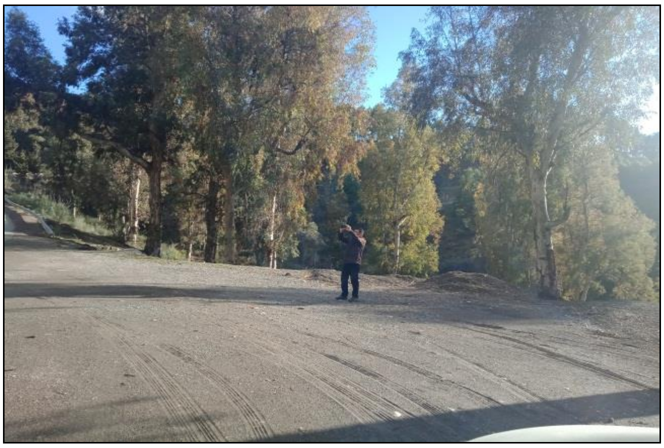

Figure 5. The Babors Forest (Source: Authors 2021)

Figure 6. The Babors Forest (Source: Authors 2020)

Circulation is essential for tourists activities, yet the geographically remote municipality of Hammam Guergour is only crossed by only by national road R N 74, connecting Setif - Béjaia, and often prone to landslides and the hazards of the climate. Also, the transportation means are terribly scarce, especially at the end of the day. All infrastructures are located in the plains and valleys, while mountainous sectors were left isolated, poorly connected to modern means, away from the centers and cities (Côte, 2011). Effective management is a process that requires flexibility and transparency. It is designed to integrate multiple interests between public and private partners. It involves the sharing of resources through coordination and cooperation (Vodoz, 2013). It should be noted that, given the potential of the region, we believe that the level of economic and social development is beneath its natural and scenic resources. This prompts questions about the local governance system in the region. It involves a type of local management unsuited to the economic and social changes the country is experiencing, and can be explained by a weak democracy of elected officials, who rarely were elected on the basis of their individual competences, but rather on the basis of popularist and tribal considerations, and partisan divisions that lead imperatively to the blocking of the system of decision making within the local assembly. Also, and for decades, in the past, the State remained the sole manager of thermal tourism, so, the legislation has for a long time slowed down the initiative of the local private actors in terms of tourism investment.

CONCLUSIONS

The municipality of Hammam-Guergour faces a striking paradox due to its rich natural and cultural tourism potential, and its poor and repulsive environment. The territory of the municipality experiences a discrepancy between the natural capacities of thermal water resources and the inherent infrastructures in the study area; as well as striking disparities between the more or less structured spaces in the highlands of the region of Setif, for example the axis Setif - El-Eulma; and other unstructured spaces. These disparities are related to the disadvantaged experience of the development and the isolation of the local population. The reality proves that the thermal tourism development and the rural tourism in general in a mountainous isolated municipality such as Hammam Guergour, is regarded as difficult, because the implementation of activities and equipment do not respond to the existing natural or economic constraints. It requires the physical (dangerous roads) and digital development and accessibility to the municipality.

There are alternatives emerging that promote local skills and human intelligence to overcome stagnation. Balance and diversify tourist activities by focusing on the mountain environment, through the improvement of accommodation capacities, as well as developing mini-parks for families and installing cable cars connecting the peak of the Fertla Massif to the urban center of Guergour, while protecting the local ecosystem. The persistence of local particularities (thermal, mountain, cultural), clearly shows that tourism can be an important factor in the transformation and evolution of these features. In spite of the mountainous aspect dominating the municipality, the development of this area is the result of human activity. In the future, local decision-makers should be able to assess the situation (Cheniki and Baziz, 2020), by measuring the impacts of local tourism, and obtain a global and proportionate vision of the situation.

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Article history: Received: 07.09.2021 Revised: 09.12.2021 Accepted: 12.01.2022 Available online: 02.02.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.144-149
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40117-813

COPING MECHANISM IN THE FACE OF LANDSLIDE HAZARD IN EAST JAVA INDONESIA

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Citation: Bachri, S., Sumarmi, S., Irawan, L.Y., Aldianto, Y.E., Utomo, K.S.B., & Wardhani, A.K. (2022). COPING MECHANISM IN THE FACE OF LANDSLIDE HAZARD IN EAST JAVA INDONESIA. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 144–149. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40117-813

Abstract: Increasing the number of landslide disasters and their effecting population in Indonesia is crucial to concern and need a solution. A coping mechanism is the strategies of people exposed to disasters and a key to anticipate and prepare and reduce landslide disaster risk. During twenty years, Malang Regency in East Java Province was hit by several landslide disasters, which radically affected both the physical and social environment. This paper aims to investigate coping strategies by communities facing landslide disaster. The methodology used in this research was divided into three sections: (1) pre-field; (2) fieldwork; and (3) post-field. The survey was initially conducted by mapping physical condition and interview with the key of informants. The research result was analyzed utilizing recorded-transcribed interviews and interpreted according to recurrent themes in the answers. Generally, people have performed different strategies to cope with landslide disasters within the study area. The coping mechanisms have been well developing into two categories, such as individual and structural coping mechanisms. This case study indicates that a coping strategy should be taken to reduce landslide disaster risks, such as fostering agriculture protection, properties-housing protection, and reinforcing risk governance to improve landslide disaster management and programs fostering adaptation and resilience.

Key words: coping mechanism, landslide, disaster management, East Java, Indonesia

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INTRODUCTION

An increasing number of disaster incidents in several countries significantly impact infrastructure and social-economic conditions within the population (Budhathoki et al., 2020). Effective preparedness against a natural disaster is playing an essential role in reducing its impacts (UNISDR, 2015). Better information about how the disaster affects people and their livelihood is a crucial prerequisite to designing effective strategies and guiding the disaster preparedness activities (Fatemi et al., 2017; Shreve et al., 2016). It can be achieved effectively through community engagement (Birkmann et al., 2013). The community's hazard knowledge and coping strategies can elevate disaster management within the area facing disaster problems. According to the basic terminology of coping mechanism, it is referred to as a reaction to the contingencies and processes of impoverishment (Daramola et al., 2016).

It happened after the damage has been incurred, mainly when the loss forces an individual or household below a minimum economic or social threshold. In other terminology, it is also defined as an action to face, survive, protect the physical existence, and recover from a shock or stress situation (Paton et al., 2000). The coping strategy is based on an 'ex-post' action in terms of risk adjustment, which means that a household responds to risky events only after an emergency or crisis occurred (Bachri, 2010). This strategy is appropriately applied in the area, categorized as high landslide vulnerability with low disaster technology mitigation (Calvello et al., 2016; Damm et al., 2013).

According to disaster incident data from BNPB, during twenty years, Malang Regency in East Java Province was hit by several landslide disasters that radically affected both the physical and social environment. The landslide disaster

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holds the third top position in number after the flood (BNPB, 2020). Many landslides triggering factors are found within the study area, such as intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors.

The intrinsic factor is the main factor originating from the condition of the land itself. In contrast, the irrelevant factor is a trigger factor from outside, increasing the potential for landslides (Pamungkas and Sartohadi, 2017). Parameters included in intrinsic factors are topographic conditions, soil material, and geology. Increasing steep slope conditions can lead to greater landslide occurrences since soil stability is getting smaller (Xiong et al., 2019). Meanwhile, extrinsic parameters result from human activity (e.g., the development of residential areas on steep slopes and the construction of roads with slope cuts and improper slope loading), rain, and earthquake activity (Bachri and Shresta, 2010).

Several attempts to anticipate landslides have been made, especially during the emergency response period. Activities have been carried out in the form of (BPBD of Malang Regency, 2020):

- Installation of simple buildings to protect landslides on roads
- Formulation of strong regulations, especially related to disaster management and disaster risk reduction.
- Increasing the commitment of stakeholders, especially the community, is a strategic step to embrace, empower, and increase all major actors in disaster management, starting from the government, society (civil society), and the business world.

However, landslide disaster management does not seem effective. Through this research, we try to figure out the coping strategy applied by the community since the coping strategy condition plays a pivotal role in addressing the landslide disaster problem in the study area. This paper aims to investigate coping strategies by communities facing landslide disaster.

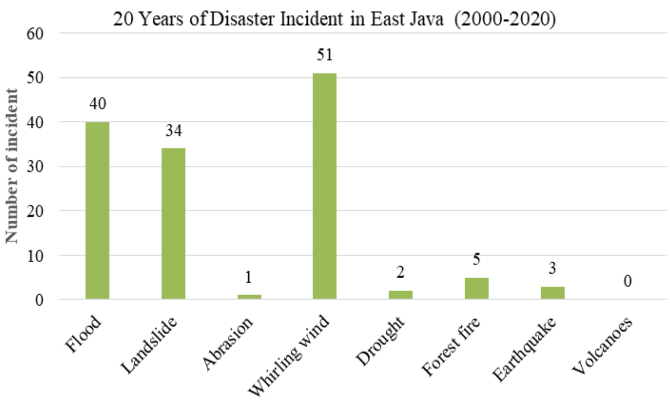

Figure 1. Disaster incidents during 20 years (Source: BNPB, 2020)

METHODS

The research data collection phase in this research was divided into three parts: first pre- field; continued by fieldwork; and last, is the analysis phase. We did literature review, data preparation, and collection, which involve collecting digital imagery of the study area, thematic map, current local policy document, and landslide data. During fieldwork, we checked the physical and social condition and their validity. We also did interviews with a critical person of the local people as well as local government staff. We interview several people; three regional governments (BPBD and village officer, ten informants). The next step was the analysis phase, which includes analysis of coping mechanisms within the study area. The detailed methodology can be seen below table.

Table 1. Research methodology

Processes of research	Activities	Purpose/rationale	Source
Pre field	Literature review	Landslide data, socio-economic and demographic profile, current policy planning	Journal paper, government report, newspaper, NGOs report, Research report.
	Digital mapping	Administration map, landform map	Geospatial Information Agency (BIG), LAPAN
Fieldwork	Landslide data checking	Landslide point existing	Fieldwork
	Documentation of current policy	Disaster management policy	Intuition visitation, interview
	Interview with a key informant and local government officer	People behaviour and government policy	Interview
Post field	Coping strategy analysis	Coping mechanism	Interview
	Socio, economic and policy analysis	Social profile	Document and interview
	Development of coping mechanism practice model	Model of coping mechanism	Coping mechanism analysis

This research takes Bantur, Donomulyo, Gedangan, and sumbermanjing sub-district in East Java Province as study areas (Figure 2). During January-June 2020, interviews were conducted with a representative of local communities and government officials in four sub-districts to investigate local knowledge related to hazard, current disaster management policy, and coping strategies to landslide risk. Informants were village officers, farmers, and authorized staff from BPBD Malang district. The content of the interview starts with the question of landslide hazard understanding, risk perception, and hazard knowledge, socio-demographic, life value, and current disaster management policy. The informants were encouraged to answer freely, and all interviews were conducted in Indonesia and the Javanese language. Interviews were recorded by the audio recorder and then transcript into the interview script notula.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To get a comprehensive understanding of the coping mechanism within the study area, we present our findings in three-part: 1) understanding the physical environment, 2) socio-economic context, and 3) coping strategies applied by the community in the following section.

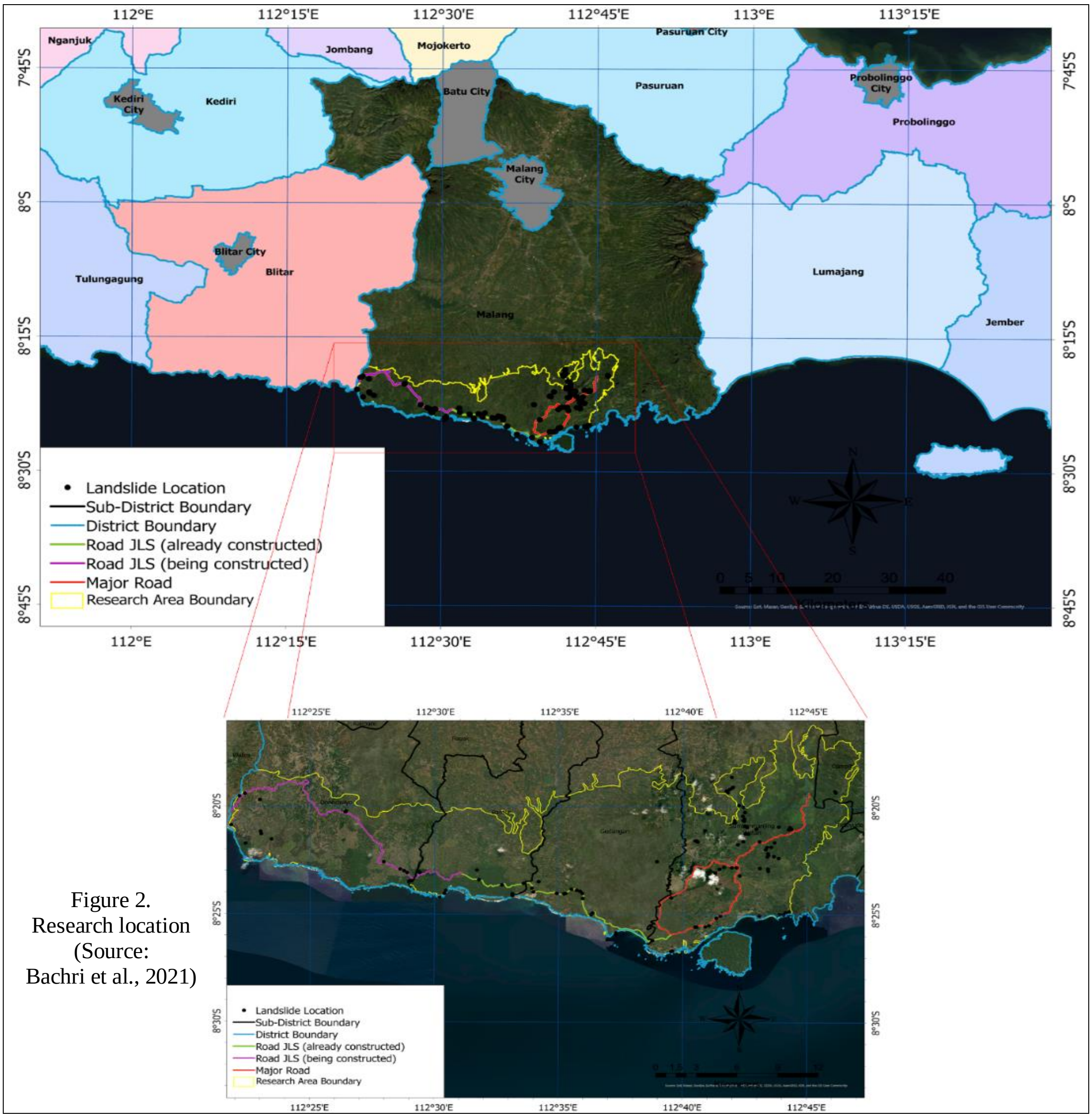

Figure 2.
Research location
(Source:
Bachri et al., 2021)

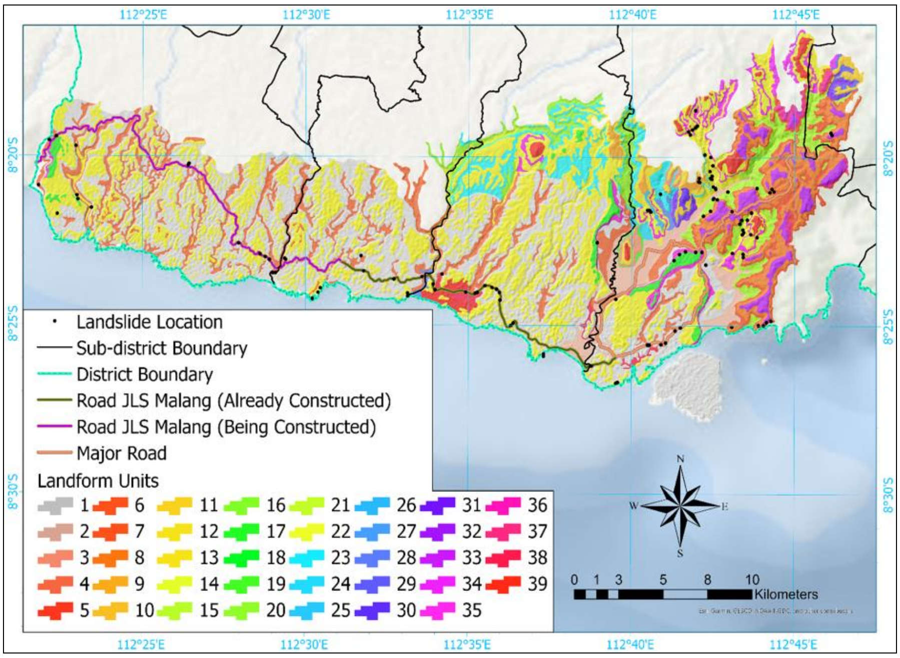

Figure 3. Landform map of the study area (Bachri et al., 2021)

Toward a physical environment of the study area

Malang regency in East Java is shared by 38 districts, with a total population of 2,619,975 (BPS of Malang Regency, 2020). With a total area of about 3,530.65 km^2, the topography is dominated by the plateau, surrounded by several mountains, particularly within the study area. Most of the stratigraphy situations covered by limestone (Kendeng Mountains) have high porosity (BPS of Malang Regency, 2020). Furthermore, the rainfall intensity at the average rainfall is ranging from 0 mm to 602 mm (BPS of Malang Regency, 2020). Based on the landform configuration, the study area is dominated by hilly and strong erosion processes (Bachri et al., 2021).

Detail of landform identification within the study area can be seen in below Table 2. Due to above condition (Table 2), Malang regency categorized as landslide hazards prone area as seen as below figure (Figure 4).

Table 2. Landform unit of the study area

Unit Code	Symbol	Landform Units	Area (km^2)
1	U/3/SSE/1	Middle Slope of the Wonosari Formation- significantly eroded	132.59
2	P/5/D/4	Colluvium Foot Slope and Alluvium deposition	14.44
3	H/3/M/2	Middle Slope of the Hills Nampol Formation-moderate erosion	1.80
4	U/4/SSE/1	Lower Slopes of the Wonosari Formation-significantly eroded	40.74
5	H/1/SSE/5	Hilltops of the Mandalika Formation - significantly eroded	3.67
6	H/3/SSE/5	Middle Slope of Tuff Hills the Mandalika Formation- significantly eroded	12.48
7	H/2/M/5	Upper Slope of the Tuff Hills the Mandalika Formation -a moderate erosion of	17.35
8	H/1/SSE/2	Hilltops of the Nampol Formation-significantly eroded	2.23
9	H/2/SSE/3	Upper Slopes of the Wuni Formation-significantly eroded	2.09
10	H/2/SSE/2	Upper Slope of the Nampol Formation-significantly eroded	3.15
11	U/4/SSE/2	Lower Slope of the Nampol Formation- significantly eroded	3.74
12	U/2/M/2	Upper Slope of the Nampol Formation-moderately eroded	11.22
13	U/2/M/1	Upper Slope of the Wonosari Formation-moderately eroded	86.68
14	U/5/D/1	Colluvium Foot Slope and Alluvium Wonosari Formation	1.29
15	U/5/D/2	Colluvium Foot Slope and Alluvium Nampol Formation	2.08
16	U/4/SSE/2	Lower Slope of the Nampol Formation-significantly eroded	8.62
17	U/2/SE/1	Hilltops of the Wonosari Formation-slightly eroded	5.45
18	U/1/SE/2	Hilltops of the Nampol Formation-slightly eroded	0.34
19	H/4/M/2	Lower Slope of the Hills of Nampol Formation -moderately eroded	0.47
20	H/4/SSE/5	Lower Slope of the Tuff Mandalika Formation- significantly eroded	13.98
21	H/2/SSE/5	Upper Slope of the Mandalika Formation - significantly eroded	6.62
22	H/4/SSE/5	Lower Slopes of the Mandalika Formation - significantly eroded	11.43
23	U/3/M/2	Middle Slope of the Nampol Formation - moderately eroded	11.38
24	H/4/SSE/2	Lower Slope of the Nampol Formation - significantly eroded	2.20
25	H/3/SSE/2	Middle Slope of Nampol Formation - significantly eroded	1.41
26	U/5/M/5	Colluvium Foot Slope and Alluvium of Mandalika Formation - moderately eroded	0.94
27	H/1/SE/5	Hilltops of the Mandalika Formation - Slightly eroded	0.46
28	U/5/D/2	Colluvium Foot Slope and Alluvium of Nampol Formation - deposited	1.25
29	H/3/M/3	Middle Slope of the Wuni Formation - moderately eroded	1.35
30	H/1/SSE/3	Hilltops of the Wuni Formation - significantly eroded	0.49
31	H/4/SSE/3	Lower Slopes of the Wuni Formation - significantly eroded	1.39
32	H/1/SSE/5	Hilltops of the Mandalika Formation - significantly eroded	10.75
33	H/3/SSE/5	Middle Slope of the Mandalika Formation - significantly eroded	7.19
34	H/4/M/3	Lower Slope of the Hills - moderately eroded	0.18
35	H/5/D/5	Colonial Foot Slope and Alluvium of Mandalika Formation - deposited	1.05
36	U/2/SSE/1	Upper Slope of the Wonosari Formation - significantly eroded	3.42
37	H/2/SSE/5	Upper Slope of the Tuff Mandalika Formation -significantly eroded	2.24
38	U/4/D/1	Lower Slope of Wonosari Formation- deposited	1.79
39	U/3/D/1	Middle Slope of Wonosari Formation-deposited	2.64

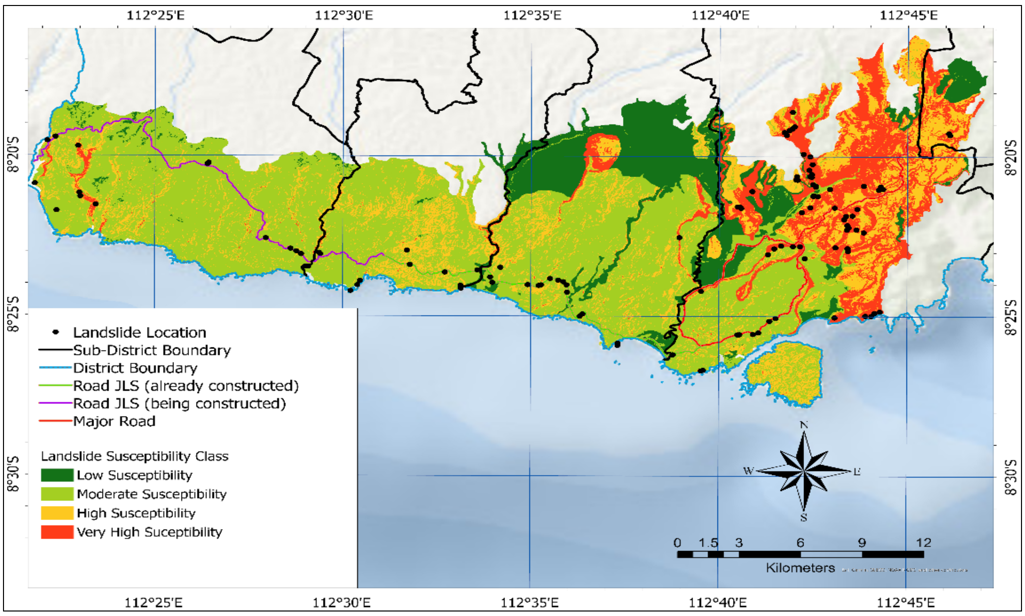

Figure 4. Landslide susceptibility map (Bachri et al., 2021)

Social context

We can adapt information related to population, age, sex, occupation, etc., based on demographic data profiles (Lindell and Hwang, 2008). The total population of Malang district is 2,619,975 (BPS of Malang Regency, 2020). Data showed the number of females 1,302,991 is lower than male 1,316,984. In addition, in line with working status, it is noted that more than 75% of the head of household within the area is engaged with an occupation, particularly as farmer and labor. This study was based on the classification of age respondent and its members to FAO classification. It consists of three categories; young age, working-age, and senior age. The age of 0-15 is categorized as a young age, and the age group of 15-60 is considered working age. Moreover, the age group above 60 is categorizing as senior group age. The community is significantly working-age dominated. The level of education is important in understanding educational conditions within the study area (Azadi et al., 2019). Data showed that the domination of community education was in junior - high school levels. It is mostly due to the difficulty of access and the availability of money. People choose to have less education rather than spend their limited money on education activity. The economic factor is one of the obstacles to enhance higher education levels in this area. It contradicts general common knowledge since education is an indicator of improving people's awareness of their economic condition (Ullah et al., 2015). In addition, it is also stated that education level will influence the community in many factors, such as job opportunities and people's behavior. Educated people will have a chance to get a good occupation along with a good opportunity. In this study, we tried to capture how the education level can influence people's behavior, particularly their coping mechanism activity in facing landslide hazards.

This study showed that education level has indirect relation with people activity within the study area. They relatively know what they should do to reduce the landslide hazard impact. This is because they can access information from many sources, e.g., the internet. Another factor that we want to discuss is community occupation since it is important in natural resource utilization (Guha-Sapir et al., 2013). We found that farmer occupation was dominant among others in the study area. They are categorized as low and medium-income receivers. The sources of low income and medium income are mainly from agriculture, labor activities, and commerce.

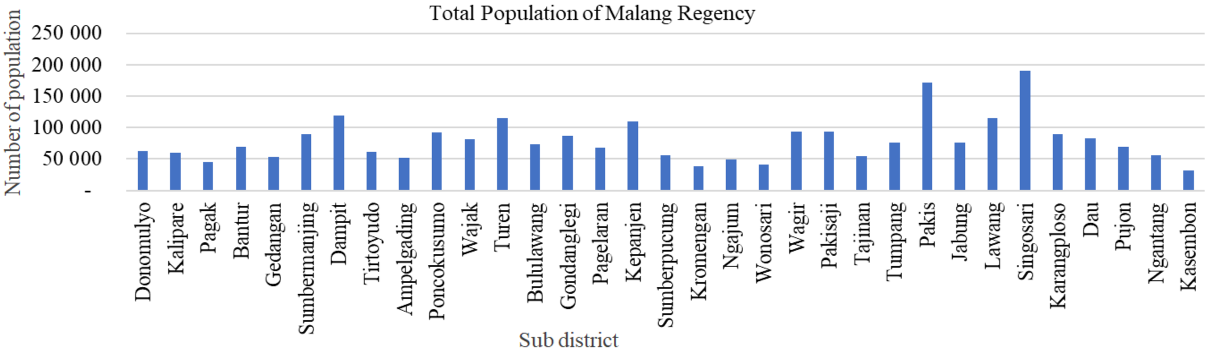

Figure 5. Population data within the study area (Source: BPS, 2020)

Coping strategies

Many factors affect coping strategies, such as physical and social factors (Xu et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2014). Physical factors such as the structure of the building and contents are a dominant factor within the study area. Social factors such as income and education level, and access information were the main factors influencing communities' coping strategies. People with more income will have more opportunities to do proper coping strategies, particularly in building houses with strong construction. They also can create a wall barrier to deal with a landslide in their cropland. Furthermore, people with more access to information in the study area take more action with recent technology to prevent their properties from landslide hazard. In this study, we found that people were doing coping mechanisms based on three reasons: economic, social, and natural resources condition. It is linked to each other, financial situation, social network, and practical action (Bachri, 2010). In addition, this study also found the two types of coping mechanisms adopted by the community: individual coping mechanisms and structural coping mechanisms.

In the individual coping mechanism, they prefer to protect their natural resources assets comparing with others. It's rational since most of them are engaged with the farming occupation. In addition, they also try to protect their house from landslide effects. However, it is done by a community with higher income and good access to information. According to our analysis, the study area's coping mechanism was dependent upon various factors. Occupation, income, access to information, and education level were the factors that influence people to act on coping mechanisms. Furthermore, through literature review and interviews with local government, we found that structural coping mechanisms already develop through many programs. The local institutions did some programs in educating community-related about landslide disaster in the study area. It formed through training and focus group discussion. However, the program is not fully implemented due to some obstacles, such as a fund.

Our last result shows that coping strategies in the study area are linked to risks. People at risk or vulnerable will have more effort to survive and protect their assets from disaster (Slovic, 2000).

CONCLUSION

The study found that people have performed different strategies to cope with landslide disasters within the study area. The coping mechanisms have been well developing into two categories, such as individual and structural coping mechanisms. Factors such as income, level of education, and access to information were the community's main factors to perform coping activities.

This study also indicates that a coping strategy should be taken to reduce landslide disaster risks, such as fostering agriculture protection, properties-housing protection, and reinforcing risk governance to improve landslide disaster management and programs fostering adaptation and resilience.

Acknowledgement

This study was supported by Faculty of Social Sciences Universitas Negeri Malang through "*hibah publikasi*" program 2021. The author would like to thank all contributors for their assistance during data collection in Malang District.

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Article history: Received: 01.02.2021 Revised: 10.11.2021 Accepted: 12.01.2022 Available online: 02.02.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.150-156
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40118-814

TOURISM AS A WAY OF RATIONAL USE OF THE DNIPRO RIVER ISLANDS WITHIN THE CITY OF KYIV

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Citation: Pozharska, A.O. (2022). TOURISM AS A WAY OF RATIONAL USE OF THE THE DNIPRO RIVER ISLANDS WITHIN THE CITY OF KYIV. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 150–156. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40118-814

Abstract: The article is devoted to the assessment of the tourist potential of the Dnipro River islands within the city of Kyiv. This islands take the central part of Kyiv, though are separated from it by water. The aim of the article is to identify the actual situation on the islands and to propose the scheme of the the improved tourist use of one of the islands. The quantitve and the qualitative characteristics of the islands are taken from the open sources. For the assessment of the tourist potential of the region the author determined the CORINE Land Cover categories on the islanads and counted their areas, defined the most natural islands, determined the accessibility for the vacationers, assessed the diversity of natural landscapes. Also author proposed the scheme of future tourist use of the Dolobetskyj island. Therefore, the Dnipro River islands have a great tourist potential, but they are not used fully. The rational use of these islands can improve the recreation on the Dnipro River banks in Kyiv.

Key words: tourism, Dnipro River islands, the city of Kyiv, land use assessment, rational use scheme, Dolobetskyj island

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INTRODUCTION

River islands have a special place in the space: they are both part of landscape and riverscape. Therefore, their study is interesting for scientists from different countries. In particular, Indian scientists (Sarma, 2014; Goswami et al., 2020) are studying the hazardous processes on the world's largest river island – Majuli, situated on the Ganges River. The Russian scientists (Prokazov, 2011; Rulev et al., 2017 a; Rulev et al., 2017 b; Ryazanov et al., 2019; Sudakov et al., 2015; Shapovalova, 2009; Shinkarenko et al., 2019) are interested in the landscapes of Sarpinskij Island on the Volga River. The Italian scientists (Gurnell et al., 2018;Gurnell and Bertoldi, 2020; Gurnell et al., 2001; Picco et al., 2012; Picco et al., 2014; Picco et al., 2015; Moretto et al., 2014) study the formation of the islands of the mountain rivers Tagliamente, Piave and Brenta. The Chinese scientists (Ding et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2017, 2018; Sun et al., 2018, 2020) investigate the Yangtze River Islands. One of the areas of research of river islands is their use in economic activities.

Improper use can lead to the unwantedconsequences. Studying the different ways of economic use of the river islands we can see that one of the most appropriate ways to use them is tourism. River islands are usually aesthetically appealing landscape objects. However, the peculiarities of their location in the river floodplain does not allow the construction of massive buildings. In addition, in many countries, the access to water must be free, that also affects the use of islands - in particular, the culture of beaches. Tourism allows you to get economic benefits from the use of river islands, without radically changing the natural conditions. The islands of the Dnipro River are the part of the territory of Kyiv. The Dnipro River, along which they are located, divides Kyiv into the western and eastern parts, and the islands, respectively, stretch along with the river from north to south. The islands of the Dnipro River were the object of the scientific research (Bondar et al., 2018; Klimenko, 1999; Kucher, 2016; Honchar, 2017; Parnikoza and Cukanova, 2005; Parnikoza, 2012; Pozharska, 2020; Tsukanova, 2005; Tomchenko et al., 2017).

However, there are studies entirely devoted to the nature and fauna of these islands, but there wer also the recreational studies (Dmytruk and Ponomarenko, 2010; Zinovieva, 2016). The islands of the Dnipro River within the city of Kyiv are involved in the city's economy. They are the part of the transport network - through them pass the bridge connections of the eastern and western parts of the city. Some of the islands are the part of the nature reserve fund of Ukraine. The most accessible are used for the recreational purposes: they are located tourist and sports facilities, such as clubs, beach resorts. Unfortunately, the recreational use of these islands is not equable. The more accessible parts of the islands are used too intensive and the less accessible regions are not used. Lack of regular and even use leads to the unauthorized capture of the territory with blocking access of other vacationers, the emergence of marginals and littering of the territory. Therefore, the purpose of this article is to assess the recreational potential of the Dnipro River Islands in Kyiv and to propose a scheme for the rational use of one of the islands as a tourist attraction.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bing Aerial and Google Maps cartographic materials were used to write the article. The area of the islands was calculated by QGIS instruments. Data on the islands are taken from theopen sources. The research methodology is

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author's and consists of the area of different landscape calculation. Firstly, the landscapes of the islands were divided according to the land use (the CORINE Land Cover inventory was used). The area and the percentage of the each landscape were counted (using the QGIS tools). Then the landscapes were divided on the natural and the engaged in economic activities. The area and the percentage of the each type of areas were counted.

Afterwards, the accessibility for vacationers was counted. To each type of the accessibility the points were assigned, and then these points were counted. Fourthly, the landscape diversity of the each island was defined (the number of landscape types was counted). Finally, the suggestions for tourist use of the Dolobetskyj Island were made.

Table 1. The Dnipro River islands within the city of Kyiv, Ukraine

№	Name	Area, km^2	Location
1	Obolonskyj	0.1477	50°30'30.4"N 30°31'14.2"E
2	Pivnichnyj	0.185302	50°30'16.8"N 30°31'47.5"E
3	Muromets	4.690847	50°30'25.0"N 30°32'32.1"E
4	Chortoryj	0.618153	50°30'21.4"N 30°33'28.0"E
5	Mizhmostnyj	0.188409	50°29'20.8"N 30°33'12.1"E
6	Trukhaniv	5.381059	50°28'00.9"N 30°32'48.1"E
7	Dolobetskyj	1.384264	50°27'33.3"N 30°34'16.9"E
8	Venetian	1.855935	50°26'25.4"N 30°34'45.5"E
9	Malyj Hidropark	0.052515	50°26'36.4"N 30°35'02.8"E
10	Malyj	0.143292	50°25'05.7"N 30°35'10.9"E
11	Velykyj Pivdennyj	0.378248	50°24'20.5"N 30°35'24.7"E
12	Halernyj	0.64836	50°22'22.2"N 30°33'33.7"E
13	Zhukiv	4.691702	50°21'14.2"N 30°34'11.0"E
14	Topolevyj	0.100475	50°21'21.2"N 30°35'00.8"E
15	Vodnykiv	0.736387	50°20'47.3"N 30°35'36.1"E
16	Kozachyj	1.46024	50°19'23.9"N 30°36'08.1"E
17	Promizhnyj	0.439777	50°18'56.3"N 30°36'44.9"E
18	Olgyn	1.603475	50°18'26.2"N 30°37'30.3"E

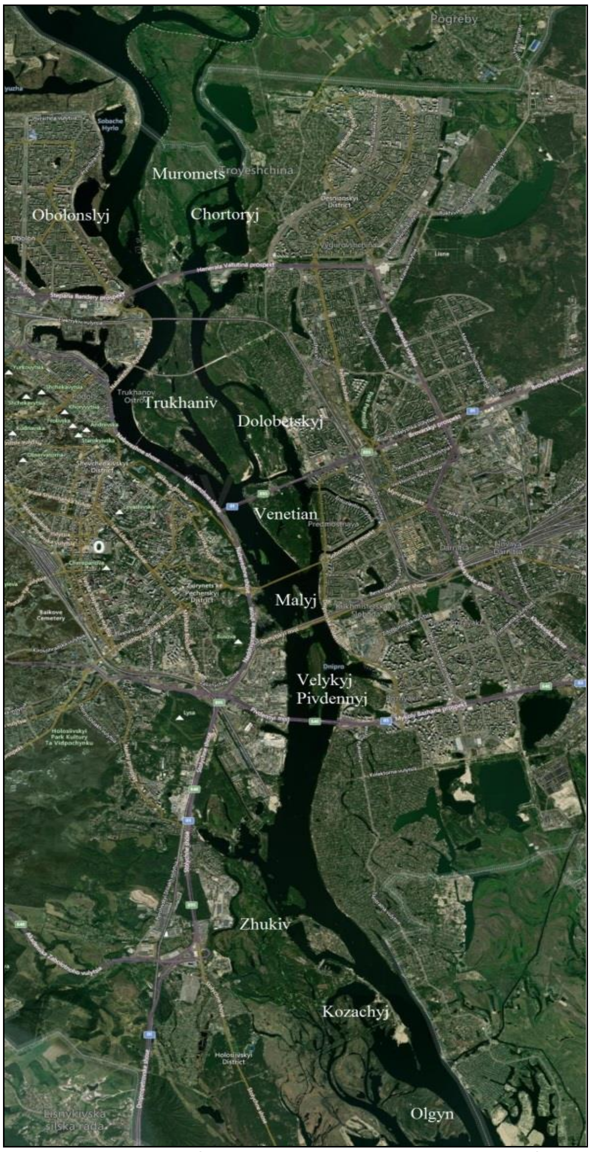

Figure 1. The map of the Dnipro River islands in the city of Kyiv islands (Source: Google Earth images with the author's additions)

To the northwest is the Obolonskyj island (No 1 in the Table 1), which is separated from the residential area of Obolon by Obolon Bay. It is an uninhabited island covered with forest, shrubs and meadow vegetation. Now it is accessible by boat, but the construction of bridges on the Obolon quay has begun. Further to the east is the Pivnichnyj (No 2 in the Table 1) island, which also has no bridge connection with the coast. It is also overgrown mainly with forest vegetation. This island is illegally employed by local entrepreneurs, who organize recreation with water sports.

In the north-central part is the large island of Muromets (No 3 in the Table 1), through which in the southern part stretches the Northern Bridge. It is the eponymous park, which occupies the southern part of the island. It also houses the yacht clubs and sports facilities. The northern part of the island, overgrown with shrubs and forests, is a place of unorganized recreation. To the west of the Muromets island is the island of Chortoryj (No 4 in the Table 1), which has the shape of a trident. It can be reached by boat. The vast majority of the island is covered by forest, but some of it is occupied by unknown houses. To the south of it there is the Mizhmostnyj island (No 5 in the Table 1), also covered by forests.

Further south, the island of Muromets flows smoothly into the island of Trukhaniv (No 6 in the Table 1). These two islands were once separated by a strait, but now they are one whole. Trukhaniv island is the largest of the Dnipro River islands in Kyiv. It occupies a central position in the Dnipro river valley in Kyiv. In the north it also leads to the North Bridge, in the south-western part it is connected by a pedestrian bridge with Podil. It can also be crossed by boat from the island of Venetian. Trukhaniv island is also mostly overgrown with forest, in the western and southwestern part there are many sports facilities. The construction of the Podilsko-Voskresensky Bridge with the metro line, which will connect Podil on the right bank of the Dnipro and the Troieschyna residential area on the left bank, is underway. It is possible to build a subway stop on the island of Trukhaniv, which will facilitate the access to the island. The Petrovsky railway bridge is also in transit through the island of Trukhaniv. The location of some private estates on Trukhaniv island is also questionable, but work has begun to verify the ownership of such buildings. To the west of the island of Trukhaniv is the island of Dolobetskyj (No 7 in the Table 1). It can be reached via a bridge to the island of Venetian. This island is occupied by coniferous and deciduous forests and sparse forests. The southern part of the island, which is part of the Hydropark Park, with beaches, sports and entertainment facilities, has been developed. The northern part of the island is poorly accessible and partially occupied by "wild" tourists, who quite aggressively guard the occupied territory.

To the south of the islands of Trukhaniv and Dolobetskyj is the Venetian island (No 8 in the Table 1), which is also called the Hydropark due to its location on the territory of the park with the same name. A branch of the metro with a stop on the island passes through the northern part of the island. This island is developed mainly in the central part with entertainment facilities, as well as in the north and west - with beaches. Paton Bridge also passes through the island in the southern part. Earlier it was possible to descend from it to the island of Venetian, but now this descent is dismantled. In the center of the island is a lake, which is little known to vacationers. A small island east of theVenetian is called the Malyj Hidropark (No 9 in the Table 1). It is occupied by forest, it can be reached only by boat. To the south of the Venetian is the Malyj island (No 10 in the Table 1), which actually consists of three small islands. Thisse island is forested and only accessible by boat. Also this island is a place of spontaneous rest. To the south of the Malij islandl is the Velykyj Pivdennyj island (No 11 in the Table 1), covered with forest and meadows. Less popular with vacationers due to a certain distance from the main transport arteries. It is available by boat. Further to the southwest is the Halernyj island (No 12 in the Table 1), which is separated from the right bank by a system of lakes. There are lakes of fisheries and places for fishing. It is located near the places of public transport. Further south is one of the largest islands – Zhukiv (No 13 in the Table 1). It is separated from the right bank by the river Konik. This island is covered with forests and meadows, it is reached by a highway, but it is difficult to reach by public transport. The island is partly built up by unknown private houses that are in the area without permits.

The long elongated spit of this island is used as a sand quarry. To the west of the island of Zhukiv is the Vodnykiv island (No 15 in the Table 1), which leads to the highway. The island is completely occupied by private country estates. To the north of the Vodnykiv island is a small Topolevyj island (No 14 in the Table 1) - uninhabited and occupied by forest. It can be reached only by boat, so there is no stationary recreation. Further south of the island of Zhukiv are 3 islands: Kozachyj (No 16 in the Table 1), Promizhnyj (No 17 in the Table 1) and Olgyn (No 18 in the Table 1). All three islands are accessible only by boat, have no stationary recreation and are covered with mixed forest. The islands south of these three islands are no longer part of the city of Kyiv, so they will not be considered in this article.

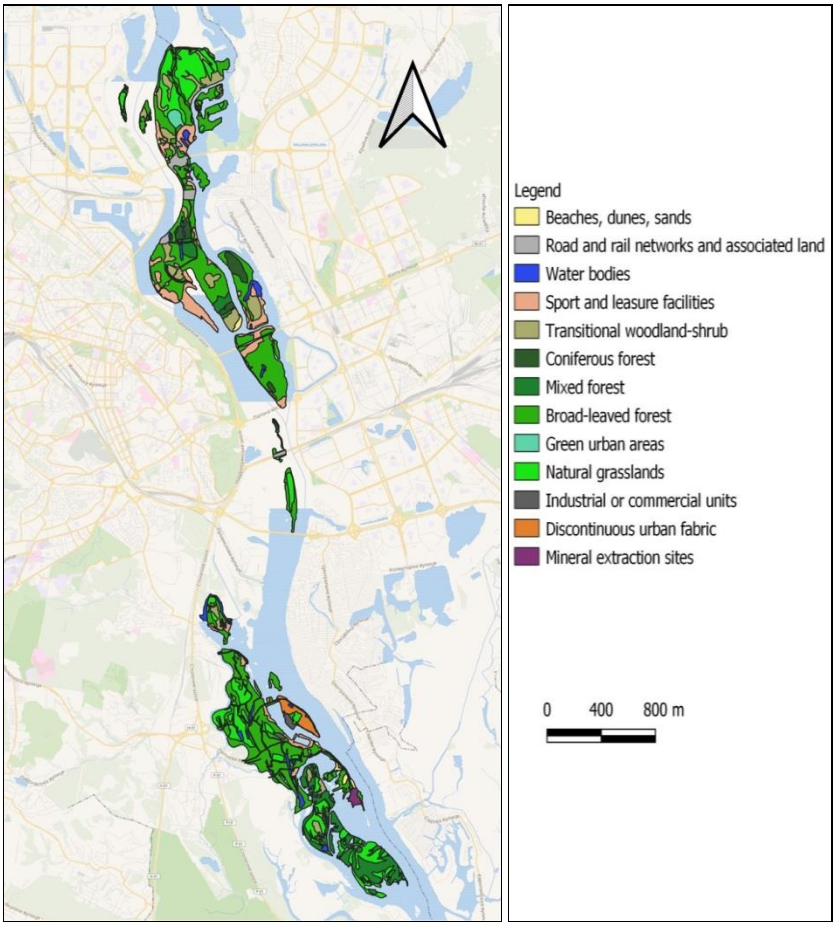

Figure 2. The map of the Dnipro River islands' land use (according to the CORINE Land Cover inventory) (source: author)

Table 2. The environmental problems of the DniproRiver islands in the city of Kyiv (source: the author's own calculations)

Unauthorized construction	Some areas are chaotically and without the permission of the city authorities fenced and used to create recreation centers, sports facilities for private development
Contamination with the household waste	There are natural dumps on the territory of the islands
Lack of a clear land use system	Some of the islands are the objects of the nature reserve fund ("The Dnipro River islands"), which is not marked on the cadastral map. Their use does not always meet the requirements for nature reserves. The old scheme of creating parks on the islands is partly destroyed and overgrown, partly obsolete. New facilities are created point by point and do not cover the entire territory.
Transport accessibility	Not all the islands are connected by bridges, not all islands have roads

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Thus, on the territory of the city of Kiev there is a significant number of islands, different in area and characteristics. In order to properly assess their tourism potential, it is necessary to determine the current state of use of these areas. For these purposes, the CORINE Land Cover inventory is used, which divides the types of land use into certain categories. Since there is no CORINE map for the territory of Ukraine, so the further map was made by author's. Therefore, to identify the use of these islands territory, a map of the current use of this territory was made.

Table 3. The land use of the Dnipro River islands within the city of Kyiv (according to the CORINE classification) (source: the author's own calculations)

Name		Obolonskyj	Pivnichnyj	Muromets	Chortoryj	Mizhmostnyj	Trukhaniv	Dolobetskyj	Venetian	Malyj Hidropark	Malyj	Velykyj Pivdennyj	Halernyj	Zhukiv	Topolevyj	Vodnykiv	Kozachyj	Promizhnyj	Olgyn
Water bodies	km^2		0.01	0.12			0.14	0.13	0.03				0.14	0.44		0.01	0.09	0.00	0.00
	%		3.46	2.64			2.65	9.32	1.49				22.01	7.67		1.60	6.47	0.15	0.13
Beaches, dunes, sands	km^2	0.0003	0.01	0.05	0.0002		0.09	0.05	0.04		0.0045		0.00	0.13					
	%	0.23	3.87	1.02	0.02		1.69	3.61	1.97		3.14		0.75	2.28					
Natural grasslands	km^2	0.08		1.57	0.10						0.01	0.15	0.09	0.94		0.06	0.42	0.13	0.70
	%	56.67		33.40	16.81						8.98	40.10	13.35	16.45		8.26	29.05	30.39	43.37
Transitional woodland-shrub	km^2	0.01	0.04	0.80	0.05		0.61	0.22					0.13	0.01			0.25		
	%	5.66	22.48	16.98	7.51		11.29	15.89					20.54	0.22			17.33		
Broad-leaved forest	km^2	0.06	0.12	1.05	0.45	0.19	2.27	0.46	1.34	0.05	0.08	0.23	0.21	3.55	0.10	0.09			
	%	37.43	64.54	22.28	73.34	100.00	42.26	33.02	72.36	100.00	57.41	59.90	31.87	62.35	100.00	12.71			
Coniferous forest	km^2						0.25	0.27	0.04										
	%						4.58	19.67	2.14										
Mixed forest	km^2						0.39							0.13		0.13	0.69	0.31	0.91
	%						7.27							2.31		17.89	47.15	69.47	56.49
Green urban areas	km^2			0.19															
	%			3.99															
Sport and leasure facilities	km^2		0.01	0.43	0.01		1.14	0.26	0.36				0.07	0.28					
	%		5.65	9.25	2.31		21.17	18.49	19.55				11.48	4.91					
Road and rail networks and associated land	km^2			0.49			0.49		0.05		0.04			0.04					
	%			10.43			9.09		2.49		30.47			0.78					
Discontinuous urban fabric	km^2													0.01		0.36			
	%													0.20		48.68			
Industrial or commercial units	km^2													0.04		0.08			
	%													0.64		10.84			
Mineral extraction sites	km^2													0.12					
	%													2.19					

Table 4. The percentage of the natural and engaged in economic activities areas in the Dnipro River islands within the city of Kyiv, Ukraine (source: the author's own calculations)

№	Name	Natural areas		Engaged in economic activities areas	
		km^2	%	m^2	%
1	Obolonskyj	0.1477	100	0	0
2	Pivnichnyj	0.1748	94.35	0.0105	5.65
3	Muromets	3.7677	80.32	0.9232	19.68
4	Chortoryj	0.4753	76.90	0.1428	23.10
5	Mizhmostnyj	0.1884	100	0	0
6	Trukhaniv	3.6615	68.04	1.7196	31.96
7	Dolobetskyj	1.0784	77.90	0.3059	22.10
8	Venetian	1.4103	75.99	0.4456	24.01
9	Malyj Hidropark	0.0525	100	0	0
10	Malyj	0.0996	69.53	0.0437	30.47
11	Velykyj Pivdennyj	0.3782	100	0	0
12	Halernyj	0.5739	88.52	0.0744	11.48
13	Zhukiv	4.1948	89.41	0.4969	10.59
14	Topolevyj	0.1005	100	0	0
15	Vodnykiv	0.2980	40.47	0.4383	59.53
16	Kozachyj	1.4602	100	0	0
17	Promizhnyj	0.4398	100	0	0
18	Olgyn	1.6035	100	0	0

Thus, the most common types of land use on the islands of the Dnipro River within the city of Kyiv are the broad-leaved forests, which occupy the largest area in total (10.2494 km^2). Broad-leaved forests also have on average the largest percentage of the area on individual island (about 59%) and are represented on 15 of the 18 islands. On some islands (Mizhmostnyj, Malyj Hidropark, Topolevyj) the broad-leaved forests occupy 100% of the territory). In second place in terms of total area on the islands are the natural grasslands (4.2564 km^2), in third place are the sport and leasure facilities (2.5707 km^2). However, if we consider the specific land use on each individual island, the mixed forests are in second place in terms of percentage of land use (on average about 34%), and natural grasslands are in third place (27%).The least common types of land use are mineral extraction sites and green urban areas, each of them is represented on only one island. The smallest area as a whole on all islands is occupied by industrial or commercial units (0.1163 km^2), on average, the smallest percentage on an individual island is occupied by mineral extraction sites (about 3%).

Thus, it can be seen that, although sport and leasure facilities generally have a significant area on the islands, on any particular island they do not occupy a significant area (from 2 to 19%). Also partly to the tourist infrastructure can be attributed and equipped beaches, which also do not occupy a significant area on a separate island (up to 3.6%). Thus, the islands, having a strong recreational potential, are not used at full capacity.

2. The map of the islands land use can determine the percentage of natural and relatively natural areas, as well as the percentage of areas engaged in economic activities.

Thus, the most used are the islands of Vodnukiv, Trukhaniv, Malyj, Venetian, Chortoryj, Dolobetskyj and Muromets. On them the degree of naturalness varies from 40 to 80%. The most natural are the islands of Obolonskyj, Mizhmostnyj, Malyj Hidropark, Velykyj Pivdennyj, Topolevyj, Kozachyj, Promizhnyj and Olgyn, where the number of natural landscapes is 100%. These islands have the greatest potential for tourism development.

3. For the development of the tourism industry it needs to determine the accessibility of these islands for vacationers.

To determine the ease of access to the islands should be calculated in points of transport accessibility. No regular traffic, the island isaccessible onle by boat **-** 1 point, the presence of a pedestrian bridge -2 points, the presence of a road bridge -3 points, the availability of public transport **-** 4 points .. If the bridge passes through the island, but it is not possible to get to the island **-** 0 points. Actual accessibility means the presence of functioning bridges now. Prospective accessibility means the presence of bridges under construction or bridges without descent to the island. Thus, the most accessible islands are Venetian, Trukhaniv, Muromets and Halernyj, which can be reached even by public transport. The least accessible are the south islands – Kozachyj, Promizhnyj, Olgyn, also the islands of Pivnichnyj, Chortoryj, Mizhmostnuj, Malyj, Malyj Hodripark and Topolevyj, for which there is no regular transportation, you need to rent a boat to reach them. Therefore, a large part of the islands is now accessible only by boat, which makes it difficult for vacationers to access them.

Table 5. The accessibility of the Dnipro River islands within the city of Kyiv, Ukraine (source: the author's own calculations)

№	Name	Number of pedestrian bridges		Number of road bridges		Total number of bridges		Actual points	Prospective points
		Actual	Prospective	Actual	Prospective	Actual	Prospactive		
1	Obolonskyj	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	2
2	Pivnichnyj	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	Muromets	0	0	1	1	1	1	4	4
4	Chortoryj	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	Mizhmostnyj	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	Trukhaniv	1	1	1	2	1	2	4	4
7	Dolobetskyj	0	0	1	1	1	1	3	3
8	Venetian	0	0	1	2	1	2	4	4
9	Malyj Hidropark	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	Malyj	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11	Velykyj Pivdennyj	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	3
12	Halernyj	1	1	1	1	2	2	4	4
13	Zhukiv	0	0	2	2	2	2	3	3
14	Topolevyj	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
15	Vodnykiv	0	0	1	1	1	1	3	3
16	Kozachyj	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
17	Promizhnyj	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
18	Olgyn	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

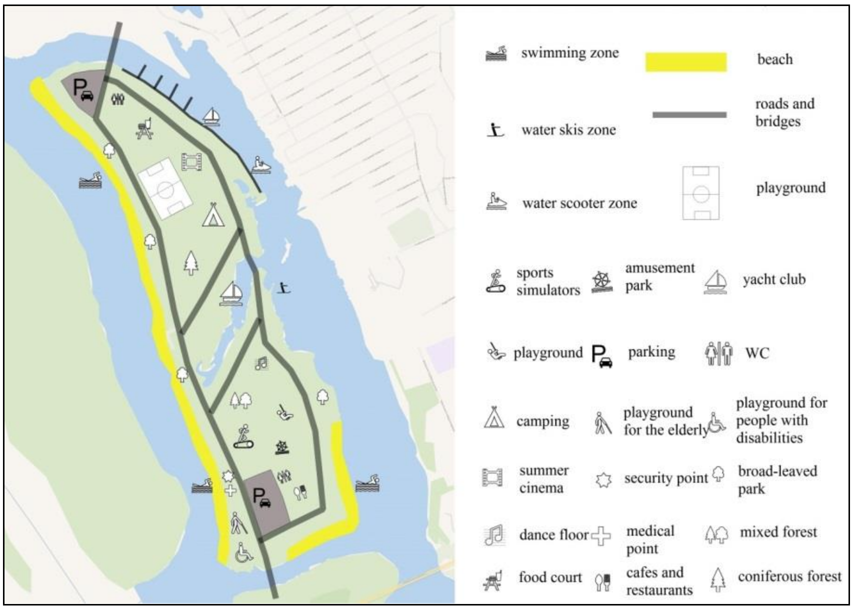

Figure 3. The landscape design proposal e.g. for the Dolobetskyj island (source: the author's own calculations)

4. Assessment of landscape diversity

Also, to assess the tourist potential of the islands, the landscape diversity of these islands should be assessed.

To assess landscape diversity, the author of the article developed such a method. The number of species of natural landscapes should be counted in points, 1 point for each species (for example, only forest – 1 point, forest and grassland – 2 points, if there is an inland water body – 3 points). So, the most diverse are the large islands – Trukhaniv, Muromets and Zhukiv, where there are different types of forests, transitional woodland-shrub and grasslands. The least diverse are the small islands - Mizhmostnyj, Malyj Hydropark and Topolevyj, which are represented only by broad-leaves forest.

5. Suggestions for tourist use of Dolobetskyj island

The diagram shows a proposal for the use of the island Dolobetskyj. This island was chosen because of its convenient location (you can even get there by public transport), significant landscape diversity - there are broad-leaves and coniferous forests and water bodies, as well as due to the irrationality of its use - the island actually uses only its southern part. The northern part is occupied by "wild" tourists, who restrict the legal recreation of other vacationers. I propose to significantly increase the beach area, which will occupy the entire west and part of the east coast. Thanks to this, vacationers will be able to evenly space and keep their distance, which is very important during the COVID-19 pandemic. Near the bridge connecting the island of Dolobetskyj with the island of Venetian, you should place an intercepting car parking, and make the island exclusively pedestrian. A playground for people with disabilities should be located near the entrance, as well as a playground for the elderly, so that they can easily get here.

A little further north is a medical center and a security point. In the south-eastern part, restaurants should be located, so that the sounds and smells of restaurants will not disturb most vacationers. A little further north, in the coastal grove, you should place playgrounds. They are located quite close to the entrance in the birch grove, which is quite bright, so children will be comfortable. Near the playground you can place the outdoor sport simulators for athletes, as well as a dance floor for young people. In a place where the river runs deep into the island, a yacht club for small boats will be appropriate, and a little further north - a place for boats and motor boats. Further north, in a coniferous forest, you can camp – away from vacationers who arrive for one day. Next to the campsite, a sports ground and a summer cinema will be appropriate, which will allow you to have fun outdoors. Next, food courts can be placed so that campers can dine al fresco. On the northern outskirts, another bridge should be built to connect with the east part of Kyiv, and near it – an intercepting parking lot. Be sure to have public toilets near restaurants and food courts.

Table 6. The landscape diversity of the Dnipro River islands within the city of Kyiv, Ukraine (source: the author's own calculations)

№	Name	Kinds of natural landscape	The number of points
1	Obolonskyj	Beaches, dunes, sands; Natural grasslands; Transitional woodland-shrub; Broad-leaved forest	4
2	Pivnichnyj	Beaches, dunes, sands; Water bodies; Transitional woodland-shrub; Broad-leaved forest	4
3	Muromets	Beaches, dunes, sands; Natural grasslands; Water bodies; Transitional woodland-shrub Broad-leaved forest	5
4	Chortoryj	Beaches, dunes, sands; Natural grasslands; Transitional woodland-shrub; Broad-leaved forest	4
5	Mizhmostnyj	Broad-leaved forest	1
6	Trukhaniv	Beaches, dunes, sands; Water bodies; Natural grasslands; Transitional woodland-shrub Broad-leaved forest; Coniferous forest; Mixed forest	7 (5)*
7	Dolobetskyj	Beaches, dunes, sands; Water bodies;Transitional woodland-shrub;Broad-leaved forest Coniferous forest	5 (4)*
8	Venetian	Beaches, dunes, sands; Water bodies; Broad-leaved forest; Coniferous forest	4 (3)*
9	Malyj Hidropark	Broad-leaved forest	1
10	Malyj	Beaches, dunes, sands; Natural grasslands; Broad-leaved forest	3
11	Velykyj Pivdennyj	Natural grasslands; Broad-leaved forest	2
12	Halernyj	Beaches, dunes, sands; Natural grasslands; Transitional woodland-shrub; Broad-leaved forest	4
13	Zhukiv	Beaches, dunes, sands; Water bodies; Natural grasslands; Transitional woodland-shrub Broad-leaved forest; Mixed forest	6 (5)*
14	Topolevyj	Broad-leaved forest	1
15	Vodnykiv	Water bodies; Natural grasslands; Broad-leaved forest; Mixed forest	4 (3)*
16	Kozachyj	Water bodies; Natural grasslands; Transitional woodland-shrub; Mixed forest	4
17	Promizhnyj	Water bodies; Natural grasslands; Mixed forest	3
18	Olgyn	Water bodies; Natural grasslands; Mixed forest	3

* - if all kinds of forests are counted as one landscape

CONCLUSION

Thus, the islands of the Dnipro River within the city of Kyiv have significant tourist potential, which is only partially used. The small number of bridges, and therefore inaccessibility, make many islands uninvolved in tourism. In addition, many islands develop only a small part of them, and most of the island is not involved in economic activities. On the example of Dolobetskyj island you can show how you to improve the tourist development of the island.

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Article history: Received: 20.08.2021 Revised: 17.12.2021 Accepted: 14.01.2022 Available online: 09.02.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.157-166
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40119-815

MEASURING REVISIT INTENTIONS OF GREEN RESORTS IN MALAYSIA: THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED VALUE AND ENVIRONMENTAL CONCERN

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Citation: Nor Azam, R.A.N., Patwary, A.K., & Rashid, B. (2022). MEASURING REVISIT INTENTIONS OF GREEN RESORTS IN MALAYSIA: THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED VALUE AND ENVIRONMENTAL CONCERN. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 157–166. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40119-815

Abstract: The tourism industry in Malaysia serves an important role in providing high-quality tourism products and services and incorporating green practices to achieve environmental sustainability. Studies on the factors that influence revisit intention among green resort guests are limited. Thus, this study approached quantitative method and aimed to assess the influence of perceived value and environmental concern in measuring tourists revisit intentions of green resorts in Malaysia. The analysis unit is the resort's guests in the selected green resorts who have stayed in one of the selected green resorts for at least two days. A total of 450 sample data were analysed using the statistical software IBM SPSS version 22. This study fills the knowledge gap by proposing that environmental awareness and environmental knowledge influence guests' intention to revisit green resorts.

Key words: environmental concern, perceived value, revisit intention, green resorts

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of a green resort is to suit the demands and wants of its visitors. The term "green" refers to actions that reduce the environmental effect, alike eco-purchasing, or recycling (Han et al., 2011). According to Park and Kim (2017), green hotels follow ecologically friendly rules, practise environmental management, adopt a variety of eco-friendly practices, execute sound green programs, and pledge to enhance the environment by green globe emblem or eco-label. Meeting client demands and desires must become the organisation's primary value driver. It is imperative that each worker grasps this notion and grows into a knowledgeable professional driven by a desire to provide excellent customer service and make customers happy. In today's competitive world, organisations need to do market research to explore new markets, analyze customer profiles according to their needs, and gather the information needed to create new products in response to evolving customer demand and desire trends (Hodgson, 1990; Kozak and Baloglu, 2011).

A better question may be, "What do people genuinely care about?" Companies must address these concerns concerning the perceived worth of products to consumers. To put it another way, a company's ability to add value to its goods and services, especially its service offerings or the service components of its business, is known as customer value (Salunke et al., 2019). Therefore, a person's willingness to engage in certain behaviours is shown by their Intention. Value and performance, promotional efforts and the spread of information about new attractions at the destination, may all influence the likelihood that customers will return to the same location again after a time. Customers are more likely to return to a resort if they previously visited one and found it efficient and affordable. According to Yang and Youngtae (2015), customers would undoubtedly reevaluate the value of a green resort after being inspired by an authentic experience. According to Grewal and Roggeveen (2020), several values dimensions might require differing based on the intensity of decision and what type of products or services being analysed. Revisit intention was examined through environmental concern and its indirect relationship via an individual's perception about environment.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Green Resort

Any activity with less impact on the environment, such as eco-purchasing or recycling, is described as "green" (Han et al., 2011). Green resorts are environmentally friendly accommodations that use environmentally friendly techniques to protect the environment, such as water and energy conservation, trash reduction, and recycling and reusing durable service goods (Ashraf et al., 2020). Hospitality marketers are becoming more conscious of the possible competitive benefit of turning green. They have been more aggressive in seizing this potential by adopting proper tactics to be recognised as an

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ecologically friendly company (Shams et al., 2021). Green practises in Malaysia's hotel, and tourist business is still relatively new from a practical standpoint. Only ten hotels have met the ASEAN Green Hotel Standards 2016, according to the statistics data. The 9th Malaysian plan strengthened under the National Green Technology Policy (NGTP) in 2009 aimed to increase tourists' arrival by 2020 (Borhan et al., 2012). The hotel sector has already incorporated green and sustainability principles following these rules. This acceptance was evident in the tourist industry, which saw an increase of green hotels built in the following years (Huh and Chang, 2017). Aside from that, several hotels have begun to employ a variety of creative approaches to increase the "greenness" of their operations (Azam et al., 2017).

Environmental concerns in Malaysia become more important and understanding how decisions are made on how to devote their time, money and effort to various products and services is the focus of customer behaviour research (Kim et al., 2020). Academics from a wide range of disciplines have been interested in green behaviour over the last three decades. Empirical studies on what factors impact Malaysian tourists' behaviour toward green resorts are sparse (Ahn and Kwon, 2020). Consequently, the study's primary purpose is to bridge the knowledge gap about Malaysian customers' motivations for choosing green resorts. So, in this research, the green resort will be promoted as a place that will leave guests with a lasting impression and a good experience, influencing their desire to return for their next vacation.

Environmental concern

Concern about the environment is a significant factor influencing consumer decision-making (Adnan et al., 2017). Environmental concern is the degree of emotion and dedication to environmental concerns. This is an essential characteristic that essential characteristic may express an individual's compassions and environmental concerns. The new environmental paradigm is used to quantify environmental concerns, which vary from extremely highly unconcerned to very worried (Cruz, 2017).

Environmental Knowledge

Environmental knowledge is described as an individual's level of understanding of a topic that substantially influences their decision-making process (Abubakar et al., 2019). Basically, environmental knowledge has two forms (Khan et al., 2020). Consumers must be taught to understand the influence of consumer knowledge about the product itself must be developed in an ecologically sustainable manner. If clients are aware of environmental concerns, their knowledge level will rise, perhaps influencing them to return to green resorts.

Environmental Awareness

Customers are well aware of the significant environmental effects of their purchases (Wahid et al., 2011). This is primarily due to individuals being more environmentally conscious as they become more aware about environmental aspects (Rasheed et al., 2019). Consumer sensitivity to the environment has risen dramatically in the last decade in reaction to the need to reduce, if not eliminate, the adverse effects of human conduct on the environment (Joshi and Rahman, 2019). Customers are now attempting to fix environmental issues via their habits, since environmental concerns have become more prevalent. Resorts are currently developing more environmentally friendly products and services. Customers with increasing environmental concerns are expected to return to green resorts shortly.

Perceived value

Perceived value refers to a user's opinion or mental appraisal of the worth of a service or product to them (Wang et al., 2019). It is characterised as a two-part construct: one of the benefits of the user and the other of the user's sacrifices (Samudro et al., 2018). Therefore, key to a successful resort was to inspire happy sensations in the customers (Saeed et al., 2020). According to this study, the customer examines their consuming experience and their real experience to decide what benefits or sacrifices they feel they would get during a stay at a green resort.

Functional value

Functional value is "the perceived usefulness derived from an alternative's potential for functional, utilitarian, or physical performance" (Sheth et al., 1991:160). The consuming decision-making process is dominated by functional qualities and logical ideas, particularly when acquiring utilitarian things, where prevalent self-oriented value (Fraccaro, et al., 2021). The perceived value of green resorts is predicted to be positively influenced by their quality because this type of resort provides customers with eco-friendly linens, improved air quality, and the use of non–toxic material conducive to customers' having a healthy experience.

Social Value

"The benefit obtained from the product's potential to boost social self-concept" is how social value is defined (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001:16). The social value of a product or service is determined by its affiliation with socioeconomic, demographic, and cultural-ethnic groups that are positively or negatively stereotyped. As a result, customers in this research saw society as a place where they may benefit from interacting with other individuals. When a customer feels linked to other individuals, they can receive value.

Epistemic value

The desire to experience something different or a whole new experience provides customers with epistemic value. Epistemic value is “the perceived utility acquired from an alternative’s capacity to arouse curiosity, provide novelty, and satisfy a desire for knowledge” (Sheth et al., 1991; Suki et al., 2021). In this current study, the value will be generated when the customers’ desire for knowledge and curiosity on any aspect of the green resort is fulfilled.

Emotional value

The emotional value represents "the perceived benefit of an alternative emotion or an alternative ability to evoke an emotional state" (Sheth et al., 1991; Yrjölä et al., 2019). Different types of goods and services are associated with emotions. In this study, customers will develop positive and negative emotions related to the experience at the green resort, especially feelings of comfort and enjoyment, the ability to describe the overall experience and sometimes the feeling of surprise due to certain pleasant situations that they have never encountered before.

Revisit Intention

Customers who have had past encounters with hotels or resorts that they consider very useful in terms of efficiency and economic elements are more inclined to return; they are more likely to lead to a desire to return (An et al., 2019). Repeat visitors are tourists knowledgeable of their location and have high expectations based on prior experiences (Su and Swanson, 2017). Similarly, repeat visitors' intentions might also be influenced by the promotional efforts of tourist destinations that could assist them in recalling their positive memories with the products or services before performing their corresponding behaviours in the future. For example, disseminating information on the tourist attractions voluntarily and revisiting them (Lukuyu et al., 2012). Similarly, past tourism studies also found that post-visit evaluations would lead to higher levels of tourists' intentions to revisit a particular destination and recommend it to their families and friends (Azali et al., 2021). In this study, researchers explore the importance of influencing factors such as environmental issues and values in Ia customer's intention to return to a green resort.

Proposed Conceptual Model

Accordingly, this study adapted and modified a research framework proposed in a prior study by Yang and Youngtae (2015) on the influence of perceived green value on green hotel guests' propensity to revisit green hotels. The current study was expected to extend the prior study to grasp how the guests value their decision to stay in a green lodging through their personal experience. Potential trade-off in the relationship between green resorts and their guests, and how these guests would reflect these values on their revisit intention.

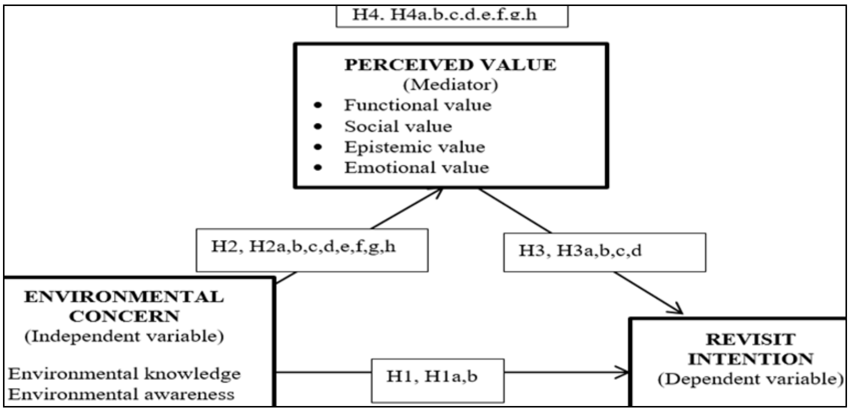

Figure 1. The influence of environmental concern dimensions and perceived value dimensions on customers' intention to revisit green resort

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

To gather the information needed for this investigation, researchers used a questionnaire survey. The variables needed to answer the study question and test any relevant hypotheses are measured using a structured questionnaire. The survey's primary goal is to learn how respondents feel and think about the events and concerns (Collis and Hussey, 2009). As a result, a thorough review of the relevant literature was conducted before compiling the questions. The question scale design was adopted by the Likert scale (Churchill, 1999). In this survey, it was decided to carry out a seven-point scale measurement in the questionnaire. In this case, a multi-level 7-point scale is used: A score of "1" is depicted as strongly disagree up to "7" as strongly agree are used in measurement of environmental knowledge, environmental awareness, functional value, epistemic value. The social value determines whether the customers view society as where they can obtain some benefits through their interaction with other people. In terms of scale, the 7- point Likert scale measurement is used, from 1 = "Not at all important" to 7 = "Extremely important".

The emotional value determines whether the experience of the visit will lead to tourists' positive or negative emotions. The 12 items comprise six positive (joyful, happiness, excitement, calmness, surprise, relaxed) and six negative (annoyed, upset, frustrated, anger, sadness, and boredom). Specifically, the customers will be asked to what extent had they experienced these twelve emotions during their visit, ranging from 1 = "I have not experienced this emotion at all" to 7 = "I have strongly experienced this emotion". Revisit 5 items explain intentions. The revisit intentions measure the customers' intention to revisit the destination and recommend others to visit the destination (Kozak and Baloglu, 2011; Rashid, 2013). In terms of scale, the 7-points Likert scale measurement is used ranging from 1 = "Not likely at all" to 7 = "Definitely". The current study involved 450 green resort guests who stayed for two nights or more in these three selected green resorts. A total of 600 questionnaires were distributed at the beach of the green resorts. The data of this study were analysed with 450 data using the IBM SPSS version 22.

RESULTS

Demographic Profile of Respondents

Table 1 presents the demographic profile of 450 respondents from three selected green resorts in the northern region of Peninsular Malaysia who took part in the study's questionnaire survey. Most of the respondents were female (63.1%). In addition to that, most of the respondents were between the age of 26 and 40 years (48.1%), which was followed by of those who were below 25 years of age (28.7%) and between 41 and 55 years of age (14.7%). Only 8.2% of the total respondents were above 55 years. In addition, some respondents were from other countries (69.3%), such as Argentina, Britain, United Arab Emirates, Sweden, France, Germany, Iran, China, Australia, the United States of America, Holland, and Norway. The remaining 30.7% were Malaysians. Meanwhile, a large proportion of these respondents were employed in the private sector (60.0%). There were 27.8% who were self-employed and 12.2% who were employed in the government sector.

Table .1 Demographic Profile of Respondents

Demographic information	Categories	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	166	36.9
	Female	284	63.1
Age	Below 25	129	28.7
	26–40	218	48.4
	41–55	66	14.7
	56 or over	37	8.20
Nationality	Malaysian	138	30.7
	Non-Malaysian	312	69.3
Employment sector	Government	55	12.2
	Private	270	60.0
	Self-employed	125	27.8
Occupation	Executive	49	11.0
	Professional	135	30.0
	Business	195	43.3
	Others	71	15.7
Salary scale	RM 1,000 and below	34	7.6
	RM 1,001–RM 2,000	16	3.6
	RM 2,001–RM 3,000	111	24.7
	RM 3,001–RM 4,000	59	13.1
	RM 4,001 and above	230	51.0
Purpose of stay	Leisure	309	68.7
	Business	20	4.4
	Business and leisure	32	7.1
	Other	89	19.8
Length of stay (nights)	2	12	2.7
	3–4	277	61.6
	5–7	105	23.3
	More than 7	56	12.4
Solo or group travel	Solo	44	9.80
	With partner or spouse	138	30.7
	Family with children	131	29.1
	With parents	42	9.30
	With friends	95	21.1
Source of information on the green resort	Television or newspaper	52	11.6
	Friends and relatives	35	7.80
	Internet	197	43.8
	Travel or tour agency	54	12.0
	Tourism Malaysia	28	6.20
	Personal experience	84	18.7

Table 2. Results of Reliability Analysis

Construct	Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α)
Environmental concern	
Environmental knowledge	0.720
Environmental awareness	0.787
Perceived value	
Functional value	0.879
Social value	0.871
Epistemic value	0.933
Emotional value	0.710
Revisit Intention	0.931

Table 3. Results of Simple Regression Analysis for Environmental Concern and Revisit Intention to the Green Resorts in Malaysia

Constructs	B	SE B	*β*	Sig.
Environmental knowledge	0.062	0.055	0.045	2.57
Environmental awareness	0.673	0.46	0.590	.000
R = 0.608				
R^2 = 3.67				
F = 130.929				

Table 4. Results of Simple Regression Analysis for Environmental Concern and Perceived Functional Value

Constructs	B	SE B	β	Sig.
Environmental knowledge	-0.083	0.050	-0.063	1.01
Environmental awareness	0.726	0.042	0.665	.000
R = 0.646				
R^2 = 0.414				
F = 159.856				

Table 5.Results of Simple Regression Analysis for Environmental Concern and Perceived Social Value

Constructs	B	SE B	β	Sig.
Environmental knowledge	0.170	0.077	0.093	.029
Environmental awareness	0.770	0.065	0.504	.000
R = 0.646				
R^2 = 0.414				
F = 159.856				

As for the occupation aspect, business (43.3%), which was followed by those who were from the professional level (30.0%) and executive-level (11.0%). Regarding the salary scale, 51.0% of the total respondents earned more than RM 4,001 and 24.7% earned between RM 2,001 and RM 3,000. Others earned between RM 3,001 and RM 4,000 (13.1%). Adding to that, a vast majority of these respondents regarded leisure as the most important reason for their stay in the green resorts (68.7%), followed by business and leisure (7.1%), and lastly, business purpose (4.4%). It is assumed that the green resort guests could consume the relevant products and services during their stay in the green resorts for at least two nights. Hence, the length of stay was categorised as follows: (1) 2 nights; (2) 3–4 nights; (3) 5–7 nights; (4) more than 7 nights. In terms of the length of stay, most of the respondents stayed for three to four nights (61.6%), followed by those who stayed for five to seven nights (23.3%). The remaining stayed for more than seven nights (12.4%), and only 2.7% stayed for two nights. These respondents mostly travelled with their partner or spouse (30.7%) or as a family with children (29.1%). This study also acquired information on how the respondents were aware of the green resorts. The obtained data revealed that 44.0% of the respondents obtained information from the Internet, whereas 18.7% gained information on the green resorts from their personal experience. Others were introduced to the green resorts through the television or newspaper (11.6%), friends and relatives (7.8%), and Tourism Malaysia (6.2%).

Reliability Test

Table 2 shows that the Cronbach's alpha values were above the minimum acceptable value given by Hair et al. (2010), which was 0.6 for social science research, based on the data obtained from the study. According to the findings, the constructs had an adequate internal consistency, with values ranging from 0.707 to 0.943. In other words, the assessed components, particularly the constructs of epistemic value, social value, and revisit intention, had strong internal consistency. In light of the literature on measuring scales, this investigation determined that the instrument was reliable in internal consistency (Hair et al., 2010). As a result, the questionnaire is considered official and may be utilised in future research. For clarity and to prevent misunderstanding, one item of emotional significance was removed from Table 2. Before the actual data collection, a pilot study was done to assess the validity and reliability of the survey instruments (Sekaran, 2000). The replies indicated that they were unsure about the definition of 'annoyance.' Cronbach's alpha for reliability test findings are as follows:

Referring to the proposed framework in Figure 1, all proposed hypotheses for testing are presented in the following:

H1 "Environmental concern influences the revisit intention to the green resorts".

$H1_a$ "Environmental knowledge influences the revisit intention to the green resorts".

$H1_b$ "Environmental awareness influences the revisit intention to the green resorts".

H2 "Environmental concern influences the dimensions of the perceived value of the green resort guests".

$H2_a$ "Environmental knowledge influences the perceived functional value".

$H2_b$ "Environmental awareness influences the perceived functional value".

$H2_c$ "Environmental knowledge influences the perceived social value".

$H2_d$ "Environmental awareness influences the perceived social value".

$H2_e$ "Environmental knowledge influences the perceived epistemic value".

$H2_f$ "Environmental awareness influences the perceived epistemic value".

$H2_g$ "Environmental knowledge influences the perceived emotional value".

$H2_h$ "Environmental awareness influences the perceived emotional value".

H3 "Perceived value influences the revisit intention to the green resorts".

$H3_a$ "Perceived functional value influences the revisit intention to the green resorts".

$H3_b$ "Perceived social value influences the revisit intention to the green resorts".

$H3_c$ "Perceived epistemic value influences the revisit intention to the green resorts".

$H3_d$ "Perceived emotional value would influence customers' intention to revisit green resorts".

H4 "Perceived value mediates the relationship between environmental concern and revisit intention to the green resorts".

$H4_a$ "Perceived functional value mediates the relationship between environmental knowledge and revisit intention to the green resorts".

$H4_b$ "Perceived social value mediates the relationship between environmental knowledge and revisit intention to the green resorts".

$H4_c$ "Perceived epistemic value mediates the relationship between environmental knowledge and revisit intention to the green resorts".

$H4_d$ "Perceived emotional value mediates the relationship between environmental knowledge and revisit intention to the green resorts".

$H4_e$ "Perceived functional value mediates the relationship between environmental awareness and revisit intention to the green resorts".

$H4_f$ "Perceived social value mediates the relationship between environmental awareness and revisit intention to the green resorts".

$H4_g$ "Perceived epistemic value mediates the relationship between environmental awareness and revisit intention to the green resorts".

$H4_h$ "Perceived emotional value mediates the relationship between environmental awareness and revisit intention to the green resorts".

Hypothesis Testing

This study conducted a simple regression analysis to test the hypotheses. The obtained results in Table 3 revealed that environmental concern explained 36.7% ($R^2 = 0.367$) of the total variance in the revisit intention to the green resorts ($F = 130.929$, $p = .000$). In this case, the positive relationship between environmental awareness and revisit intention was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.590$, $t = 14.724$, $p = .000$). However, the relationship between environmental knowledge and revisit intention was not significant ($\beta = 0.045$, $t = 1.134$, $p > .05$); thus, rejecting $H1_a$. In addition, the obtained beta values revealed that environmental awareness, compared to environmental knowledge, contributed a higher influence in predicting the revisit intention to the green resorts; therefore, $H1_b$ was supported.

The obtained results in Table 4 revealed that environmental concern explained 41.4% ($R^2 = 0.414$) of the total variance in the perceived functional value ($F = 159.86$, $p = .000$). In this case, the relationship between environmental awareness and perceived functional value was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.665$, $t = 17.254$, $p = .000$). Nevertheless, the relationship between environmental knowledge and perceived functional value was not significant ($\beta = -0.063$, $t = -1.645$, $p > .05$); thus, rejecting $H2_a$. In addition, the obtained beta values indicated that environmental awareness, compared to environmental knowledge, contributed a higher influence in predicting the perceived functional value; thus, $H2_b$ was supported.

Referring to Table 5, this study found that the environmental concern explained 29.2% ($R^2 = 0.292$) of the total variance in the perceived social value ($F = 93.62$, $p = .00$). The relationship between environmental knowledge and perceived social value was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.077$, $t = 2.195$, $p = .0029$). Likewise, the relationship between environmental awareness and perceived social value was significant ($\beta = 0.504$, $t = -11.883$, $p = .000$).

In other words, both $H2_c$ and $H2_d$ were supported in this study. Despite that, the obtained beta values indicated that environmental awareness contributed to higher influence in predicting perceived social value than environmental knowledge. Referring to Table 6, the obtained results revealed that environmental concern explained 43.3% of the total variance in the perceived epistemic value ($R^2 = 0.433$, $F = 172.341$, $p < .01$). This study also found that the relationship between environmental awareness and the perceived epistemic value was statistically significant and positive ($\beta = 0.697$, $t = 18.358$, $p < .01$). On the other hand, environmental knowledge had a significant and negative relationship with the perceived epistemic value ($\beta = -0.146$, $t = -3.836$, $p < .01$). In addition, the obtained beta values indicated that environmental awareness, compared to environmental knowledge, contributed a higher influence in predicting the perceived epistemic value. In this case, both $H2_e$ and $H2_f$ were supported in this study.

Table 6. Results of Simple Regression Analysis for Environmental Concern and Perceived Epistemic Value

Constructs	B	SE B	β	Sig.
Environmental knowledge	-0.235	0.061	-0.146	.000
Environmental awareness	0.943	0.051	0.697	.000
R = 0.660				
R² = 0.433				
F = 172.341				

Table 7. Results of Simple Regression Analysis for Environmental Concern and Perceived Emotional Value

Constructs	B	SE B	β	Sig.
Environmental knowledge	0.115	0.040	0.139	.004
Environmental awareness	0.171	0.033	0.245	.000
R = 0.322				
R² = 0.099				
F = 25.766				

Referring to Table 7, environmental concern was found to explain 9.9% ($R^2 = .099$) of the total variance in the perceived emotional value ($F = 25.766$, $p = .000$). Both relationships that involved environmental knowledge ($\beta = 0.139$, $t = 2.903$, $p = .004$) and environmental awareness ($\beta = 0.245$, $t = 5.134$ $p < .01$) significantly contributed to the prediction of perceived emotional value. The obtained beta values also indicated that environmental awareness contributed a higher influence in predicting the perceived emotional value. Based on the obtained results, both $H2_g$ and $H2_h$ were supported in this study. Using basic regression methodology, this research examined Hypothesis 3 on the link between revisit intention, and perceived value to green resorts. The findings demonstrated that functional value (= 0.0456, t = 10.706, p =.000) and epistemic value (= 0.0285, t = 5.781, p =.000) explained 55.7 % variance in revisit intention. Out of all the components examined in this research, the functional value had the greatest impact in predicting revisit intention, with a standardized beta of 0.456. As a result, the functional value was the most significant predictor of revisit intention, followed by the epistemic value (standardized beta of 0.285). Social value (= 0.080, t = 1.689, p =.092) and emotional value (= 0.037, t = 1.058, p =.291) were also found. Only H3a and H3c (functional and epistemic value) were supported in this research. In contrast, the other two hypotheses (H3b and H3d) (social and emotional worth) were rejected due to a p-value larger than 0.05.

Perceived Value as the Mediator

This study assessed the mediating role of perceived value in the relationship between environmental concern and revisit intention through four hypothesised paths according to the proposed method by Barron and Kenny (1986). This study found that the relationship between environmental knowledge and revisit intention was not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.045$, $t = 1.134$, $p > .05$). Thus, the initial requirement of this mediating test was not met. As patch *c* was not established, there was no need for this study to proceed with the ensuing analysis to assess the mediation effect of perceived value (functional value, social value, epistemic value, and emotional value). In other words, the study could not confirm the mediation effect of perceived value in the relationship between environmental knowledge and revisit intention to the green resorts. This study initially assessed the relationship between environmental awareness and revisit intention (*c*), which revealed that the relationship was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.590$, $t = 14.724$, $p = .000$).

The study first assessed the relationship between environmental awareness and perceived functional value (*a*), which indicated that the relationship was also significant ($\beta = 0.665$, $t = 17.254$, $p = .000$). Following that, this study assessed the effect of the relationship between environmental awareness and perceived functional value on revisit intention (*b*). The results revealed that this path was also significant ($\beta = .0456$, $t = 10.706$, $p = .000$). The obtained results demonstrated the significance of the relationship between environmental awareness and revisit Intention ($\beta = 0.272$, $p < .01$), but with a slight reduction of unstandardised coefficient (β). Perceived functional value was found to mediate thIis study's relationship between environmental awareness and revisit Intention to the green resorts.

To reaffirm this partial mediation, this study conducted the Sobel test, which revealed statistical significance ($t = 8.772$, $p < .01$). In other words, a partial mediation occurred; thus, supporting H4e. Concerning $H4_f$, this study assessed the effect of the relationship between environmental awareness and perceived social value (*a*), which revealed that the relationship was significant ($\beta = 0.504$, $t = -11.883$, $p = .000$). However, the effect of the relationship between environmental awareness and perceived social value on revisit intention (*b*) was not significant ($\beta = 0.080$, $t = 1.689$, $p = .092$). With that, the study was not able to proceed with the subsequent analysis.

As a result, this study could not confirm the mediation effect of perceived social value on the relationship between environmental awareness and revisit Intention (H4f). Apart from that, this study found that the relationship between environmental awareness and perceived epistemic value (*a*) was significant ($\beta = 0.697$, $t = 18.358$, $p < .01$). Similarly, the effect of the relationship between environmental awareness and perceived epistemic value on revisit intention (*b*) was also significant ($\beta = 0.0285$, $t = 5.781$, $p = .000$). This led to the analysis of the effect of environmental awareness on revisit intention, controlling the effect of perceived epistemic value (*c*'). It was revealed that the relationship between environmental awareness and revisit Intention was significant ($\beta = 0.330$, $p < .01$), but with a reduction in unstandardised coefficient (β). Additionally, a partial mediation of perceived epistemic value on the relationship between environmental awareness and revisit intention to the green resorts occurred and was further reaffirmed using the Sobel test ($t = 7.827$, $p < .01$). Thus, H4g was supported in this study. Finally, this study also assessed the relationship between environmental awareness and perceived emotional value (*a*) concerning $H4_h$. In this case, path *a* was found significant (β = 0.245, t = 5.134 p < .01). However, the effect of the relationship between environmental awareness and perceived emotional value on revisit intention (*b*) was not significant (β = 0.037, t = 1.058, p = .291). Therefore, the study could not proceed with the ensuing analysis on confirming the mediation effect of perceived emotional value in the relationship between environmental awareness and revisit intention. Accordingly, this study conducted a series of regression analyses. The obtained regression analysis results are summarised in Table 8 and Table 9, which demonstrates the mediating role of functional value and epistemic value in the significant relationship between environmental awareness and revisit intention to the green resorts. Meanwhile, the social value and emotional value were found to have no mediation effect on the relationship between environmental awareness and revisit intention to the green resorts.

Table 8. Results of simple regression analysis for perceived value and revisit intention

		Unstandardised Coefficient		Standardised coefficient		
Model		B	Std. Error	B	t-value	Sig.
	(Constant)	1.420	.220		6.440	.000
	Functional value	.476	.044	.456	10.706	.000
	Social value	.060	.035	.080	1.689	.092
	Epistemic value	.241	.042	.285	5.781	.000
	Emotional value	.060	.057	.037	1.058	0291
R = 0.747						
R^2 = 0.557						
F = 140.084						
p < .001						

Table 9. Results of regression analysis on the mediation effect of perceived value on the relationship between environmental awareness and revisit intention Note: Y denotes the dependent variable, which is the revisit intention to the green resorts

Independent variable (X)	Mediator (M)	Path	Coefficients (B)	Sig.	Results
Environmental awareness	Functional value	X→Y (*c*)	0.590	.000	Partial mediation
		X→M (*a*)	0.665	.000	
		X→M→Y (*b*)	0.456	.000	
		X→Y→M (*c'*)	0.272	.000	
	Social value	X→Y (*c*)	0.590	.000	No mediation
		X→M (*a*)	0.504	.000	
		X→M→Y (*b*)	0.080	.092	
		X→Y→M (*c'*)	-	-	
	Epistemic value	X→Y (*c*)	0.590	.000	Partial mediation
		X→M (*a*)	0.697	.000	
		X→M→Y (*b*)	0.285	.000	
		X→Y→M (*c'*)	0.330	.000	
	Emotional value	X→Y (*c*)	0.590	.000	No mediation
		X→M (*a*)	0.248	.000	
		X→M→Y (*b*)	0.037	.0291	
		X→Y→M (*c'*)	-	-	

Overall, the perceived value did not mediate the relationship between environmental knowledge and revisit intention to green resorts. Nevertheless, the study proved that functional value and epistemic value partially mediate the relationship between environmental awareness and revisit intention to the green resorts, given the reduction in the influence of environmental awareness after the inclusion of both mediators. Despite that, both relationships' reduction was significantly different from zero; thus, reaffirming the partial mediation effect.

Discussion of Findings

The regression analysis of the study showed that environmental concern had a substantial positive correlation with the desire to return to green resorts, based on hypothesis testing. Aman et al. (2012) found that environmental concerns substantially impacted green purchase intention, and our results support their findings. According to Irawan and Darmayanti (2012), environmental concerns strongly affected green purchasing behaviour among many Indonesian university students. Environmentalism and epistemic value were shown to impact behavioural intention, while environmental concern was found to have an impact on behavioural intention. Researchers hypothesised that environmental knowledge did not impact green purchase behaviour (Patel et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2018).

Environmental awareness in this study reflects the concern and apprehension towards the diverse facets of environmental problems. This finding is in line with that reported by Han et al. (2011) and Trang et al. (2019). The results of hypotheses testing also showed a significant relationship between environmental concern and guests' perceived value. This is in line with the study conducted by Shamah et al. (2016), which claimed the individuals with adequate concern about the environment had a better understanding of environmental protection actions and usually generated positive feelings due to performing green behaviour. According to the findings, environmental information has a considerable impact on perceived social worth, epistemic value, and emotional value. In terms of functional value, the current study's findings demonstrated that functional value had the greatest impact on revisit intention. The results align with Azam et al., (2017) which shows that visitors consider the functional value to be the most important consideration in their decision-making.

When visitors to green resorts have a thirst for knowledge and are intrigued by the attributes of green resorts, epistemic value emerges. The findings on epistemic value agree with those of Mutum et al. (2021), who discovered a positive relationship between epistemic value and sustainable consumption and green purchasing behaviour. This validates the epistemic value's projected primary advantages for the tourist experience. According to the findings, neither social nor emotional values had a significant impact on revisit intention. Zhang et al. (2018) countered the previous results by demonstrating the importance of social value on the choice to remain or intend to return. According to Azam et al. (2017), the social value had a key impact in visitors' perceptions of their stay at a green resort. The impact of social needs and self-image on green purchasing intentions was also discussed by Kautish and Sharma (2019).

The main purpose of this study was to investigate whether the dimensions of perceived value had a role in mediating the link between environmental concern and the desire to return to green resorts. The empirical outcomes of this study failed to support the hypotheses ($H4_a$, $H4_b$, $_H4_c$, and H4d). There was no mediation effect of perceived functional, social, epistemic, and emotional values on the relationship between environmental knowledge and customers' intention to revisit green resorts. Based on the findings, no mediation effect of perceived value was noted in the relationship between environmental knowledge and revisit intention to green resorts. The results of $H4_a$, $H4_b$, $H4_c$, and H4d are not in line with past studies, as several past studies demonstrated the mediating role of perceived value in the relationship between environmental knowledge and revisit intention to green hotels (Song et al., 2017; Szabo and Webster, 2021). The findings reaffirmed customers' insufficient level of environmental knowledge, which influenced their decision-making process (Bangsa and Schlegelmilch, 2020; Verma and Chandra, 2018). Nevertheless, this study's social and emotional values did not establish any mediating role between environmental awareness and revisit intention to green resorts. Shamah et al. (2016) emphasised the role of perceived value in elaborating the behavioural intention in the pre-purchase stage among green hotel guests, which pointed out the insignificant mediating role of perceived value in the correlation between environmental concern and behavioural intention. Nevertheless, this present study exemplifies environmental knowledge (no mediation effect) and environmental awareness (did not directly explain the variance in revisit intention). To a certain extent, these are partially mediated by external factors, particularly functional and epistemic values in the post-purchase stage.

Theoretical Contributions

Theoretically, researchers can construct a framework for perceived value, environmental concern and revisit intention in the context of green resorts. It was shown that there was an inverse correlation between environmental concern, perceived value, and desire to return to green resorts when the SET was used as a foundational theory. The SET postulates the willingness to exchange if one receives a reward and when benefits outweigh costs (Zietsman et al., 2020). Essentially, SET considers the exchange as the basis of human behaviour (Nunkoo, 2016). The construction of this framework adds to the body of knowledge about guest assessment structures. This empirical research adds to our understanding of the importance of integrating these variables when evaluating resort customers' travel experiences. Various environmental concern and perceived value characteristics were employed as significant elements in guest evaluations of return intention in this research. This research may test the exclusive link between environmental concern and perceived value simultaneously, yielding more significant results. The mediating effect of perceived value in terms of functional, emotional, social, and epistemic values in the link between characteristics of environmental concern and revisit intention is explored in this research. Overall, the study outcomes offer empirical evidence on the developed framework about revisit intention within the context of green resorts, including the strength of the relationships of environmental concern, perceived value, and revisit intention. Although the items of environmental concern, perceived value, and revisit intention in this study were adapted from past studies, this study contributes to the methodological aspect by illustrating the reliability and validity of these items in different settings and contexts, namely green resorts located in Malaysia.

Limitations of Study and Recommendations for Future Research

Future studies should look at additional characteristics that might explain the differences in return intentions. For example, elements like appeal, attitude, and contentment might impact the link between perceived value and the likelihood of a return visit. Various characteristics of perceived value are critical, and they are dependent on the decision level and the sorts of items or services, according to Sweeney and Soutar (2001). For future study, it's also advised to look at other possible mediators in this exclusive link between environmental concern and revisit intention, such as self-identity and green image. Lastly, there are the data processing and analytic processes. Multiple regression analysis is known for its ability to predict the strength of relationships between variables. This method provides regression coefficients equivalent to more advanced analytical techniques, such as LISREL's structural equation modelling (SEM) (Hayes, 2013). The primary flaw of multiple regression analysis is its inability to account for random measurement error or the qualities or conditions that influence variable measurement, which is addressed in SEM. Since SEM may effectively include the whole range of existing multivariate analytic techniques, future research should consider using it.

CONCLUSION

The major goal of this research is to determine how perceived value influences the desire to return to green resorts. This research looked at the direct association between environmental concern and revisit intention and the indirect relationship between revisit intention and environmental concern through perceived value. There have been few studies on the impact of other aspects of perceived value, like epistemic values, functional, revisit intention, and social, emotional on revisit intention. Perceived value is described as the key to interpreting visitor behaviour in marketing literature. Green value has been deemed as an insignificant mediator for intention to purchase. Thus, there is a need to assess the mechanism of mediating variables in the relationship between perceived value and revisit intention (Yang and Youngtae, 2015). In addressing this gap, this present study extends the existing knowledge based on destination marketing by developing an integrated research framework. This study enhances the understanding of the varied dimensions of perceived value (i.e., functional, emotional, social, and epistemic values) as the mediator between various dimensions of environmental concern and revisit intention among green resort guests.

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Article history: Received: 19.09.2021 Revised: 11.12.2021 Accepted: 17.01.2022 Available online: 09.02.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817
Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.167-174
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40120-816

THE RECOVERY OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN BALI PROVINCE THROUGH THE PENTA-HELIX COLLABORATION STRATEGY IN THE NEW NORMAL ERA

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Citation: Budhi, M.K.S., Lestari, N.P.N.E., & Suasih, N.N.R. (2022). THE RECOVERY OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN BALI PROVINCE THROUGH THE PENTA-HELIX COLLABORATION STRATEGY IN THE NEW NORMAL ERA. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 167–174. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40120-816

Abstract: Tourism is a leading sector that makes an important contribution to regional economic growth in the Province of Bali. During the global COVID-19 pandemic, Bali tourism experienced a very drastic decline. The COVID-19 pandemic has an impact on all industries, including the tourism industry. This study aims to formulate a recovery strategy for the tourism industry in Bali Province in the short, medium and long term, in the New Normal Era. The type of data that will be used is perception data and existing data so that the analytical method used in this study is a quantitative approach in the form of descriptive qualitative and SWOT. Based on the results of data analysis, it can be concluded that each penta-helix element plays an important role in efforts to recover Bali tourism in the new normal era according to its authority and capability. Strategies/policies that are considered as short-term priorities are the provision of subsidized interest and credit restructuring. Meanwhile, what is considered a priority for the medium term is the organization of international events as well as training and internship cooperation for tourism human resources and the creative economy. The penta-helix element generally considers strengthening access and strengthening attractions as long-term priorities.

Key words: tourism recovery, penta-helix, new normal era, strategy, SWOT

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a leading sector that makes an important contribution to regional economic growth in Bali Province (Antara and Sumarniasih, 2017; Wijaya et al., 2020). This is supported by the availability of natural resources and socio-cultural communities that have a unique and noble culture, so that they become attractive tourist destinations for domestic and foreign tourists (Suasih et al., 2017). The tourism sector as the largest contributor to Gross Regional Domestic Revenue in Bali Province, followed by the agricultural sector and the industrial sector (Soritua, 2015).

The competitiveness of the tourism sector in Bali Province is very large. However, during the global pandemic due to Corona Virus Diseases-2019 (COVID-19), Bali tourism experienced a very drastic decline (Suasih et al., 2021). The COVID-19 pandemic has an impact on all industries in Bali Province and even the world, including the tourism industry. The impact of Covid-19 on tourism is very large because the tourism industry is closely related to other industries, namely Hospitality, Transportation, Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs), especially those that produce handicrafts, souvenirs, culinary, restaurants, travel agencies, and tour guides. Although Bali has experienced sluggishness before, namely the Bali Bombings in 2002 and 2005 and the eruption of Mount Agung in 2017, this pandemic resulted in 3,060 workers in Bali experiencing layoffs, and there were 77,307 workers in the tourism sector, such as hotels, restaurants and staff. tourism guides are laid off (Suasih and Wijaya, 2021).

The COVID-19 pandemic, which had a significant impact on the tourism sector, caused economic growth to experience a sharp decline. BPS Bali Province recorded that Bali's economic growth in the first quarter of 2020 was 1.14% year on year (yoy), lower than Indonesia's economic growth. In addition, economic growth in the first quarter of 2020 was recorded as the first negative growth in a decade. The magnitude of the impact of the global COVID-19 pandemic in the world is thought to have caused major shocks (negative shocks) to the global, national, and regional economies. Even in the second quarter of 2020, Bali's economic growth contracted deeper by -10.98% (yoy) (Statistics Indonesia, 2020).

The Bali Provincial Government has acted quickly by taking policies to deal with the impact of COVID-19, in the form of budget relocation to support policies in the health, economy, social safety nets and policies in the tourism sector (Suasih and Wijaya, 2021). Policies in the field of tourism, in particular, the Central Government through the Minister of Finance of the Republic of Indonesia, has approved the proposed tourism grants affected by COVID-19 for regencies/cities throughout Bali, as areas that become tourism destinations that are experiencing the impact of financial

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disturbances, and a decrease in Regional Original Income and has an impact on to tourism businesses. The Tourism Grant is allocated for tourism business actors by 70% and the Regency/City Government by 30%.

In connection with efforts to recover tourism to be able to increase PAD in Bali Province in the New Normal era or a new life order which is currently being drafted by the government to overcome the Bali economy due to the Covid-19 pandemic, there is a lot of discussion among the public. The community must now prepare for the New Normal Era to live side by side with COVID-19. One of them is in the tourism sector by opening tourist destinations and the implementation of special health protocols in the tourism sector. Several MSMEs and the tourism sector experienced significant changes during this pandemic, especially during the New Normal (Wijaya and Suasih, 2020). New Normal policies and arrangements have been prepared, especially in the tourism sector, in this case the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy has compiled a CHS (Cleanliness, Health and Safety) program as a new normal order in tourist destinations by involving tourism industry players and the creative economy which is expected to be tourism can be productive and safe from COVID-19. All programs that have been prepared and planned by the Bali provincial government in their implementation require support and synergy between sectors and related parties, such as academics, government, business circles and media groups and customers. According to Pitana and Diarta (2009), there are many positive impacts of tourism on the economy, including income from foreign exchange, healthy foreign trade balance, income from tourism businesses, government revenues, employment, multiplier effect, and utilization tourism facilities by local communities. With so many tourism potentials in the Province of Bali, it is hoped that the income of an area and the surrounding community can increase as tourists arrive, for this reason, consolidation between elements in the penta-helix model is needed, namely the role of business, government, community, academic, and media (BGCAM). The government's role in tourism development in the era of the new normal is very crucial, so that the program is successful. Therefore, it is very interesting to study about Tourism Industry Recovery in Bali Province through the penta-helix collaboration strategy. The purpose of this study is to analyze and formulate a recovery strategy for the tourism industry in Bali Province in the short, medium and long term, in the new normal era so that it can be used as a reference in making strategic decisions for the Government.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. Concept of Tourism

Kodhyat (1998) states that tourism is a journey from one place to another, temporary in nature, carried out by individuals or groups, as an effort to find balance or harmony and happiness with the environment in the social, cultural, natural and scientific dimensions. Meanwhile, Murphy (1985) defines the tourism sector as a whole of elements related to tourists, tourist destinations, travel, industry and others, which are the result of tourist trips to tourist destinations as long as the trip is not permanent. Tourism is a system that includes tourists and the services provided (in the form of facilities, attractions, transportation, and accommodation) to satisfy and support their journey. Furthermore, Marpaung (2002) defines tourism as a temporary movement carried out by humans with the aim of getting out of their routine work, or also from their place of residence. In this regard, Soekadijo (2000) said that the tourism sector is all community activities related to tourists. Because tourism consists of various organizational activities that provide goods and services to tourists, such as tourist transportation, accommodation, human attractions and natural attractions, personal services and government services, intermediaries such as traders and travel agents, the tourism sector is often called the tourism industry (Bull, 2011).

In tourism activities there are several parties who have a role and are directly involved in tourism activities. The following picture illustrates the illustration of stakeholders in tourism (Sunaryo, 2013).

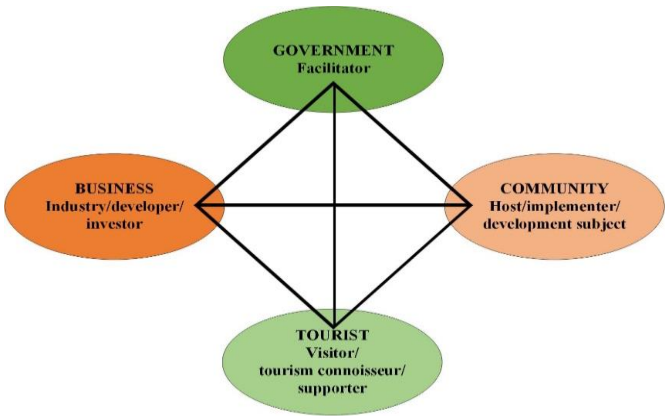

Figure 1. Stakeholders in Tourism
(Source: Sunaryo, 2013; has been reprocessed)

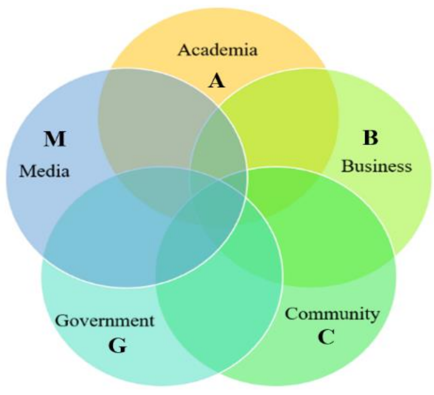

Figure 2. Penta-helix Model Collaboration
(Source: Vani et al., 2020; has been reprocessed)

B. Penta-helix Model

Penta-helix is an extension of the triple-helix strategy by involving various elements of society and non-profit institutions in order to realize innovation (Lindmark et al., 2009). Through this synergistic collaboration, it is hoped that an innovation will be realized that is supported by various resources that interact synergistically. Triple-helix was first introduced by Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff in 1995, with elements of academic, business sector, and government. Triple-helix was then developed again with one element added, Civil Society or a community which became the quadruple-helix, to accommodate the community's perspective. The quadruple-helix concept was developed by maintaining the interaction of the triple helix model (science and technology network between universities, industry, and government) and involving civil society as a whole in the system. In Indonesia, the quadruple-helix model was then added to one more element, namely media which later became a complement to the penta-helix element because in the context of developing the creative economy in Indonesia, the media (both conventional media and social media) played a significant role even though they remained an independent element or were not directly affected. by other elements in carrying out their part or function.

Based on some of the explanations above, it can be concluded that penta-helix is an innovation model that is used in order to improve or develop the economic level of a country or region which involves five stakeholders, namely government, business (private), media, academics and the community, where the five These elements have their respective messages and influence which is quite large and influential so that when combined in a collaboration with a specific purpose, better and maximum results will be obtained. The concept of penta-helix in Indonesia began to be developed in 2016 through the idea of Minister of Tourism with the synergy of ABCGM (academician, business, community, government, and media) which then these five elements were eventually used as a model for tourism development. The idea is stated in the Minister of Tourism Regulation of the Republic of Indonesia Number 14 of 2016 concerning Guidelines for Sustainable Tourism Destinations. The following is an overview of the penta-helix model from the Minister of Tourism of the Republic of Indonesia. According to Soemaryani (2016), the penta-helix model is a reference in developing synergies between related agencies in supporting as optimally as possible in order to achieve goals. It is clear that penta-helix collaboration has an important role to play in supporting the goals of shared innovation and penta-helix contributing to regional socio-economic progress. The following is the role of each element of the penta-helix, as follows.

1) Government, acts as a regulator as well as acts as a controller that has regulations and responsibilities in developing objects. In this case it involves all types of activities such as planning, implementation, monitoring, control, promotion, financial allocation, licensing, programs, legislation, development and knowledge, public innovation policy, support for innovation networks and public-private partnerships. The government also has a role in coordinating the stakeholders who contribute to the development of the collaboration.

2) Business (Private), acts as an enabler. Business is an entity that carries out business processes in creating added value and maintaining sustainable growth (Slamet et al., 2016). Business acts as an enabler that provides infrastructure, by supporting changes in business human resources in collaborative governance, while also acting as a budget promoter in providing added value or income in the form of funding for the development of the sector.

3) Academia, act as drafters, such as standardizing the process for the activities carried out as well as certification and human resource skills (Slamet et al., 2016). Academics in this case are a source of knowledge by using the latest concepts, theories relevant to activities or sectors developed to gain a sustainable competitive advantage.

4) Media, acts as an expander, in this case the media plays a role in supporting publications in promotion and creating brand image. In the cooperation development program. Media can be said to be a fairly influential element in tourism development, it is because of the influence of very modern developments so that technology and media dominate so that what is rumored in the media becomes a topic that is quite influential and has a very good effect on tourism.

5) Community, acts as an accelerator. In this case the community is people who have the same interests and are relevant to a growing business (Slamet et al., 2016). The community can also act as an intermediary or as a liaison between stakeholders to assist the development process of the sector. The community here can include the official community or the community which has an important role in the development of the cooperation.

C. Method

Data collection techniques include documentation studies, questionnaires, observations, interviews and Focus Group Discussions (FGD). FGD is almost the same as collecting data through interviews, namely to uncover people's perceptions and values, but if the interviews are one-to-one, while the FGDs are group interviews (Nyumba et al., 2017). The parties involved in this research FGD are elements of academics (socio-economic field), business elements (tourism entrepreneurs), community (community leaders in tourist areas), government (Bali Provincial Government), and media (journalists). The data obtained in this study were quantified so that they could be analyzed quantitatively, for further interpretation. Descriptive statistical analysis is a statistic used to analyze data by describing the data that has been collected as it is without intending to make conclusions that apply to the public or generalizations. Descriptive analysis is central to almost every research project and an essential component of high-quality causal analysis.

Descriptive analysis also characterizes the phenomena and identify patterns to answer questions about who, what, where, when, and to what extent (Leob et al., 2017). Analysis of Strengths-Weaknesses-Opportunities-Threats (SWOT) is used to analyze the potential and challenges in the recovery of the tourism industry in Bali. SWOT analysis is the identification of various factors systematically to formulate strategies, plans, and countermeasures based on the results of the data (Wang and Wang, 2020). SWOT analysis is based on the thinking that, in determining the policy strategy to be implemented, an organization must maximize its strengths and opportunities, while simultaneously minimizing existing weaknesses and threats to achieve a balance between internal conditions and external conditions (Dahliah et al., 2020).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Bali Tourism in the New Normal Era

Before pandemic, Bali’s Tourism is one of the most popular tourist destinations in the world. The alluring charm emanates from the beauty of the island of Bali. Many charms that spoil the eye that can be enjoyed in Bali. The beauty of the beaches, to the culture on the island of Bali. The development of Bali tourism from year to year is strongly influenced by the cultural diversity of the Balinese people. Balinese customs, arts, and culture as the dominant basic potential in it implied an ideal of a reciprocal relationship between tourism and culture. This is one of the unique characteristics compared to other destinations in Indonesia (Paramita and Putra, 2020). As previously discussed, the travel and tourism sector has been greatly affected by the COVID-19 pandemic (Sugihamretha, 2020). As a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, cumulative foreign tourist visits to Bali in 2020 reached 1,069,473 people, but indeed this number was dominated by foreign tourist visits in the first quarter (January-March) 2020. Figure 3 presents the number of direct foreign tourist visits to Bali. Bali in 2020-2021 (May).

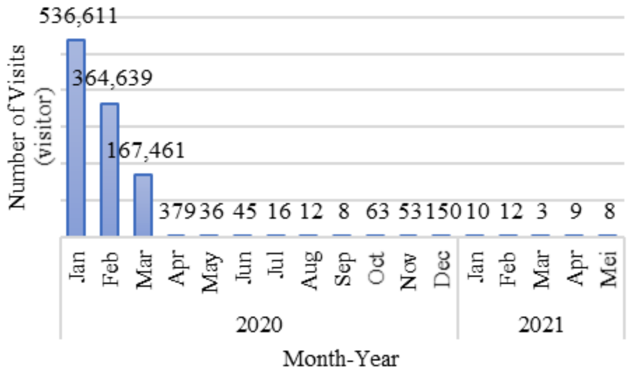

Figure 3. Number of Direct Foreign Tourist Visits to Bali 2020-2021 (Source of Data: Statistics of Indonesia of Bali Province, 2021)

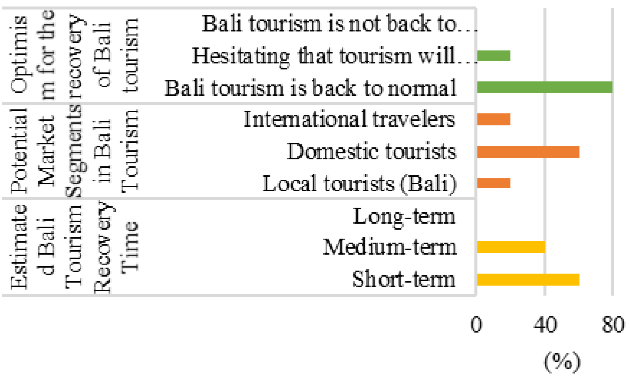

Figure 4. Survey Results Regarding Bali Tourism in the New Normal Era (Source: Tabulation of data from the questionnaire, 2021)

Figure 3 clearly shows that since the beginning of 2020 the number of foreign tourists visiting Bali began to decline, even drastically in April 2020. Until mid of 2021 (May 2021), the number of foreign tourists visiting Bali was only 42 people. This is of course as a result of social restrictions, closing access to Bali, travel restrictions, and the general public's perception of the dangers of a pandemic (Ministry of National Development Planning of the Republic of Indonesia, 2021). The decline in tourist visits (especially foreign tourists) has an impact on the accommodation sector. Hotel occupancy in Bali has fallen. up to 80%-90%, some even close their hotel business (Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy of the Republic of Indonesia, 2021). Globally, it is not known when the COVID-19 pandemic will end so that the global community is expected to be able to adapt by implementing a new lifestyle. Referring to global developments, tourism businesses must also implement a new protocol pattern as part of an effort to survive and maintain the sustainability of the tourism sector. In this regard, Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy of the Republic of Indonesia has issued guidelines related to tourist travel protocols, especially in Bali Province during the new normal period. In general, tourist travel protocols in Bali Province are regulated by prioritizing efforts to prevent the spread of COVID-19 with the main activities:

1) Wear a mask;
2) Frequent hand washing/hand sanitizer;
3) Keep your distance (physical distancing/social distancing).

The tourist travel protocol is regulated in two major parts, namely:

1) Arrival flow consisting of pre-departure, arrival and accommodation.
2) The return route consisting of the time at the hotel, airport and plane.

The Deputy Governor of Bali (in mediaindonesia.com) said that there are three important aspects that need to be prepared for Bali tourism in the new normal era, namely time, cost, and human resources. Regarding time, it is necessary to think about when is the right time for Bali to open again. While the cost aspect is the changes in health protocols that are demanded in the new normal era, it is necessary to recalculate the costs required for all tourism business services. Meanwhile, human resources need to prepare human resources who understand health protocol standards. When discussing the new normal era, namely a situation where changes in people's behavior are followed. For this reason, tourism service business actors need to prepare three basic things that become priorities to support the tourism sector, namely attention to cleanliness, health and safety. Furthermore, the Deputy Governor of Bali also conveyed the strategy he wanted to implement for the tourism sector in the new normal era, namely knowing clearly the market potential, such as at the beginning, namely the domestic market, as well as SOPs that would be implemented, as well as dealing with costs that would be imposed, and establishing cooperation with other parties. competent parties such as banks that can support the growth rate of Bali tourism. Based on the results of data analysis obtained through questionnaires, it is known that there are several opinions regarding the sustainability of Bali tourism in the new normal era. So far, tourist attractions in Bali are very diverse, both in door and out door. According to the results of data collection, it turned out that all respondents agreed that the type of out-door tourist attraction would develop in tourism in the new normal era. This is triggered by tourists' perceptions of healthy, green or environmental-themed tourism, thus providing a sense of security for traveling. The opinion of the penta-helix element regarding Bali tourism in the future, namely in the new normal era illustrates that there will be some shifts in the form and pattern of Bali tourism before the COVID-19 pandemic. One of them is clear on the application of health protocols from arrival until tourists complete tourist activities, including when traveling at tourist attraction locations. In addition, in the short term it is suspected that there will be a shift in the dominant tourist market share, which was previously dominated by foreign tourists, but in the future domestic and local tourists also need to be "worked on" considering that many countries still impose travel restrictions.

B. Identification of Bali Tourism SWOT in the New Normal Era

Based on the results of the FGD, internal factors (in the form of strengths and weaknesses) and external factors (in the form of opportunities and threats) in Bali tourism in the new normal era can be identified. Furthermore, based on the description in Table 1, a SWOT matrix can be arranged.

Table 1. Identification of Internal and External Factors in Bali Tourism in the New Normal Era

Factors		Description
Internal	Strengths	• Strong culture and natural potential that can still be developed for Bali tourism in the new normal era. • Bali became the initial pilot for mass vaccination in Indonesia. • Bali is also considered the best in handling the COVID-19 pandemic.
	Weak-nesses	• The government and tourism actors have never previously prepared the concept of disaster mitigation in the tourism sector. • Society has been relying too much on tourism with high economic value. • Many people's character has not dared to try new things. • Slow skill upgrades if they are not directly related to the tourism sector.
External	Oppor-tunities	• The market share of domestic tourists is still very promising. • Tourism in the new normal era will have the opportunity to bring in quality tourists because they are in good health.
	Threats	• There are still travel restrictions from the country of origin of foreign tourists who previously visited Bali a lot. • Mass tourism will decrease. • Convincing tourists to feel safe and comfortable about the health and cleanliness of tourism products in Bali. • Competition with other tourist destinations, both domestically and abroad.

Table 2. SWOT Matrix of Bali Tourism in the New Normal Era

SWOT Matrix	**Strengths – S**	**Weaknesses – W**
Opportu-Nities – O	**S-O Strategy:** Optimizing the promotion of natural and cultural tourism, as well as public health to provide a sense of security for traveling so that in the early stages of recovery it is able to bring in domestic tourists.	**W-O Strategy:** Preparing the tourism mitigation concept to bring in quality tourists.
Threats – T	**S-T Strategy:** Optimizing, refocusing, and implementing health protocols on various tourist objects/attractions so that they can compete with tourist destinations outside Bali and provide a sense of security and comfort for tourists.	**W-T Strategy:** Upgrade skills and innovation in business (especially tourism) so that it can attract quality tourists (because it is no longer a mass tourism pattern).

Table 3. The Role of Penta-helix in Bali Tourism and Tourism Recovery (Source: Jahid, 2019; Rizkiyah et al., 2019; Own elaborated)

No.	**Penta-helix Elemen**	**Role in Tourism**	**Role in Bali Tourism Recovery**
1.	Government	• Development of tourism through: regulation, guidance, implementation, and supervision.	• Develop and implement standardization policies; tourist spot CHSE certification. • Issue policies that support credit to entrepreneurs and transfer of rural funds.
2.	Business/ Industry/ Private Sector	• Creating job opportunities. • Recruitment of local human resources as tourism industry players.	• Make a breakthrough in the type of business that is in accordance with Health standards. • Using a touch of technology in business. • Implementing Health protocols in business.
3.	Academia	• Implementing training and development of tourism human resources. • Implementing scientific studies. • Implementing socialization and assistance to community groups.	• Providing policy input based on studies conducted. • Provide data and input related to the needs of the new era of tourism.
4.	Local Communities/ Balinese	• Role as business actors who are engaged directly/indirectly in the tourism industry. • Monitor the impact of tourism on the culture and social community.	• Discipline in applying health protocols, especially in tourist attractions. • Support government policies.
5.	Media	• Promotional instruments, information distribution and tourism image improvement.	• As a medium for promoting healthy tourism. • Creating community comfort with constructive news. • Reporting on the efforts that can be taken for economic recovery so that it is easily accessible to all parties.

Based on Table 3, it is known that the Bali tourism recovery strategy in the new normal era. Where each strategy is designed according to the characteristics of the previously identified SWOT factors.

C. The Role of Penta-helix in Bali Tourism Recovery

In an effort to recover Bali's tourism, it requires the synergy of all parties in this effort. Quoted from Jahid (2019), the history of the development of the concept of synergy in tourism development began with the idea of a triple-helix which was adopted from the theory of Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff (2000). This triple helix concept emphasizes the relationship between universities, industry and government. In 2014, Lindberg developed a new concept called the quadruple helix by adding elements of the local community as a complement to the triple-helix concept that had already developed. Meanwhile, the penta-helix concept was proposed by Riyanto (2018) by involving the media, which currently plays a very significant role in developing social capital for development.

Based on the results of the literature review and FGD, Table 3 below presents the role of each element in the penta-helix in tourism in general, and in particular in the recovery of Bali tourism. Each penta-helix element has its own role in the restoration of Bali tourism which is adjusted to the authority and capability of each penta-helix element.

D. Bali Tourism Recovery Strategy

Bali tourism recovery strategies are classified into short-term, medium-term, and long-term strategies. Based on the results of the FGD with penta-helix, it is possible to identify the Bali tourism recovery strategy in the new normal era as presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Bali Tourism Recovery Strategy Formulation in the New Normal Era (Source: Processed by Researchers, 2021)

Classification	Description	Code
Short-Term	1) Reorientation to quality tourism, not only mass tourism.	S1
	2) Provision of subsidized interest and credit restructuring (loans and multi-finance) to Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) in banks or other financing institutions, including for subsidies/deferred taxes for SMEs as well as labor.	S2
	3) Incentives for recruitment, certification training and placement of workers through expansion of education and training including technical guidance on making long stay service packages for self-isolation.	S3
	4) Facilitation of local governments to continue the development of 3A (accessibility, amenities and attractions) that are affected by the termination of the Special Allocation Fund for physical tourism, with special attention to facilitation of cleanliness.	S4
	5) Acceleration of infrastructure development in priority destinations.	S5
	6) Tourism promotions, exhibitions and events are gradually being activated.	S6
	7) Increasing incentives for tourism business actors, airlines, travel agents, and promotions in the form of discounted airline tickets and discounts on jet fuel at several priority tourism destination airports, providing incentives for group incentive trips/fam-trips held in Indonesia.	S7
Medium-Term	1) Providing tourist discounts for students, ASN and TNI/POLRI, health workers and senior citizens as well as the application of leave and public holidays that support the increase in domestic tourists.	M1
	2) Marketing to near and recovered originations.	M2
	3) Increased incentives for tourism business actors, airlines, travel agents, and promotions in the form of discounts on airplane tickets, airplane parking and discounts on jet fuel at several priority tourism destination airports, providing incentives for group incentive trips/fam-trips held in Indonesia, promotions through influencers.	M3
	4) Cooperate with airlines for recovery and addition of flight schedules.	M4
	5) Organizing international events such as sports, arts and MICE (Meeting, Incentive, Convention, and Exhibition), including the successful implementation of Moto GP, U-20 World Cup, and others. This promotion of Indonesian tourism to the international world must be equipped with things that are able to show an increase in the standards of cleanliness, health, and safety of visitors in Indonesia.	M5
	6) Improvement of 3A infrastructure (amenities, accessibility, and attractions) in tourism destinations through APBN, transfer funds, APBD, BUMN, private sector and PPP.	M6
	7) Incentives for recruitment, training, certification and placement of workers through the expansion of 3-in-1 education and training for as many as 100,000 workers.	M7
	8) Cooperation in training and internships for tourism human resources and the creative economy, including technical guidance on improving health, hygiene, and safety standards, especially for MSME actors.	M8
	9) Increased bidding for the implementation of international MICE in Indonesia.	M9
	10) Escort the realization of large-scale tourism investment.	M10
	11) Increasing access to financing for tourism business actors and creative actors both to banking and non-banking.	M11
Long-Term	1) Strengthening the supply side (It is carried out through standardization policy interventions related to household services, including those related to the provision of accommodation and food and drink. In addition, it is also necessary to establish a tourism school curriculum that is ready to work from the beginning of the semester. Various facilities for supporting economic facilities need to be implemented immediately to the tourism sector, such as tax holidays in the context of investment in the tourism sector, export credit facilities for tourism actors (related to service exports), as well as electricity (energy) tariffs that are specified outside peak load times for tourism business actors).	L1
	2) Strengthening Attractions (Can be done through a variety of types of tourism such as cultural tourism, education, sports, health, history, etc. Diversification of tourist attractions also needs to be done in Special Economic Zones (SEZ)/tourist locations).	L2
	3) Strengthening Access (What needs to be done are: 1) Improvement of connectivity between transportation modes in order to balance the development of physical infrastructure; 2) Optimizing the use of information technology in the context of harmonization of information on the tourism agenda in all regions; and 3) Better synergize the travel calendar).	L3
	4) Strengthening the demand side (preferably through optimizing the potential of domestic tourists, tourist cards for students and senior citizens as well as tourism discount cards for the general public).	L4
	5) Refocusing Bali tourism into quality tourism (medical, maritime, MICE, nomadic tourism).	L5
	6) Carry out green recovery for Bali tourism (through the preparation of standards, implementation, and arrangement of tourist attractions and natural tourism potential).	L6

The penta-helix element involved in the FGD identified the formulation of Bali tourism recovery policy strategies in the new normal era into three classifications, namely long-term, medium-term, and short-term strategies/policies. To position each of these policies in each category, the penta-helix element also gives weight to the assessment, where the results are presented in Figure 5, Figure 6, and Figure 7. As presented in Figure 5, it can be seen that each penta-helix element provides a different assessment of each strategy/policy choice. In general, the strategies/policies that are considered as priorities are the provision of subsidized interest and credit restructuring (S2). Almost all elements of penta-helix position the strategy/policy of providing subsidized interest and credit restructuring as a priority, except for the academic element. Where academic elements position reorientation strategies/policies on quality tourism (not only mass tourism) as a priority.

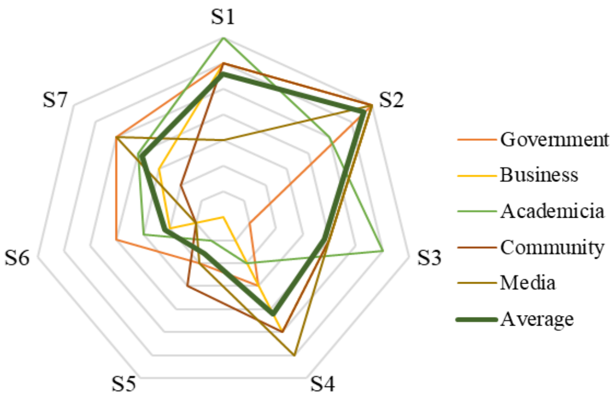

Figure 5. Chart of Priority Mapping of Bali Tourism Recovery Short-Term Strategy

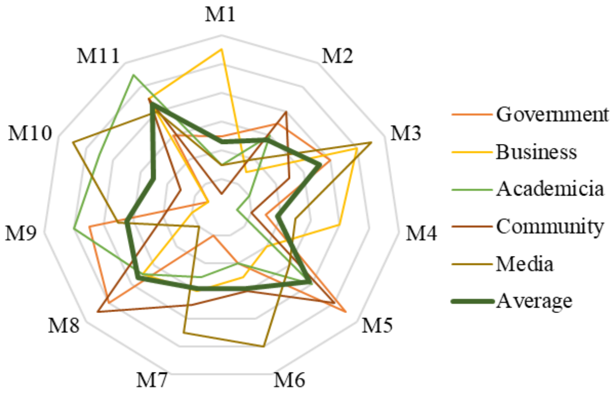

Figure 6. Chart of Priority Mapping of Bali Tourism Recovery Medium Term Strategy

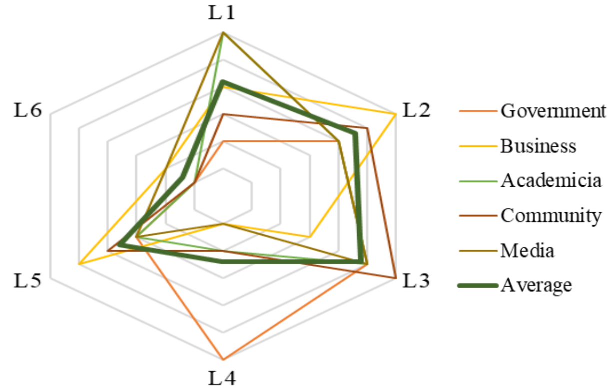

Figure 7. Chart of Priority Mapping Long-Term Strategy for Bali Tourism Recovery

Furthermore, Figure 6 presents the position of the Bali tourism recovery strategy/policy in the medium term. On average, the chosen strategy/policy for the medium term is the organization of international events (M5) as well as training and apprenticeship cooperation for tourism and creative economy (M8) human resources. Government elements prioritize strategies/policies for organizing international events (M5). Meanwhile, industrial/private elements prefer to give tourism discounts for potential tourists (M1). Furthermore, academic elements prioritize increasing access to financing for tourism and creative economy actors (M11). In contrast, the community prefers a strategy/policy for cooperation in training and internships for tourism human resources and the creative economy (M8). The media elements consider increasing incentives for tourism business actors (M3) as a priority. Figure 7 shows the mapping of long-term strategy/policy priorities for Bali tourism recovery in the new normal era. The penta-helix element generally considers strengthening access (L3) and strengthening attractions (L2) as priorities. The government considers the priority strategy/policy is to strengthen the demand side (L4). Meanwhile, the industry/private sector prefers strengthening attractions (L2) as a priority. Furthermore, academics and the media chose to strengthen the supply side (L1). However, the community believes that the priority strategy/policy that needs to be carried out in the long term is to strengthen access (L3).

CONCLUSION

Based on the results of data analysis and discussion, as well as the research objectives as described previously, it can be concluded that each penta-helix element plays an important role in efforts to recover Bali tourism in the new normal era. The role is adjusted to its authority and capability, where the government, especially in terms of drafting regulations and their implementation, the private sector/industry plays a role in the provision and innovation of tourism businesses and their supporters, then academics play a role in conducting studies for basic policy input and improving human resource competencies. Furthermore, the community also plays an important role in supporting a conducive healthy tourism climate, as well as the role of the media in disseminating positive information and promoting Bali tourism.

Bali tourism recovery strategies/policies can generally be divided into short-term, medium-term, and long-term strategies/policies. Strategies/policies that are considered as short-term priorities are the provision of subsidized interest and credit restructuring. Meanwhile, what is considered a priority for the medium term is the organization of international events as well as training and internship cooperation for tourism human resources and the creative economy. The penta-helix element generally considers strengthening access and strengthening attractions as long-term priorities.

Some things that can be recommended as a follow-up to the results of this study are as follows.

1) The government needs to facilitate the preparation of tourism mitigation as an effort to mitigate the impact of disasters on tourism.

2) The Bali Provincial Government can prepare a roadmap for Bali tourism recovery in the new normal era, and then implement it holistically and sustainably.

3) Each element of the penta-helix needs to participate and optimize its role in Bali's tourism recovery considering that the Balinese economy (both macro and micro) is still highly dependent on tourism. Further research is needed on the policy framework to map in more detail the derivatives of these policies into programs and activities. In addition, it is necessary to develop a penta-helix partnership model in Bali tourism recovery so that it can be used as a guide.

Acknowledgement

The authors wish to thank to Udayana University for the financial support.

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Article history: Received: 06.08.2021 Revised: 22.12.2021 Accepted: 18.01.2022 Available online: 09.02.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.175-180
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40121-817

HOW READY ARE CUSTOMERS TO RE-TRAVEL FOR TOURISM? INSIGHTS FROM THE UAE AND EGYPT

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Citation: Abou-Shouk, M., Zoair, N., & Abulenein, E. (2022). HOW READY ARE CUSTOMERS TO RE-TRAVEL FOR TOURISM? INSIGHTS FROM THE UAE AND EGYPT. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 175–180. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40121-817

Abstract: This study aims to investigate individuals' perceptions of travel fear and anxiety of COVID-19, the protection procedures taken by both UAE and Egypt to maintain tourists' safety and how these perceptions affect travel intentions. An online questionnaire is implemented to collect data from a convenient sample of the UAE and Egypt populations and structural equation modelling was employed for analysis purposes. Findings show that the intention of travel varies according to individuals' belief in the protection measures across the UAE and Egypt.

Key words: Travel Fear and Anxiety, Travel Intention, Protection Procedures, UAE, Egypt

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INTRODUCTION

Since the World Health Organization declared COVID-19 as a pandemic in 2020, the biggest global lockdown has taken place with an emphasis on international travel for tourism (Turnšek et al., 2020). Thus, tourism has experienced its worst in the year of 2020 in history with a decrease reached 74% in international arrivals with an expectation to rebound to normal levels in 2023 (UNWTO, 2021). According to the expectations of Škare et al., (2021), the recovery of travel and tourism will take more than the expected average of ten months. According to UNWTO experts, it will take from 2.5 to 4 years to recover to 2019 levels of international tourist flow. Some experts would rather expect a significant increase during 2022. As for 2024 or later, they also expect some return to pre-pandemic levels. Experts expect that the change would be rabid in the Middle East while it could be slower but more stable in Europe, the Americas, Asia and the Pacific, and Africa (UNWTO, 2021). With the rollout of COVID-19 vaccines and careful travel precautions taken by tourist destinations, it is expected that tourists will become gradually and slowly confident to restart their travel for tourism (UNWTO, 2021). The present study aims to explore the causal relationship between travel fear and anxiety and intention to travel considering the moderating role of protection measures' efficacy based on collected data from the UAE and Egypt.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Travel Fear

Emotions were a centre of interest in tourism research due to their impact on tourists' cognitive evaluations and behavioural responses (Cohen and Cohen, 2012; Volo, 2021). The definition of emotion is multifaceted and varies according to the domain of science, but it is agreed that it is difficult to be observed. It is a complex phenomenon that includes joy, sadness, fear and anger. Fear is defined as a natural emotion that is exposed in case of danger, pain, or harm (Luo and Lam, 2020). Travel activities evoke many aspects of fear or phobia like agoraphobia (vast public spaces), aviophobia (air travel), and nosophobia (infectious disease) (Zenker et al., 2021). After the declaration of COVID-19 as a pandemic, fear arises among populations of the world, which figures the attention of scholars in different disciplines. Ahorsu et al., (2020) established the "Fear of COVID-19 Scale (FCV-19)" to identify the level of fear among the population. This could include the fear of losing life, and to be infected and so on. Previous studies have attempted to measure the level of fear among populations (i.e., Bratić et al., 2021; Luo and Lam, 2020, Magano et al., 2021; Wachyuni and Kusumaningrum, 2020). Turnšek et al. (2020) tested the effect of pandemic's severity and susceptibility on travel avoidance decisions and found that gender, experience, and age have been significantly associated with travel avoidance decisions. Similarly, Zheng et al., (2021) found that fear of COVID-19 is a substantial predictor of travel avoidance decisions. Hence, the first hypothesis is developed as follows:

H1: Travel fear has a negative effect on travel intention.

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Travel Anxiety

Anxiety is a disorder mental state that has cognitive, emotional, and behavioural dimensions (Zenker et al., 2021). It includes feelings of tension and worries about the future, potential risk, or actual risk (Luo and Lam, 2020; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005), being uncomfortable, nervous, stressed, unbalanced, or frustrated (Hullett and Witte, 2001; McIntyre and Roggenbuck, 1988). Travel decision involves a complex process of cognitive feelings, emotions, and risks that may recall a state of anxiety in case of threats which is negatively associated with the travel intention (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005). In tourism, researchers explored the effect of anxiety on travel behavioural intention in different countries. Recently, Zenker et al. (2021) developed a scale for anxiety and found that anxiety is negatively influencing intentions. This finding was previously confirmed by Reisinger and Mavondo (2005) revealing that anxiety has a negative impact on travel intention. Likewise, Luo and Lam (2020), Wachyuni and Kusumaningrum (2020), Magano et al. (2021), and Bratić et al. (2021) found similar results of the negative effect of anxiety on travel intention and behaviour. Therefore, the second hypothesis is developed as follows:

H2: Travel anxiety is negatively affecting travel intention.

Fear and Anxiety

The two terms of fear and anxiety are overlapped but they are different. The most obvious distinction is that fear is an awareness of actual danger while anxiety is a response to anticipated threat (Luo and Lam, 2020). Fear happens because of a particular reason while anxiety does not require a certain motivation (Perusini and Fanselow, 2015). Although literature studies have revealed a significant effect of fear and anxiety of COVID-19 on travel intentions, some studies depicted that this fear is an antecedent to anxiety (i.e., Luo and Lam, 2020; Rodríguez-Hidalgo et al., 2020). On the destinations' level, Joo et al. (2021) found that the perceived risk of receiving tourists by destinations would negatively affect residents' support for tourism. Thus, the third hypothesis is initiated as follows:

H3: Travel fear has a positive impact on travel anxiety.

Protection Measures

Predeparture health measures could be more helpful to ensure safety and prevent the additional creation of job losses and commercial collapse. Some countries have introduced the use of vaccine passports as a means of ensuring safe tourist travel. Countries started to encourage tourist flow with new "safe and clean labels" for the tourism industry, news apps for tourists and local tourism marketing campaigns. They began to use innovative "health protocols" for secure tourism and assist to vary their potential customers (OECD, 2020). Countries have also started to initiate "border processes & procedures". They were keen to guarantee provincial and worldwide direction in the re-launching of frontiers for travel. Countries were eager on improving the utilization of technology for contactless tourism. They also try to guarantee the management of appropriate procedures and actions among travel, health, internal and transportation agencies. One of the examples of such measures that ensure safety is visitors' tracing apps. And the vast usage of "e-visa/visa on arrival/ no visa policies" and short-term visa fee release to promote destinations for more potential tourists. Hotels and resorts launched hi-tech techniques like "guest messaging" for human contact with guests for bookings, compensations, or cancellations. They introduced new services like home delivery or takeaway service, family accommodation, and "drive & stay" bundles. Travel agencies enabled international-voucher redeeming for tour packages and services, especially with late cancellations. Countries used alternative tours based on nature such as rural and eco-tourism destinations, sports tours heritage sites, "bird-watching" tours in addition to cultural tours (UNWTO, 2020). Countries take significant precautions to decrease the probability of COVID-19 spread starting from PCR tests for travel and ending with strict social distance, facemasks, and quarantine procedures. With the hope of the produced vaccines' role in limiting infections, both tourists and destinations hope that the tourism restarting process starts soon. A recent study by Zheng et al. (2021) tested the perceptions of travellers' self-efficacy and response efficacy and found that these perceptions significantly influence travellers' motivation protection which in turn affects cautious travel intention decisions. Response efficacy refers to the adequacy and significance of measures taken by destinations for safe travel of tourists which is referred to as 'protection measures' efficacy' in the present study. The present study hypothesizes that the protection measures efficacy would decrease the effect of travel fear and anxiety on travel intention if seriously and strictly applied. Therefore, the fourth proposition of the present study is formulated as follows:

H4: Protection measures' efficacy negatively moderates the relationship between travel fear, travel anxiety and travel intention.

RESEARCH MODEL

Based on the literature review on the relationship between fear of travel and travel intention (i.e., Turnšek et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2021), and the effect of travel anxiety on travel intention (i.e., Luo and Lam, 2020; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005, Zenker et al., 2021), the relationship between fear and anxiety (i.e., Luo and Lam, 2020; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005), and the effect of measures efficacy on travel intention (Zheng et al., 2021), the research model is developed (Figure 1).

Four research propositions were developed as follows:

H1: Travel fear has a negative effect on travel intention.
H2: Travel anxiety is negatively affecting travel intention.
H3: Travel fear has a positive impact on travel anxiety.
H4: Protection measures' efficacy negatively moderates the relationship between travel fear, travel anxiety and travel intention.

RESEARCH METHODS

The present study adopts the quantitative method based on an e-survey to collect data from respondents in the UAE and Egypt. The sample framework of the study is the population of the UAE and Egypt. However, the study used a convenient sample to collect data due to the effects of COVID-19. The survey was prepared in English and Arabic and was sent to respondents using emails and social media to reach a wide range of populations. Data were collected between February and March 2021. Structural equation modelling was utilized to test research hypotheses. 421 forms were collected from the UAE compared to 410 from Egypt. The questionnaire form included the demographic data of respondents (gender, age, and qualification), in addition to questions about their travel purpose (i.e., for tourism or other purposes) and if they travel internationally or locally. 15 statements were developed based on literature studies to measure the main four constructs of the research model using the five-point Likert scale (agree-disagree). Four statements were used to measure travel fear based on the research of Ahorsu et al. (2020) and Luo and Lam (2020). Three statements were used to measure travel anxiety based on studies by Zenker et al. (2021) and Luo and Lam (2020). Four statements were employed to measure the protection measures efficacy based on literature studies of Zheng et al. (2021). Three statements were adapted to measure travel intention based on research of Reisinger and Mavondo (2005), Lee et al. (2012), Abou-Shouk et al. (2019), and Soliman and Abou-Shouk (2017). Data analyses were limited to respondents who travel regularly for tourism and those who travel internationally only. Profile of respondents, mean values of respondents' perceptions, statistical differences among countries and gender using t-test, and measurement models' validity and reliability are presented in tables 1 to 3.

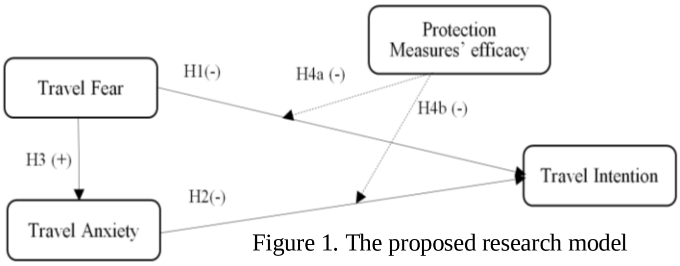

Figure 1. The proposed research model

Table 1. Profile of respondents

		UAE (300)		Egypt (260)	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Gender	Male	91	29.5	150	57.8%
	Female	219	70.5	110	42.2%
Age	18-25	125	40.3	30	11.7%
	26-35	82	26.4	103	39.5%
	36-45	69	22.3	91	35.1%
	46-55	32	10.3	24	9.3%
	> 55	2	0.7	11	4.4%
Qualifi-cation	Secondary	95	30.7	44	17.0%
	University	196	63.1	143	54.9%
	Postgraduate	17	5.5	67	25.7%
	Other	2	0.7	6	2.4%

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

Profile of Respondents

421 and 410 forms were collected from the UAE and Egypt, respectively. Two criteria were used to filter responses for data analysis purposes. The first is to include respondents who travel regularly for tourism purposes (which is 345 out of 421 responses for the UAE and 300 out of 410 responses for Egypt). Second, data analysis was limited to international travel for tourism (which is 300 responses for the UAE and 260 responses for Egypt). Table (1) shows to demographics of respondents. Females form the majority of the UAE's respondents while males form most of Egypt's respondents. Most respondents are aged between 18 and 25 years in the UAE while the major age category for Egypt's respondents is 26 and 35 years. The university qualification represents most of the respondents' education levels in the UAE and Egypt. To measure the moderation effect, the protective measures have been classified based on the respondents' perceptions to three categories using the mean values: respondents with high perceptions on protective measures (highly adequate and efficient- 120 responses for the UAE and 130 for Egypt), respondents with moderate perceptions (measures are adequate and efficient – 100 responses for the UAE and 110 for Egypt), and respondents with low perceptions (measures are not adequate or efficient – 80 for the UAE and 20 for Egypt). Table (2) depicts the mean values of the research model. Table (2) shows that both the UAE's and Egypt's respondents have neutral perceptions towards fear of travel, travel anxiety, and protection measures despite the significant statistical differences between the two countries. Although the UAE's respondents have a neutral intention to travel during the COVID-19 pandemic, the Egyptian respondents have shown a positive intention to travel for tourism. It is observable that the gender of respondents has a significant effect on the respondents' perceptions of fear of travel, travel anxiety, and travel intention. However, it does not affect respondents' perceptions of protection measures.

Table 2. Mean values and statistical differences among research model constructs
Note: Significance (sig.) is calculated based on independent samples t-test

	UAE (mean)	Egypt (mean)	Sig. (country)	Sig. (gender)
Fear of travel	3.2	2.7	<0.01	<0.01
Anxiety	3.0	2.5	<0.01	<0.01
Protection measures	3.3	3.4	>0.05	>0.05
Travel intention	3.3	3.8	<0.01	<0.01

Measurement Models

Table (3) displays the validity and reliability of the used scale for the UAE and Egypt. the values of average variance extracted (AVEs) exceed the cut-off value of 0.5 and convergent validity is evident (Hair et al., 2020). The square roots of AVEs exceeded the correlations among constructs, the HTMT ratio show values less than 0.85 and therefore discriminant validity exists (Henseler et al., 2015; Kock, 2020). Hence, the measurement models are valid and reliable.

Structural Models

Figure (2) illustrates that the travel fear because of COVID-19 is negatively affecting travel intention for the respondents of both countries (β_1=-0.45, P<0.01 for the UAE, β_2=-0.27, P<0.01for Egypt, and the first hypothesis is supported). Furthermore, travel anxiety has a negative effect on the travel intention of respondents (β_1=-0.31, P<0.01 for the UAE, β_2=-0.26, P<0.01for Egypt, and the second hypothesis is supported). The fear of travel has a positive effect on travel anxiety (β_1=0.68, P<0.01 for the UAE, β_2=0.27, P<0.01for Egypt, and the third hypothesis is supported).

Additionally, the protection measures are significantly and negatively affecting the relationship, as a moderator, between travel fear, travel anxiety and travel intention ($\beta_{fear\text{-}intention}$=-0.11, P<0.05 for the UAE, $\beta_{fear\text{-}intention}$=-0.15, P<0.05for Egypt, $\beta_{anxiety\text{-}intention}$=-0.31, P<0.01 for the UAE, $\beta_{anxiety\text{-}intention}$=-0.26, P<0.01and the fourth hypothesis is supported). Travel fear, travel anxiety and the moderation of protection measures explain 50% of the variance in travel intention for the UAE respondents (R_1^2=0.50) and 30% for the Egyptian respondents (R_2^2=0.30). These findings mean that the respondents of both the UAE and Egypt are afraid and anxious to travel during the pandemic and fear and anxiety have a negative impact on their travel intention. However, respondents showed interest in the protection measures taken by destinations as these protection measures help decrease the influence of fear and anxiety on their intention to travel in the UAE and Egypt.

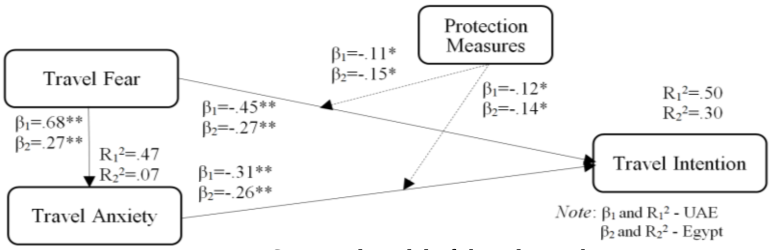

Figure 2. Structural model of the relationship between travel fear, anxiety, and travel intention

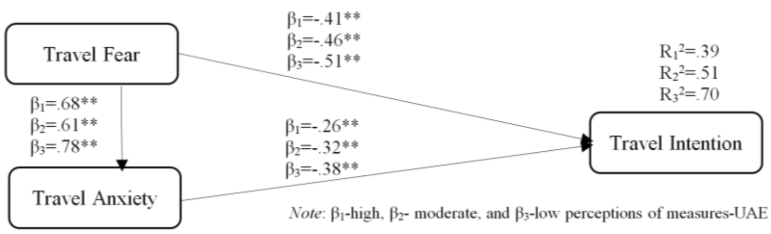

Figure 3. Perceptions of travel protection measures and travel intention for the UAE

To investigate the role of protection measures, each category of respondents (high perceptions inadequacy and efficacy of protection measures, moderate perceptions, and low-perceptions respondents) has been investigated separately to check how this perception of protection measures affect the travel intention of each category. Figure (3) depicts the effect of travel fear and travel anxiety on travel intentions for the UAE respondents. For respondents with high perceptions of protection measures, 39% of the variance in travel intention is explained by travel fear (β_1=-0.41, P<0.01) and travel anxiety (β_1=-0.26, P<0.01). However, for the respondents with moderate perceptions of protection measures, 51% of the variance in travel intention is explained by travel fear (β_2=-0.46, P<0.01) and travel anxiety (β_2=-0.26, P<0.01). In addition, of the respondents with low perceptions of protection measures, 70% of the variance in their travel intention is explained by travel fear (β_3=-0.51, P<0.01) and travel anxiety (β_3=-0.38, P<0.01). This means that respondents who believe highly in protection measures, their travel intention is less affected by fear of travel and travel anxiety (R^2=39%) than respondents with moderate perceptions (R^2=51%) and those with low perceptions (R^2=70%). This finding represents the importance of protection measures taken by destinations for safe travel.

Table 3. Validity and reliability of the measurement model for the UAE and Egypt (Note: CA: Cronbach's alpha, CR: Composite reliability)

Constructs and indicators	UAE					Egypt				
	Loading	CA	CR	AVE	√AVE	Loading	CA	CR	AVE	√AVE
Travel Fear of Covid-19										
I am afraid of COVID-19.	0.940	0.948	0.963	0.866	0.931	0.908	0.917	0.941	0.801	0.895
I am afraid of losing my life because of COVID-19	0.895					0.893				
It makes me uncomfortable to think about COVID-19	0.941					0.854				
When I check out news about COVID-19 I become afraid to travel	0.945					0.923				
Travel Anxiety										
COVID-19 makes me worry a lot about my traditional travelling.	0.915	0.935	0.958	0.885	0.941	0.891	0.898	0.936	0.830	0.911
It makes me anxious to think about travel during COVID-19	0.958					0.919				
I feel stressed when I think about travel during COVID-19	0.948					0.924				
Protection measures efficacy (PR)										
Efforts taken by destinations for health safety during travel are effective	0.908	0.925	0.947	0.816	0.903	0.725	0.783	0.809	0.618	0.786
Preventive measures to decrease COVID-19 infection are adequate	0.912					0.813				
It is less likely to expose to COVID-19 threat if I respect the measures	0.901					0.752				
If vaccinated against COVID, it is less likely to be infected during travel	0.892					0.766				
Travel intention										
I intend to travel for tourism in 2021	0.962	0.958	0.972	0.922	0.960	0.945	0.934	0.958	0.884	0.940
Whenever I have a chance to travel in 2021, I will	0.957					0.931				
I plan to travel in 2021	0.960					0.940				

Moving to Egypt's respondents, two categories have been compared (respondents with high and moderate perceptions of protection measures) while the third category is excluded from analysis because of sample inadequacy (20 responses only). Figure (4) shows that travel intention is also affected negatively by travel fear and travel anxiety. It is obvious that 29% of the variance in travel intention is explained by travel fear (β_1=-0.44, P<0.01) and travel anxiety (β_1=-0.20, P<0.05) for respondents with high perceptions of protection measures. As for respondents with moderate perceptions of protection measures, 43% of the variance in travel intention is explained by (β_2=-0.54, P<0.01) and travel anxiety (β_2=-0.21, P<0.05). This finding is in line with the UAE finding that when the belief of respondents of protection measures as adequate and efficient increases, the effect of travel fear and travel anxiety on their travel intention decreases.

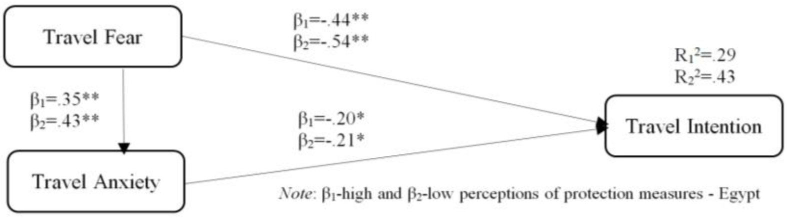

Figure 4. Perceptions of travel protection measures and travel intention for Egypt

DISCUSSION

The current study aimed to explore the travel intentions for tourism across two countries, the UAE and Egypt. Expectations have been presented around the world for restarting tourism despite the uncertainty of specific times of travel resume for tourism. With the roll-out of vaccination, there is a hope of a quick recovery of tourism. For the economic concerns, countries replaced lockdown with strict travel measures including negative PCRs before travel and upon arrival, quarantine procedures, social distance and face mask instructions, and other safety measures. The current study investigated the effect of travel fear of COVID-19 and travel anxiety on travel intention for the year 2021. It used the protection measures as a moderator to examine how these measures could decrease an individual's fear and anxiety and increase the intention to travel for leisure. According to the findings of the current research, individuals are afraid of travel because of the COVID-19 infections and health concerns. This fear of travel increases their anxiety to take the risk of travel during the pandemic. The findings showed that both the respondents of the UAE and Egypt have similar perceptions of travel fear and travel anxiety. However, they have positive perceptions towards the protection measures adequacy and efficacy. These findings explain that people from different countries, cultures, gender and educational qualification are afraid to travel and take health risks while the pandemic continues and how health concerns hurt travel for tourism. This finding is in line with literature research (Turnšek et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2021). Respondents are also anxious about travel during COVID-19. Anxiety is a consequence of fear where respondents feel worried, uncomfortable, and stressed during travel and therefore, this decreases their intention to travel. This finding is in line with previous studies of Reisinger and Mavondo (2005); Luo and Lam (2020); Wachyuni and Kusumaningrum (2020); Magano et al. (2021); Bratić et al. (2021).

Add to this, that anxiety increases as fear increases and respondents of the UAE and Egypt have expressed this relationship statistically and there is a positive causal association between fear of COVID-19 and travel anxiety. This finding is concurrent with previous research (i.e., Luo and Lam, 2020; Rodríguez-Hidalgo et al., 2020). With the strict precautions and protection measures taken by tourist destinations, individuals are carefully showing their intent to travel. Based on the categorization of respondents in this study of high perceptions of adequate and efficient protection measures, moderate and low perceptions, the fear, and anxiety of travel vary in their effect on their travel intentions. Findings revealed that when respondents have high perceptions of protection measures, the effect of travel fear and travel anxiety on their travel intention decreases compare to those respondents with moderate and low perceptions. This finding shows that when individuals perceive protection measures to be highly adequate and efficient and can protect them during travel, only 39% of their travel decision will be influenced by the negative impact of fear of travel and anxiety. When the perceptions move to be moderately adequate and efficient, 51% of individuals' travel decisions will be negatively affected by travel fear and anxiety. If the individuals do not perceive and believe in the adequacy and efficacy of protection measures, 71% of the negative effect on their travel intention will be due to their fear and anxiety. The protection measures are perceived by most respondents (with high and moderate perceptions) as effective, adequate, and they would be less likely to be infected if they strictly performed it.

The protection measures could help individuals to decrease their feelings of worry, the fear of losing their lives because of COVID-19 and decrease the negative impact of uncomfortable feelings if they think on travel in addition to reducing the negative effect of media on the impact of COVID-19. The feeling of fear is associated positively with the feeling of anxiety as shown in the findings of the present study, and therefore decreasing the fear feeling will reduce the anxiety feeling. The moderation effect of protection measures helps individuals to decrease the fear and anxiety of travel of COVID-19. The findings show that for the UAE respondents, the perceptions of protection measures decreased the negative influence of travel fear and anxiety from 71% (for respondents with low perceptions of protection measures) to 51% (for respondents of moderate perceptions) to 39% (for respondents of high perceptions of protection measures' adequacy and efficacy). The remarkable decrease of the negative effect of fear and anxiety reflects how important is the need of destinations to take strict travel protection measures and tourism services preventive measures to maintain travellers' safety. The case for the Egyptian respondents is similar as the protection measures perceptions have decreased the negative effect of travel fear and anxiety on travel intention from 43% (for moderate perceptions) to 29% (for high perceptions of protection measures).

CONCLUSION

The present study aimed to examine the relationship between travel fear and anxiety and intention to travel in the United Arab Emirates and Egypt. E-survey was adopted to collect data from respondents in the UAE and Egypt. Findings revealed that travel fear has a positive effect on travel anxiety, and both have a negative effect on the intention to travel in both countries, the UAE and Egypt. Travel intentions of respondents vary based on their perceptions of protection measures efficacy. Respondents with high perceptions of protection measures are more likely to take risks of travel while those with moderate and lower perceptions in protection measures' efficacy have limited intention to take risk and travel because of travel fear and anxiety of COVID-19.

Implications

The findings of the present study provide exploratory insights on travel intention during the COVID-19 pandemic. Theoretically, it tested the research model across two different countries, the UAE and Egypt. Although the UAE has taken serious measures to protect tourists and has a remarkable effort in vaccination of their citizens and residents compared to Egypt, respondents are still afraid and anxious about travel despite their positive intention to travel if they have a safe opportunity to do so. Furthermore, the study has provided important findings regarding the respondents' different perceptions towards protection measures in both the UAE and Egypt. It presented how the strict, adequate, and effective measures could decrease the negative effect of travel fear and anxiety on travel intention. Practically, the present study has provided some insights to travel and tourism stakeholders that individuals would like to travel if they have a safe opportunity. The findings have assured the importance of protection measures on decreasing the negative impact of fear and anxiety of travel and therefore, stakeholders must take strict protection measures to protect visitors and maintain their health concerns, from the one hand, in addition to their need to promote these measures to travellers to attract them and encourage their travel, on the other hand. Airlines, hotels, restaurants, tourism facilities (museums, parks, resorts, heritage sites, beaches, and other facilities) must introduce strict preventive measures to their visitors to support their activities resume and decrease the risk of infection, fear, and anxiety. In addition, destinations need to take strict, adequate, effective, and efficient procedures and measures to support the recovery of their tourism activities. Not only this, but they also need to promote these measures among the stakeholders, local people, and international travellers to decrease travel risk-taking. Stakeholders need also to have flexible procedures regarding bookings and cancellation policies to encourage travellers' restart for leisure purposes.

Limitations and future research

The present research has some limitations. First, it is based on a convenient sample and future studies should use multi-stage random samples to include many society categories. Also, the results of the current study are based on data collected between February and March 2021 and the perceptions towards travel could be changed according to the vaccination rates the decrease in the infection rates and the strict protection measures taken by countries. Furthermore, researchers should include more countries with different cultures to explore their perceptions of travel.

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Article history: Received: 19.09.2021 Revised: 29.12.2021 Accepted: 25.01.2022 Available online: 21.02.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.181-190
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40122-818

THE EFFECT OF SPATIAL DIFFERENCES ON THE QUALITY OF URBAN LIFE A COMPARATIVE ANALYTICAL STUDY OF THREE CITIES IN THE HIGH PLATEAUX REGION OF ALGERIA

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Citation: Allal, A., Boudjemaa, K., & Dehimi, S. (2022). THE EFFECT OF SPATIAL DIFFERENCES ON THE QUALITY OF URBAN LIFE A COMPARATIVE ANALYTICAL STUDY OF THREE CITIES IN THE HIGH PLATEAUX REGION OF ALGERIA. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 181–190. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40122-818

Abstract: The urban areas in Algeria suffer from several imbalances in different regions, where the inequality of opportunities has led to an imbalance in the population density "from north to south". And to the urban chaos, this matter made it face many challenges, which prompted us to search for this defect. Development plans in Algeria focus on the role of cities with high hills in restoring balance to the national sphere and reducing these disparities. The study aims to extract and evaluate the spatial differences of the three cities and reveal the spatial disparities, in order to establish a balanced regional development, while preparing the various development plans, based on several criteria by integrating the Delphi method with the analytical hierarchy process, and determining its spatial regions in the (GIS) environment. Through a comparative study of three cities, the study showed the progress of the city of Setif, achieving (11%) of the study area, achieving high quality, with an area (14.50 km²), Al-M'sila (03%) with an area (7.99 km²). Barika (01%) with an area of (3.98 km2). The results can be used during the preparation of development plans for this region.

Key words: Spatial Differences, Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP), Geographical Information Systems (GIS), high plateaux region, Quality of life urban (QOL), Algeria

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INTRODUCTION

The principle of balance is a component of the general principles of national development, as every country tries to achieve its spatial harmony and complementarity. National integration is a process aimed to distinguish the borders clearly to remove barriers and differences of any kind among the population (Cote, 2010). The researcher (Cote, 2010) concluded that "the country should go towards a wide redeployment of activities and population on the national soil, through a national movement towards the south", as being the appropriate approach, based mainly on a program called (High Plateaux). The researcher also deduced that it is necessary to review the distribution of the population, as we need this move to achieve a new homogeneity in society and strengthening the social cohesion in cities. It all comes down to a model that sets up rules and works on establishing a balanced and real development to reduce the spatial differences and disparities in the Algerian cities. Maier, 2009 considers that "multi-center development is an effective way to reduce regional imbalance and enhance its cohesion" (Maier, 2009). The researcher here aims to reduce and curb regional imbalances by working on what is known as regional polarization to address these imbalances and differences of any kind. There is no doubt that the urban network as being the backbone / backbone of the regional system - multi-centering, which ensures an effective and coordinated transition for development across the entire region (Humeau et al., 2010).

The urban areas are major centers for economic, social and political growth in any country, and they have proven to be the most attractive places for the creation of wealth, job opportunities, creativity and innovation. This is in light of the challenges posed by development policies and their prospects in each city (Fouad and Sawsan, 2020). Its primary goal should be to please the human being and provide him with a better life.

However, the latter faces major challenges related to the negative aspects of urban development, many urban areas are facing increasing pressures due to population expansion, limited resources, social and economic challenges, and the growing effects of climate change. Therefore, we have to work on addressing these different challenges so that cities can provide quality, healthy and sustainable living environments. World Health Organization, 2020; Sarcheshmeh et al., 2020, as policy makers and planners have focused on the ability of (QOUL) to address these issues largely frequent in cities

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(Montgomery, 2007), as well as working on implementing regional polarization, which aims to reduce regional and spatial imbalances (Grigorescu and Kucsicsa, 2017). In fact, improving the (QOL) in every society is one of the important goals of public policies in recent years, as studies on quality of life have focused mainly on urban nature, and have gained a lot of interest among researchers. Urban planners used the (Multi Criteria Decision Analysis) (MCDA) integration strategy to address spatial issues starting from the 1990s (Su et al., 2010). It is clear that the increasing urban population and the mounting trend to live in the city is one of the main incentives for expanding an independent movement in the field of (QOL) research, this movement has led to various interpretations, and thus making it difficult to investigate.

So recent research on quality of life focuses on the quality of measuring this concept in cities (Solaimani et al., 2009).

Thus, social justice means the equitable spatial distribution of facilities and resources in different areas of the city and people's access to them (Moghadam et al., 2016). As a result, decision-makers and planners' most important task is to seek to attain the ideal of "equal opportunity" regarding the accessibility to services for different groups of urban society and to eliminate any inconsistency in providing equal, appropriate education, health and services, as the lack of specific urban development policies created in an ultimately mono-centered and unbalanced urban system (Pascariu, 2010).

Algerian cities are witnessing different problems (spatial and functional), related to many aspects that have repercussions on all aspects of life. Despite its development, growth and increasing numbers of inhabitants, the Algerian cities did not attain the developed cities level in terms of ease of living that varies according to equipment, facilities, basic structures and services; and in which the same living frame for the population is not offered equally, as the big cities are usually the most organized and polarized because of the better requirements that the population needs, while the internal cities have much more less, and some of them lack many essential needs for living, as the National Urban Planning Scheme (SNAT) and the Regional Scheme for Planning and Territory (SRAT) focus on the role of the high plateaux cities in bringing those needs to the population and rebalancing the national territory that suffers from extreme concentration of residents in the North. The study aims to extract and evaluate the spatial differences of the three cities and reveal the spatial disparities, in order to establish a balanced regional development, while preparing the various development plans.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study area

This research was conducted on the high plateaux region by selecting three cities with the same social, cultural and natural environment: Setif, M'sila, and Barika. These centers are located in Algeria's high plateaux region. The provinces area is (666.01 km²), which represents (0.027%) of the country. Setif is the capital of the high plateaus, a state located in northeastern Algeria, (330 km) from the capital Algiers. It lies within the following geographical coordinates: between longitude: 6.26° and 5.04° east of Greenwich, and between latitudes 34.76° and 26.36°; north of the equator. It is the second largest province after Algiers in terms of population density, with an estimated population of 1,699,738 inhabitants in 2013 census. It is considered as a great economic and inevitable tourism crossing. Estimated area: (130.89 km²), i.e. (1.7%) of the eastern plateau area (Figure 1). The city of M'sila is one of the most prominent inland cities in the high hills region of Algeria. It is located within the following geographical coordinates: Between two widths: Circles: 35.48°, '35.67° north of the equator. Between the two longitudes: 4.57°, 4.48° east of Greenwich, which is the line that connects north and south. Since the city is located in the middle of the Tell Atlas and the Saharan Atlas, it is also distinguished by its natural and economic diversity. The area of the municipality is estimated at (232.03 km²), inhabited by 214,661 people, and the population density is estimated at: 925 people, according to the Department of Municipal Statistics 2014.

The study area, which is the urban center of the city, is estimated at: (50.01 km²) Figure 1. The city of Barika is one of the inner cities of the High Hills region and is located within the following geographical coordinates: between latitudes 35° and 36° North, and latitudes 4° and 5° East, not far from the main urban centers (the main city of Batna: (88 km), Biskra: (78 km), M'sila: (99 km), Setif: (116 km), the municipality of Barika is (303.12 km²), with a population of 114,479 in 2015 census. The main center, itself, represents (94.13%) of the total municipality; this justifies the primacy of urban areas over the countryside. This crossroads site provides a hub for dynamic business exchange (Figure 1).

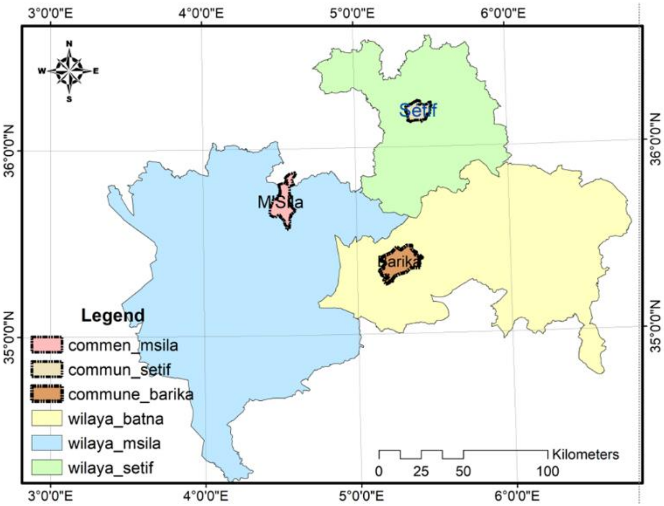

Figure 1. The location of the study area

Data Collection

1. Standards for detecting spatial disparities

These criteria were determined by employing the Delphi method for assessing the (QOL) in urban areas through the application of (MCDA) in decision-making through the (AHP) process. After collecting geographic data, master and sub-factor layers are defined in (QGIS), where criteria are used to clarify concepts for a wide range of users.

1.1. Security and Protection: Development in its multiple dimensions cannot be imagined in the absence of appropriate human capabilities (Sorin and Sebastian, 2018) as a criterion for security and protection.

In this standard, information was collected through a field survey of all security service centers and civil protection centers in the three cities, and then a layer was created for this information in the program (QGIS).

The security services and civil protection centers were selected on the basis of expert opinions and field surveys to determine the scope of service: less than 2000 m; 2000m to 3000m; more than 3000 m (Figure 2).

1.2. Education: The quality of life depends on education and all the factors that influence it, and it can be said that the greater the investment in education, the greater the possibility of improving the (QOL).

In the same way, we collected all the metadata from the directorates of education for the three cities and all the spatial data from the planning and reconstruction plans with the addition of a field survey to update all the data we have collected. As for the service range, experts specify: less than 500m; 500m to 800m; more than 800 m (Figure 2).

1.3. Public Services: In the era of globalization, the dominant trend of development has been regional integration (Aigerim et al., 2021), and the improvement of the (QOL), which leads to the intensive exchange of goods, services and labor resources. Improving the type of service, in turn, enhances the integration of operations as a factor of economic integration of services. In the same way, we depended on the collection and employment of all necessary public services distributed over the city, including municipal branches, postal service offices, telephone service offices, water supply service, urban transport service, and most religious facilities. Work was done to collect data from planning and reconstruction plans for the three cities, for the latest update of field surveys to update the data. Experts defined the range of services as less than 800 m; 800 m to 1300 m; more than 1300 m (Figure 2).

1.4. Health: Life-cycle health care can help improve and develop (QOL), in the same way, information was collected on the basis of planning and reconstruction plans for the three cities, with a field survey to work on updating all the data collected. After that, a layer was created for all health service centers and hospitals. Through the same process, service ranges are determined by expert opinions as: less than 800 m; 800 m to 1500 m; more than 1500 m (Figure 2).

1.5. Culture and Entertainment: Although recreation and leisure are among the most important urban activities in cities, which have become tourist attractions, they are subject to urban planning in their availability and distribution to ensure quality and quality (Fouad and Sawsan, 2020). We have adopted in this criterion all recreational and recreational centers, including public parks, sports facilities of all forms and types, theatres, culture houses, cinemas, theaters, youth centers and all centers related to social and cultural aspects. The service ranges were based on expert opinions, and various data were collected from the directorate of youth and sports and the directorate of culture for the three cities. Service range is defined as less than 800m, 800m to 1500m; more than 1500 m (Figure 2).

1.6. Environment: Man can exploit the natural environmental potential in various ways to support the social and economic well-being of the community to improve the (QOL). It is also not possible to separate human life from its environment, because environmental factors have a great impact on human life (Marlina et al., 2021).

In this criterion, different green spaces are identified and classified in addition to forests, agricultural fields, water basins, various residential areas, and the arid areas of the three cities, data were collected from master planning and urbanization plans for each city (Ouzir et al., 2021) (Figure 2).

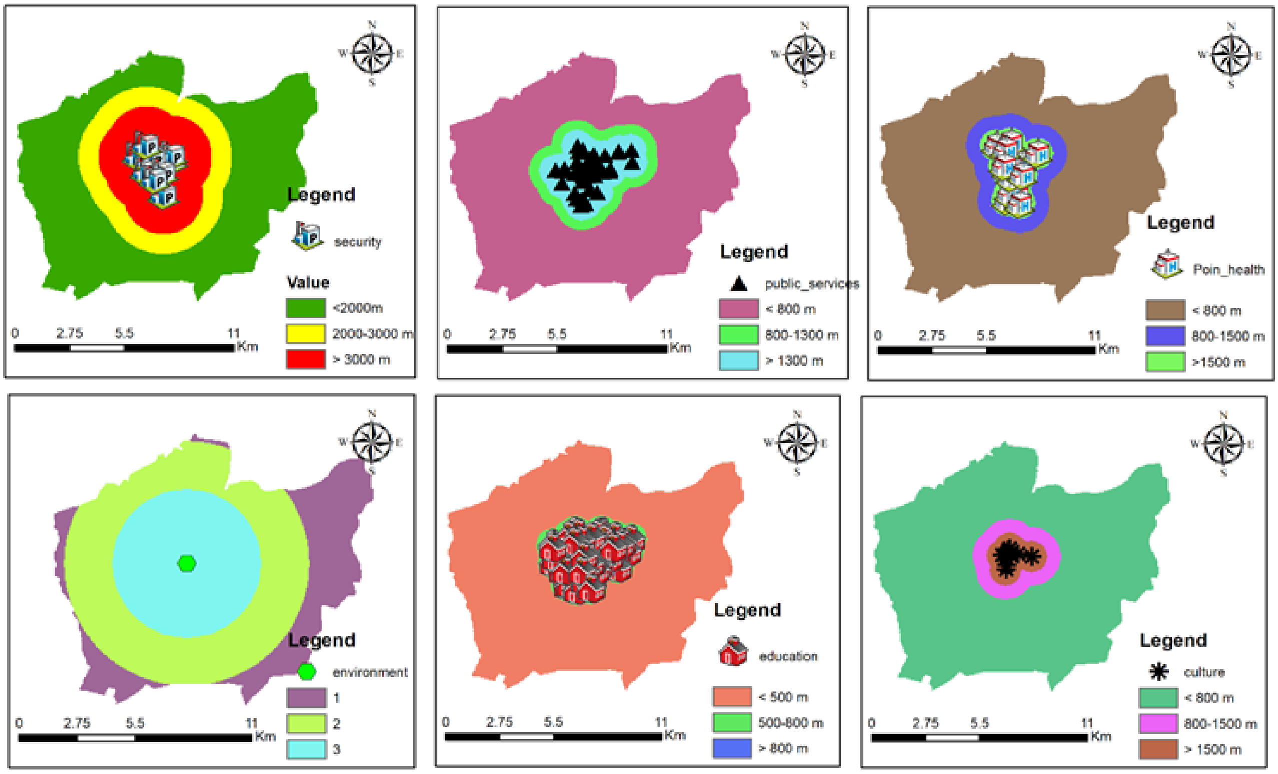

Figure 2. The criteria studied in analyzing the (QOL) in the city of Setif

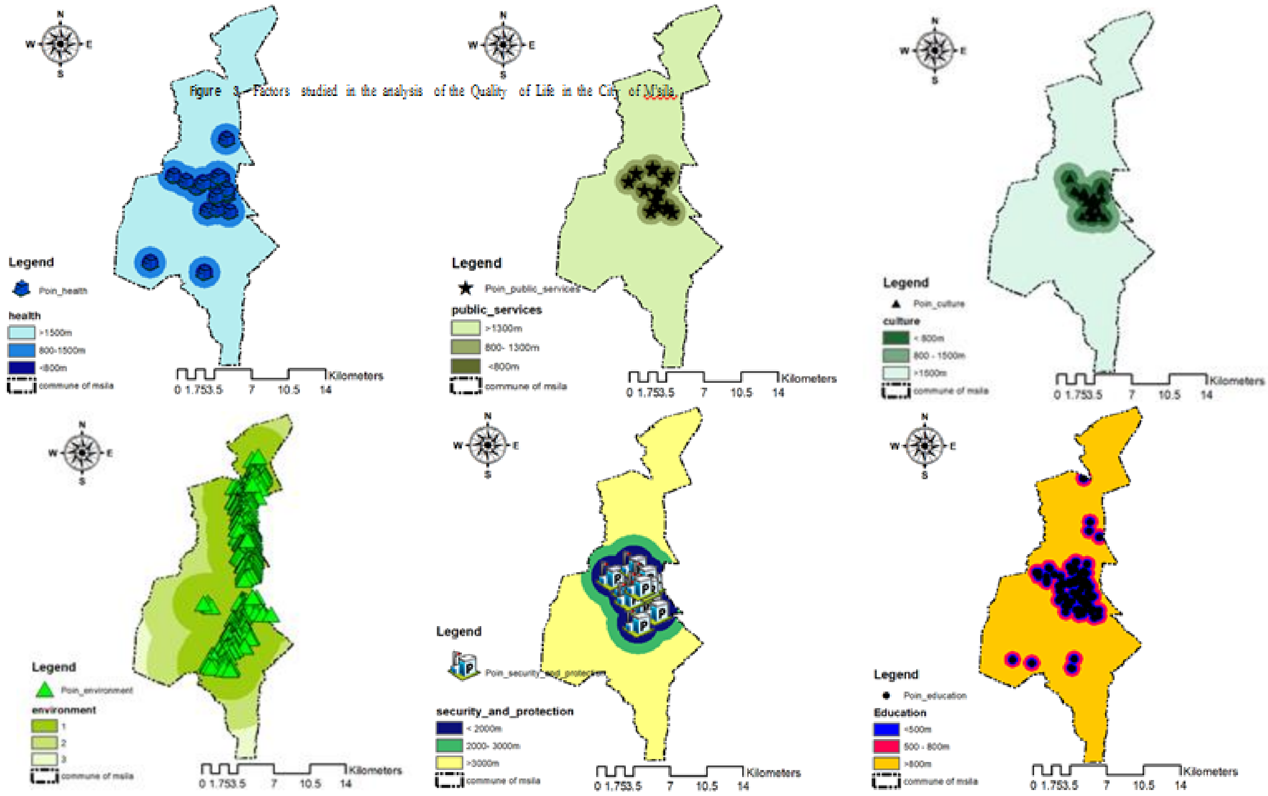

Figure 3. The criteria studied in analyzing the (QOL) in the city of M'sila

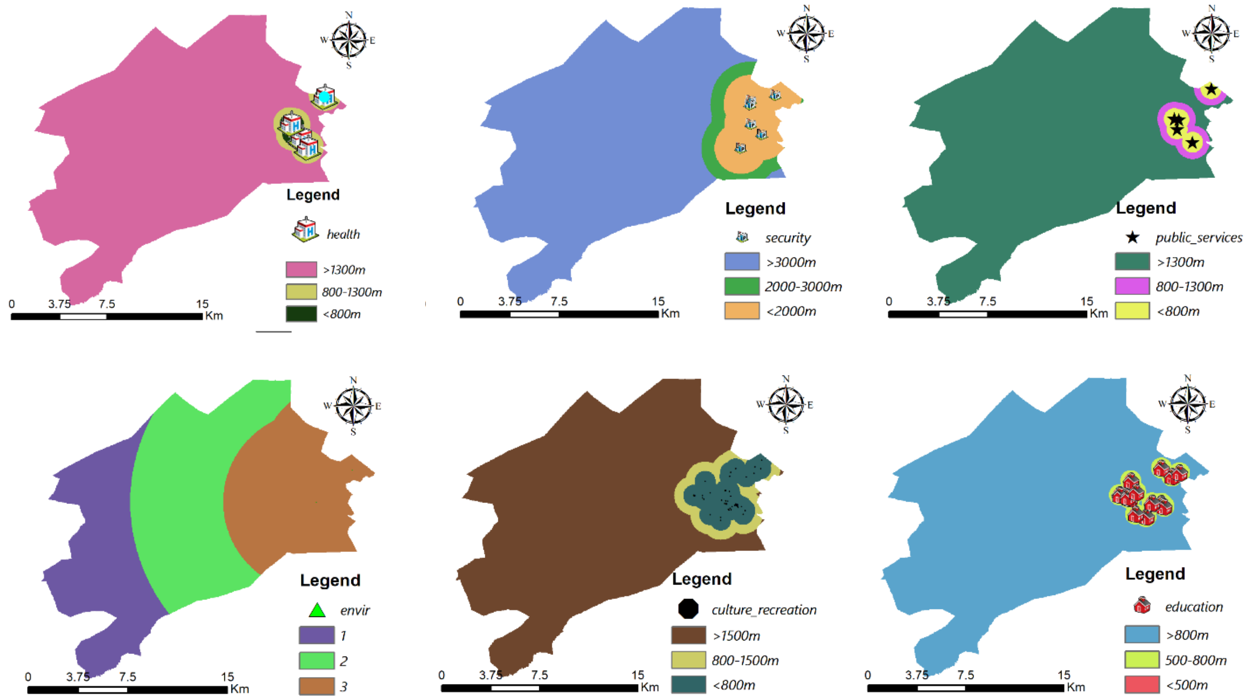

Figure 4. The criteria studied in analyzing the (QOL) in the city of Barika

Methods

Diagnosing an area, a prerequisite for any local planning, is "seen as an increase in the ability of actors in the region to control the processes that concern them (Boubir, 2018), as the study of a city system cannot be studied by looking at simple concepts only, such as land use or traffic, etc. The planners now need to develop and deepen their understanding of the city system by analyzing the various indicators (spatial, social, economic and environmental etc.). The issues that need to be addressed at the same time create a situation, as many alternatives must be tested and combined to improve the (QOL). Ludin et al., 2006, and choosing the best alternatives to create a balance and to work on an effective development in order to reduce the spatial disparities that the various cities suffer from. The research aims at extracting a map of spatial differences and assessing their differences in the three cities, and providing an appropriate framework, by merging the Delphi method, analytic hierarchy process (AHP), and (GIS). The same approach and criteria that were used in the previous study have been adopted: assessing the (QOL) in the city using the Delphi method and (AHP) and defining its spatial areas in the (GIS) environment: a case study on the city of M'sila / Algeria, in which we relied on experts from different disciplines, each of whom specialized in the field and has urban experience, with scientific and practical experience with knowledge of urban issues, (architects, urban planners, university professors, executive managers), and the second category is the citizens with no Professional knowledge but as actual users of this field; they know their needs and desires very well, and therefore their views can represent their actual needs to a large extent. by using the Delphi method, the researcher has come to extract six criteria stemming from the urban environment of their city, namely: (public services, education, environment, culture, entertainment and health, security and protection), as Delphi method is a systematic and interactive method that relies on a committee of experts, as an organized method of communication, to take interactive decisions based on the term "collective intelligence of experts", in order to give answers to questionnaires related to the topic In two phases Dalkey and Helmer, 1963; Sackman, 1974; Rowe and Wright, 2001, the researcher also relied on the (AHP) in extracting the weights of these criteria according to the opinions of the local population. To measure and extract a map of spatial differences, as this method enables us to help decision-makers to identify the cities that need balanced regional development, during preparing planning schemes and the territory in Algeria and limiting regional differences among the various regions of the country, especially the regions of the north, the high plateaux and the south, through a comparative study of three high plateaux cities (Setif, M'sila, and Barika). This type was developed by mathematician Thomas. "It is a quantitative method for assessing and arranging target-related alternatives." Thomas has identified an integrated framework that combines objective and subjective criteria, based on a relative-scale comparison. This method can provide a methodology for determining weights and assessing the different criteria used to assess the (QOL). By using (AHP), decision-making can be divided into several hierarchical levels so that a decision can be made based on the knowledge and experience of the relevant experts through a bilateral comparison at each Aalianvari et al., 2012; Saaty, 1980; Cheah et al., 2018; Yilmaz and Dagdeviren, 2016 (Figure 5). Then, the spatial data was collected by relying on the (QGIS) Program, the (QGIS) Platform is used by overlapping factors to create a map of the spatial differences for these cities based on data integration, geographic information systems analysis, and output evaluation where (GIS) is a system for creating, managing and analyzing graphics data Features and can be used as a decision-making support system by the manager, planner and decision maker. It is one of the most useful (GIS) applications for planning and management (Rad and Haghyghy, 2014). The purpose of integrating (GIS) is to inject spatial decision-making.

1. Delphi method

In this process, a group of experts from different disciplines who serve the research and have a leading authority that contribute to making various decisions have been relied upon. And their number was estimated at: 30 experts. The search followed four successive stages, starting with sending an anonymous summary containing a set of options and after each stage, we send an anonymous summary containing the outlook summary of the experts from the previous stage and the reasons on which their judgments were based, To the last stage, which is the fourth and final stage, after which the questionnaire results were determined (Qureshi et al., 2014). After this stage, six different and varied criteria were selected by experts, based on the opinion of the majority, and we stopped at these criteria: (Health, Public Services, Education, Environment, Culture and Recreation, Security and Protection). After completing the standard-setting process, we moved to another step, which is to involve the local population through the selection of a random sample in the evaluation of these standards through the use of a questionnaire to assess and reveal the spatial disparities of these cities. A range of survey questions were employed, including: What are your needs among these proposedcriteria? Is the distance between services and your various needs at home appropriate or not? Do these standards contribute to raising the quality of life for you and the city's residents as a whole? Then the degree of preference between the various main and sub criteria based on the opinion of the population was examined using the Thomas watchmaker's scale (Table 1), In order to compare the variables and take the opinion of the majority of the population on the (AHP) comparison, we proceeded to the process of analyzing the AHP hierarchy to determine the different weights of the main criteria and sub-criteria.

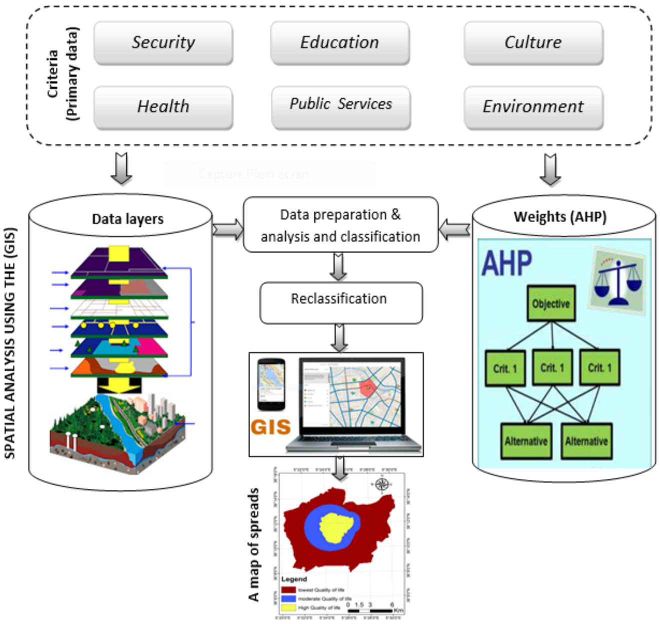

Figure 5. The methodology used in this research

2. Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP)

One of the most important aspects of this study is urban measurement and evaluation methods: it absorbs what is known about the city and evaluates its value, by comparing the three cities or extrapolating the performance in the future term. At present, there are a number of (MCDM) methods available for selection as a matter of the Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) The AHP approach, developed by (Satty, 1980), is one of the most widely used (MCDM) methods, is one (MCDA) is one of the most widely used methods. AHP has been applied to a variety of decisions and the human judgment process. (Lee et al., 2005). This technique is one of the methods (MCDM) with many capabilities. It is used in various scientific disciplines. Previous pieces of research indicate that (MCDA) technology; known as (AHP) is very suitable for solving complex problems (Yükse and Metin, 2007). It is widely applied in various fields. This method is very appropriate for social issues, and the complex spatiality in which intangible factors cannot be separated (Lee and Chan, 2008). Acquiring solutions in (AHP) is not a statistical measure, because it can help either one (or a group of decisions) decision maker to solve a problem (Chen, 2006) . (MCDM) is one of the most important advantages of (AHP) in terms of the ability to measure the quantitative and qualitative characteristics of a decision (Kangas, 1992). In addition to that, (AHP) is flexible in allowing the review; therefore, decision makers can expand hierarchy elements and change expert judgment from time to time.

2.1. Analysis: The (AHP) procedure is based on three basic steps:

(1) - Analysis includes or may refer to the establishment of a hierarchy.

(2) - Then come the judgments of comparison, or the identification and implementation of data collection to obtain binary comparison data about the elements of the hierarchical structure.

(3) - Then comes the process of collecting priorities, or building a comprehensive classification of priorities (Harker and Vargas, 1987). In the first stage, decision-makers need to divide decision-making problems with multiple complex criteria into their component parts, with all possible features arranged at multiple hierarchical levels. The criteria are not of equal importance to the decision at each level of the hierarchy and for each alternative rate differently from each criterion. (AHP) can provide an analytical process that is able to combine and standardize assessments of alternatives and standards by an individual or group involved in the decision-making task (Crouch and Ritchie, 2005). One notes that two elements are compared at a particular time that greatly reduce the conceptual complexity of the analysis. This simplification includes assumptions that (Saaty, 1980) considers reasonable, given the Binary comparison.

The analysis includes three tasks:

(1) - Develop a comparison matrix at each level of the hierarchy starting from the second level and working down.

(2) - Calculate the relative weights of each element of the hierarchy.

(3) - Estimating the consistency ratio to check the consistency of judgment (Boyer and Savageau, 1981). Comparisons can be made through personal or subjective judgments (Ho, 2008). The 9-point range used in the (AHP) studies ranges from 1 (indifference or equal importance) to 9 (extreme preference or absolute importance) (Table 1). This binary comparison enabled the decision maker to independently assess each worker’s contribution to the purpose, thereby simplifying the decision-making process.

The program relies on the following factors: Analysis of a complex problem in a hierarchy of related decision elements. A thread hierarchy structure is created for all decision elements in the top-level hierarchy.

The global target is placed at the forefront of the pyramid's structure. The lower-level hierarchy consists of more detailed elements, which are linked to the criteria at the next higher level (Saaty, 1990).

2.2. Setting priorities: After the hierarchy is established, the relative importance of all precision components will be captured and detected by binary comparisons, which in turn are used to construct the ratio matrix. Binary comparisons are then made between the six major criteria and the sub criteria within the same hierarchical level, working to use the numerical scale as suggested by (Saaty), which ranges from 1 to 9, (Table 1) (Fagbohun and Aladejana, 2016); (Ouma and Tateishi, 2014).

It was obtained to extract the judgment matrices as follows: (Eq. 1).

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a1n & \cdots & a1n \\ 1/a12 & 1 & \cdots & a2n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1/a1n & 1/a2n & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{Eq (01) (Dehimi and Hadjab, 2019)}$$

In this matrix, aij = 1 / aji. Thus, it can be noted that when i = j, it can be concluded that aij = 1. Then, the decision matrix normalization process was performed, in which each value is divided by the sum of the values in each column, and in the end, we get the average of the row values (Kamali et al., 2017). Then the weights were obtained. This is to ensure consistency within the pairwise comparison matrix, then determine the consistency index (CI) according to (Eq2).

$CI = \frac{\lambda\max - n}{n-1}$ Eq. (02) (Dehimi and Hadjab, 2019) Where: λ max expresses the largest value of the decision matrix. n: indicates the number of criteria used. According to this process, the final consistency ratio (CR) was obtained by (Eq.3) so as to measure the (CI) score (Table 2).

$CR = \frac{CI}{RI}$ Eq. (03) (Dehimi and Hadjab 2019) In this equation, (RI) stands for random consistency index. Its value is related to the dimensions of the matrix developed by Saaty, and if the value of (CR) exceeds (0.1), we must re-evaluate to improve consistency. The general purpose of the (AHP) is to support decision makers in choosing the best alternative from the various possible options for selection with multiple priorities.

3. (GIS) and Analytic Hierarchy process (AHP)

(GIS) technology has provided a distinct ability to automate and analyze a variety of spatial data, as it has evolved into a mature research and application area in various fields. Nowadays, (GIS) is a powerful tool in spatial modeling (Saaty, 1982). It also allows for a comparative analysis of geographical information in space and time quickly (Yamashkin et al., 2020); which involves a large number of spatial resolution problems, which provide alternative scenarios in cartographic creation (Yaakup et al., 2005). Therefore, the integration of (MCDA) will provide a unique and useful solution to the problems associated with the problems of spatial decision (Saaty, 1982), (GIS) application has a significant impact on the dynamic nature of urban and regional development, where the application of (GIS) refers to high-level strategic planning to the regional scheme, the state structure scheme, and the level of planning. We are working to shed light on a wide scale, by identifying cities that need balanced regional development during the preparation of the (SNAT) and preparing the regional scheme for preparation and the region (SRAT) and reduce regional disparities among the different parts of the country.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In our research, the application of (MCDM) in spatial problems and the application of (GIS) were discussed, and (AHP) was presented as a more appropriate tool in this context. This study presents a methodology and analytic tools for planning for spatial development. The research adopted the (MCDM) approach using (AHP) to extract the spatial differences map. In the (AHP), by implementing binary comparison matrices for each of the main factors and sub-factors included in the research. According to the purpose, six (06) criteria were used to evaluate the spatial area map for the three cities. Through professional ideas obtained from the checklists and according to the goal of gradually eliminating regional differences and disparities, encouraging development and integration between regions, and also working to improve the (QOL) in low-level areas and reduce the stark regional disparities between the various regions of the country, the weight of each criterion was determined. After extracting the relative weights for each criterion (Table 3), a map of the spatial differences was prepared. Then we compared and analyzed the results obtained. The result was the clear difference among the three cities in the (QOL) variation, even though being of the same social, cultural and natural environment.

Table 1. Shows the gradient scale for quantitative comparison of alternatives (Source: Abediniangerabi et al., 2014)

VALUE	PREFERENCE LEVEL NUMERIC
1	EQUAL PREFERENCE
3	MODERATE PREFERENCE
5	STRONG PREFERENCE
7	VERY STRONG PREFERENCE
9	ABSOLUTE PREFERENCE
2, 4, 6, 8	INTER MEDIATE VALUES BETWEEN THEM

Table 2. Random indices from (Saaty, 1977)

n	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
RI	0.58	0.9	1.12	1.24	1.32	1.41	1.45	1.49

Table 3. Comparison of key criteria in (AHP) (Source: Dehimi, 2021)

	Security	Education	Culture	Health	Public	Environment	Weights	Rank
Security	1	2	2	1/2	1	1/2	0.151	3
Education	1/2	1	1	1/2	3	1/2	0.135	4
Culture	1/2	1	1	1/5	1	1/3	0.084	6
Health	2	2	5	1	2	1	0.273	1
Public	1	1/3	1	1/2	1	1/3	0.095	5
Environment	2	2	3	2	3	1	0.261	2
	λmax=6.29	CI= 0.05		RCI=1.24		CR = 5 %		

Table 5. Percentage of the (QOL) level for the three cities

Numbere	Categories	Setif		M'sila		Barika	
		Km²	%	Km²	%	Km²	%
1	High quality of life	14,50	11%	7.99	03%	3.98	01%
2	Quality of life is moderate	26,50	20%	62.11	27%	85.43	28%
3	The lowest quality of life	89,89	69%	163.06	70%	213.71	71%

The results of this research also demonstrated a spatial mismatch between the (QOL) and local economic development.

Finally, the Compliance Rate (CR) was calculated: (0.05), which indicates the validity of the model. These weights can be very useful for the national and regional planning that the authorities intend to do in the future (Table 3).

Then we extracted the procedures. The consistency ratio (CR = 0.05) was less than (0.1) of the (Saaty) values in the first hierarchical level of the (AHP), apparently, the scale distribution between the factors was largely acceptable and showed good consistency (Shokati and Feizizadeh, 2019).

Table 4. Results obtained for: (AHP) between different main criteria and between different sub-criteria (Source: Dehimi and Hadjab 2019)

Key criteria	Sub-Criteria	Weight	Rank	Final weight	Rank
Security	<2,000 m	0.574	4	0.151	3
	2,000–3,000 m	0.361	8		
	>3,000 m	0.065	18		
Education	<500 m	0.717	1	0.135	4
	500–800 m	0.217	13		
	>800 m	0.066	17		
Culture	<800 m	0.537	5	0.084	6
	800–1,500 m	0.364	7		
	>1,500 m	0.099	14		
Health	<800 m	0.588	3	0.273	1
	800–1,500 m	0.323	10		
	>1,500 m	0.089	15		
Public services	<800 m	0.649	2	0.095	5
	800–1,300 m	0.279	11		
	>1,300 m	0.072	16		
Environment	Green areas	0.413	6	0.261	2
	Public parks	0.260	12		
	Water bodies	0.327	9		

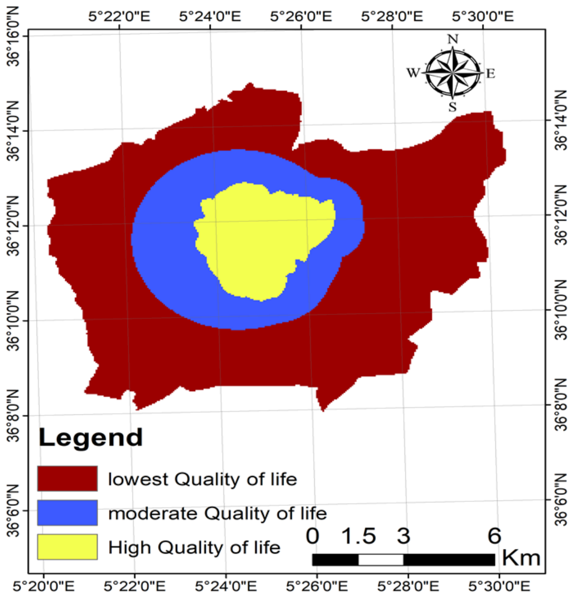

Figure 6. (QOL) Map of quality of life in City of Setif

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In our research, the application of (MCDM) in spatial problems and the application of (GIS) were discussed, and (AHP) was presented as a more appropriate tool in this context. This study presents a methodology and analytic tools for planning for spatial development. The research adopted the (MCDM) approach using (AHP) to extract the spatial differences map. In the (AHP), by implementing binary comparison matrices for each of the main factors and sub-factors included in the research. According to the purpose, six (06) criteria were used to evaluate the spatial area map for the three cities. Through professional ideas obtained from the checklists and according to the goal of gradually eliminating regional differences and disparities, encouraging development and integration between regions, and also working to improve the (QOL) in low-level areas and reduce the stark regional disparities between the various regions of the country, the weight of each criterion was determined. After extracting the relative weights for each criterion (Table 3), a map of the spatial differences was prepared. Then we compared and analyzed the results obtained. The result was the clear difference among the three cities in the (QOL) variation, even though being of the same social, cultural and natural environment.

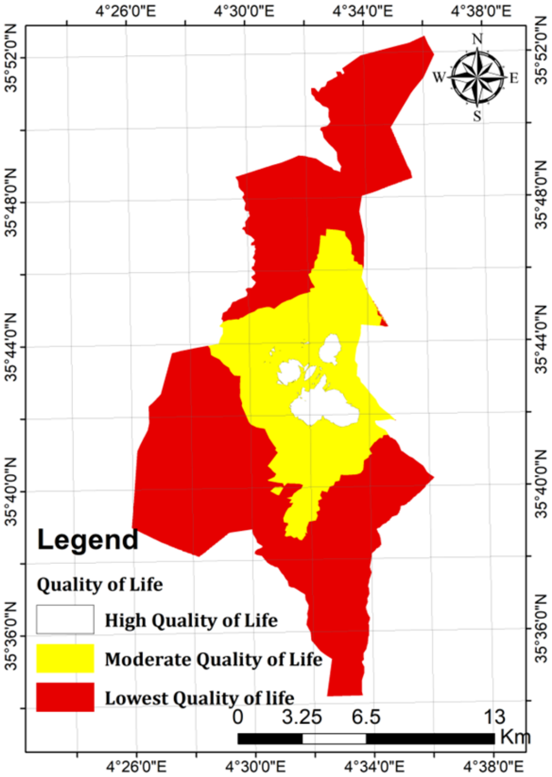

Figure 7. (QOL) Map of quality of life in City of M'sila

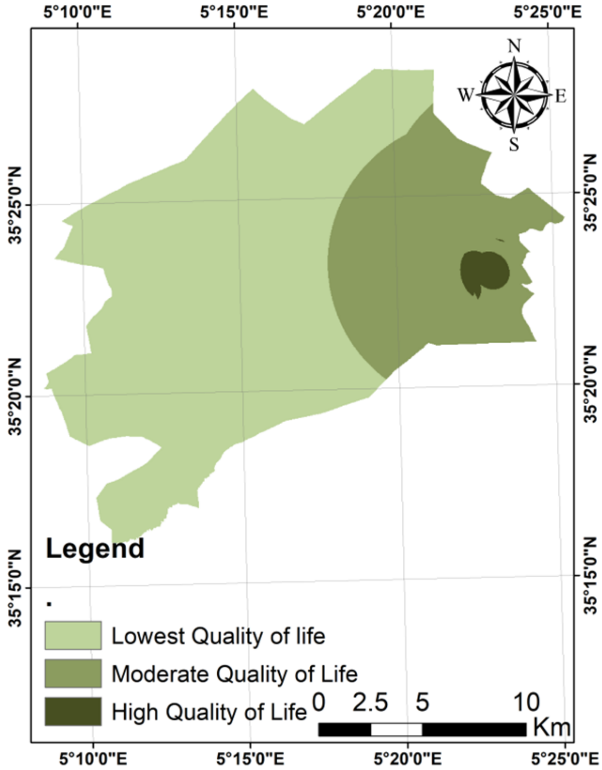

Figure 8. (QOL) Map of quality of life in City of Barika

According to the previous hierarchical analysis of (QOL) criteria selected in the city study, the role of (GIS) comes in the form of a draft summarizing all stages of work in "QGIS". Then we aggregate the pre-selected maps in the (GIS) software through point calculators with each criterion multiplied by the weight produced by the process (AHP), to extract the map of the three regions (Figure 6, 7 and 8).

By reading the quality of the map of the spatial differences of the three cities, it is noted that the regions that have achieved a high (QOL) according to: (AHP) are the province city center and its surrounding areas. i.e., there is a difference between the city's neighborhoods and the lack of equitable distribution of services and facilities. Setif came in the first degree with its achievement: (11%) of the study area achieves a high (QOL) with an area estimated: (14.50 km²). While M'sila got: (03%) of the study area achieves a high (QOL) with an area (7.99 km²), and the city of Barika came last with: (01%) of the study area achieves a high (QOL) with an area (3.98 km²). We note the clear difference among the three cities in terms of the variation of the percentages of the (QOL), despite being of the same region and natural environment as mentioned above. While for the moderate (QOL), the city of Barika took the largest percentage by obtaining: (28%) of the study area achieves a moderate (QOL) with an area estimated at: (85.43km²).

While the city of M'sila obtained: (27%) of the study area achieves a moderate (QOL) with an area (62.11 km²), and in the last came the city of Setif: (20%) of the study area achieves a moderate quality of life with an area (26.50 km²), we note the great difference among the three cities, and how the proportions vary from one category to another, and as for the lowest (QOL), the city of Barika came as the first region to suffer from a low quality of life level by achieving: (71%) of the study area that achieves a minimum (QOL) with an area estimated at: (213.71 km²). Then came the city of M'sila, with a ratio: (70%) of the study area achieving a minimum quality of life with an area of (163.06 km²), and in the last came the city of Setif: (69%) of the study area that achieves a minimum quality of life with an area estimated at: (89.89 km²).

CONCLUSIONS

Over the past years, Algeria has witnessed major structural and functional transformations that have created many changes in its field and society, this also have led to specific regional development at different spatial levels. The main scope of the study was to assess spatial differences, to identify and understand urban transformations and their spatial differences in relation to the social, economic and political changes of the country since independence.

In this research:

We came up to draw a map of the spatial differences of the high plateaux with three categories: high (QOL), moderate (QOL), and lowest (QOL). The results have shown that these three cities perform poorly in conditions of high (QOL), which are the main obstacles to ensure a better life. Health and environmental conditions are low, although the cities (Setif, M'sila, Barika) enjoy a relatively good material and natural environment, but it also shows clear deficiencies. As a matter of fact, these cities must be paid more attention in urban development in the future.

The above analysis reveals that the three cities differ greatly in terms of (QOL). The results of this research also demonstrate a spatial mismatch between the (QOL) and local economic development. The development of a multi-center network in the high plateaux region may contribute to the revitalization systems and raising the performance of these cities, which will contribute to the development of all regional systems. The development perspectives of settlements are linked to the ability of decision-makers to restructure the regional management system according to a new context, and to promote practical, sustainable and coherent development policies in the region, so that it can ensure systems of revitalization, and even transform some of the cities into centers or growth poles. The preoccupation of decision-makers in unifying the multi-center regional network will lead to the structuring of an effective system for transferring innovations and good practices from the national level to the local one, by strengthening the role of these cities, as well as establishing effective regional development.

Identifying gaps / differences in development identifies decision-makers to direct balanced development towards the high plateaux cities thanks to their great potentials, they can also reduce the pressure on the northern cities and re-optimize the population throughout the national territory. It is the main demand that the government, in its new policy, has adopted to establish foundations on the ground. The (SNAT) and (SRAT)focus on the role of the high plateaux cities in bringing the population and rebalancing the national domain that suffers from the high concentration of inhabitants in coastal areas, as Algeria relies on the high plateau cities to boost the Algerian economy for their important and abundant potentials.

The combination of Delphi method and the method of multi-criteria analysis through (AHP) in the environment (GIS) are effective methods that give more accurate results. This method has proven its effectiveness in helping decision makers to choose the best alternatives according to the factors determined by experts, in identifying different spatial discrepancies, and encouraging development and integration. However, these factors and indicators are subject to change by region. The results of the map can be used during the preparation of development plans in Algeria to reduce spatial disparities between the various regions of the country, work to improve the (QOL) in low-level areas, and help decision makers to establish balanced regional development in order to gradually eliminate regional differences and disparities and encourage development and integration between regions. Using the results of this study.

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Article history: Received: 23.09.2021 Revised: 18.12.2021 Accepted: 26.01.2022 Available online: 21.02.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.191-199
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40123-819

THE STUDY OF TRAVEL SATISFACTION IN MRT JAKARTA DURING THE PANDEMIC OF COVID-19

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Citation: Sukwadi, R., Cory, S., & Liang, Y.C. (2022). THE STUDY OF TRAVEL SATISFACTION IN MRT JAKARTA DURING THE PANDEMIC OF COVID-19. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 191–199. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40123-819

Abstract: The aims of the present study are as follows: a) to explore the factors which are imperative to measure the service quality of the MRT Jakarta; b) to construct a detailed satisfaction model to measure the effects of service quality and the perceived accessibility as mediating variable on overall satisfaction with travel of MRT Jakarta. The 24 variables were tested with SEM method using R Studio. It is applied to define a causal model between each of variables. Furthermore, to evaluate the qualitative data, the thematic analysis is also applied. Based on the study results, the satisfaction with travel would increase if perceived accessibility is increasing by service quality. The increase of perceived accessibility will make the users more accessible and easier to live their lives, leading to satisfaction with travel. The qualitative data processed with thematic analysis showed the most frequency quality concerned in MRT Jakarta is SS1 (Presence of Guard) and SS2 (Risk of Interference with Other Passengers). The service quality affects perceived accessibility and travel satisfaction. Likewise, perceived accessibility affects travel satisfaction. Also, it is supported by the thematic analysis from qualitative data, which compared by passengers' input about MRT Jakarta in COVID-19 Pandemic.

Key words: service quality, MRT Jakarta, travel satisfaction, perceived accessibility, pandemic of COVID-19

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INTRODUCTION

As the capital city of Indonesia and one of many other big cities in Indonesia, Jakarta is increasing rapidly in every dimension of the economy's wheels. With the growth of the population, the need for transportation will increase. Unfortunately, it has resulted in congestion in many Jakarta areas. According to TomTom Traffic Index, Jakarta has become the tenth city of many other cities with the most traffic globally, with 53% of the average congestion level. The growth of the urban transport trend in Jakarta was affected by many factors, including population, geographical de-concentration, increases in income, motorized transport availability, and increases in other activities (Santosa and Basuki 2003).

As the capital city of a developing country, Jakarta must provide ideal infrastructure services in many ways. Hence, to support its high mobility and traffic for modernization, the Government has responded by establishing a modern subway system known as Mass Rapid Transit (MRT). It is the outcome of the policy of the Government of Jakarta in Governor Regulation 103 of 2007. According to Effendi on jakarta.bisnis.com, MRT takes place as a service to provide the city mobilization with accessibility and connectivity towards inclusive public transportation development.

MRT in Jakarta has been operated since March 24th, 2019. This system convinced the public to solve the high traffic jam or congestion and is an ideal transportation system in a big city. The first phase of MRT connects Lebak Bulus and Bundaran HI for 13 stations divided into elevated sections and underground. Besides that, MRT also connects with other public transportation such as KRL Commuter Line and Transjakarta. The new modern transportation mode in Jakarta, MRT, is required to provide the services for the community to meet their need for mobilization (Purnomo and Mufhidin, 2020). MRT train in Jakarta was named Ratangga, and it has 16 Ratangga series. The time record for the journey from Lebak Bulus station to Bundaran HI station is 30 minutes. In a normal situation, MRT Jakarta operates from 05.00 a.m. until 00.00 a.m. every day. Today, it has just the first phase. The second phase will be released soon (www.jakartamrt.co.id).

At the beginning of 2020, the world experienced a global pandemic outbreak of infectious diseases. It is called COVID-19. The government of Indonesia has never applied lockdowns during the COVID-19 transmission. The Indonesian government argues that the best approach during the COVID-19 flow is to balance between economic and the pandemic control. In doing so, the government has never imposed national lockdowns since the first confirmed cases on March 2nd, 2020 (van Empel et al., 2020). After the government announced that two female Indonesians were positively infected by

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the coronavirus, the government has proposed the partial lockdowns or the large social restriction, so-called "*Pembatasan Sosial Berskala Besar*" (PSBB), to hamper the COVID-19 transmission (Khairulbahri, 2021).

The pandemic has increased the need for greater understanding and integration of governance, technology and citizen behavior (Shaw et al., 2020), providing additional lessons and case materials for the building of resilience into transportation systems (Kim et al., 2018). Regular use of public transportation might be a risk for acquiring symptomatic COVID-19 (Steinwender et al., 2021). The COVID-19 pandemic brought unprecedented levels of disruption to the local and regional transportation networks throughout Indonesia, especially the capital city-Jakarta (Yao et al., 2021). Hence, in April 2020, the Government of Indonesia decided to undertake large-scale social distancing in several big cities in Indonesia, in response to this pandemic. Consequently, of its decision, the usage of public transportation, especially MRT, has immensely decreased. Many companies closed and forbade employees from coming to work and let the employees work from their homes. Figure 1 and 2 shows the implementation's effect of large-scaling social distancing in April 2020 in Jakarta and the current development (2021). The average number of MRT passengers per day in April only reached 4,059 passengers, and it decreased by around 90% from the past month. However, the graphic (Figure 1) tends to go up from June 2020 until July 2020, although not like the two months early. The decrease of MRT passengers is a result of the Government's policy to do large-scale social distancing. The decision affects using MRT and decreasing passengers.

This global pandemic affects passengers to comply with existing health protocols such as wearing a mask, keeping a safe distance, always bring personal hand sanitizer, should not sneezing carelessly, etc. This matters in every station on MRT to provide strict regulations to all customers when entering the station. To keep passengers feel safe and secure, the company must provide their best quality of services. According to Yuniarti and Aditya (2020), following the health protocol rules at MRT Jakarta, passengers are expected to bring 12 items, including masks, multi-trip roaming cards, MRT-J mobile apps, hand sanitizers, personal worship tools, personal drinking bottles, vitamins (if needed), dry wipes, wet wipes, disinfectant, and personal cutlery. In addition, people entering the Jakarta MRT region must follow the regulations for verifying the maximum temperature of 37.3 degrees Celsius, and there is platform marking stickers that the community must respect. As a result, the principles of social distancing can be effective. MRT Jakarta also performs intensive cleaning of each train, both inside and outside, employing disinfectants, health and hygiene officers, personal protective equipment, and temperature checks for passengers at the entry to the 62-67 per train restriction.

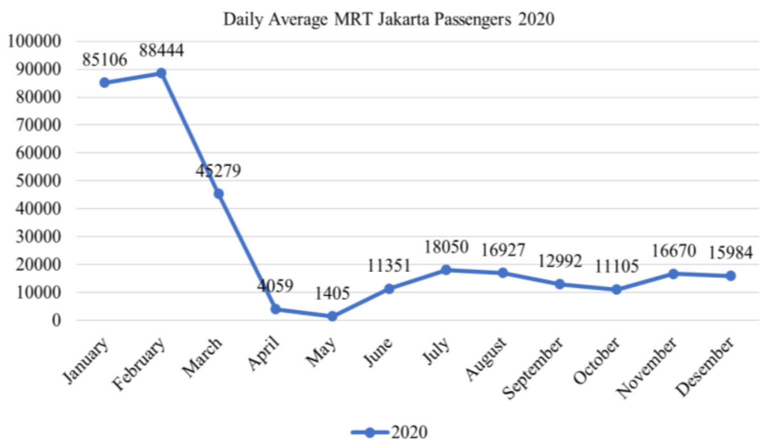

Figure 1. Data of the average MRT passenger per day in 2020 (number of passengers) (Source: https://jakartamrt.co.id/)

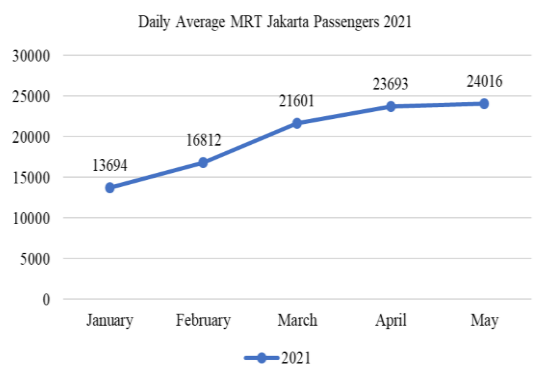

Figure 2. Data of the average MRT passenger per day in 2021 (number of passengers) (Source: https://jakartamrt.co.id/)

Nevertheless, the quality for serving the needs of the passengers must keep running. Excellence service quality plays a vital role and have become a top priority for the company to achieve their goals and gain competitive advantages (Sukwadi, 2015a). The impact of the service experience on consumers' satisfaction is important for service providers. Service providers must provide customers with delightful service experience to attract more passengers and achieve higher customer satisfaction (Sukwadi et al., 2012; Sukwadi, 2015b). The vision of MRT Jakarta is to become a leading public transportation service provider committed to driving economic growth through increased mobility, reduction of congestion, and development of urban transit systems (www.jakartamrt.co.id). As for its vision, Lättman et al. (2016a) stated that reliable measures of perceived accessibility are needed to the following up on goals and vision. Perceived accessibility has been defined as "the ease of living a satisfying life" for using the transport system. Perceived accessibility includes the individual perspective with demographic characteristics and also pointed to an important goal emphasizing service quality (Dong et al., 2006; Cheng and Chen, 2015; Lättman et al., 2016b) . Perceived accessibility varies on income, wheelchair user, mobility impairments caused by aging and transit dependent (Márquez et al., 2019).

The demand for satisfying services is more challenging in this pandemic. However, service quality becomes the key determination and perceptions of accessibility (Friman et al., 2020). With this pandemic situation, is the community able to live their lives as they want to? Where do people feel it is easy to travel today? Are people able to do their activities like before using the MRT service? Are people satisfied with how they travel today? The perceived accessibility was first developed by Lättman et al. (2016b). They developed the scale of perceived accessibility that aims to focus on the perceived possibility for society to use public transport. Besides that, perceived accessibility also targets the ease of engaging in preferred activities by using public transport. The perceived accessibility scale can be used to determine the best needed according to each individual. Therefore, it can improve the accessibility of public transport.

Lättman et al. (2016b), in their research, discussed the findings that quality is an essential factor for perceived accessibility. This finding leads the user to perceive public transport to be more accessible. The public transport quality dimension that is more critical on perceived accessibility includes reliability and information. These findings aim at the building of a sustainable transport system for public users. According to Parasuraman et al. (1985, 1988), the perception and evaluations of the customer to the provided services affect the service quality of its company.

Other researchers discussed that information and comfort are important transport qualities for better-perceived accessibility (Friman et al., 2020). They suggested the cost dimension could be considered in future studies while the cost dimension also an important factor for better-perceived accessibility. Perceived accessibility was used to see the differences between people's groups, such as age, gender, income rate, etc. The findings of Lättman et al. (2019) described and hypothesized that travel satisfaction is affected by perceived accessibility. In the transportation context, many studies and researches have been conducted (Haron et al., 2015, 2016; Nguyen Van et al., 2018; Sze-Siong and Aksan, 2018; Monmousseau et al., 2020), customer satisfaction was used to measure the performance of transportation system through the perception of its quality. In this research, perceived accessibility will be the mediating variable that help to verify the indirect effect between service quality and travel satisfaction. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is viewed as one a general statistical modeling technique that is commonly used as a modeling approach that integrates regression analysis and factor analysis (Davvetas et al., 2020; Hox and Bechger, 2015).

Besides testing the hypothesis by the Structural Equation Model (SEM), the researcher wants to know the frequently mentioned indicators from passengers' opinions using the thematic analysis. This analysis is used to identify, analyze, and find the code from qualitative data (Salleh et al., 2017; Heriyanto, 2018; Mellado et al., 2020). Also, the researcher wants to compare the satisfaction for using MRT Jakarta influenced by perceived accessibility and service quality during COVID-19 pandemic between the captive users and choice users. The captive users are defined as the user that only has one transport option. In comparison, the choice users are defined as the user with many other options of transport (Zhao et al., 2014; De Oña et al., 2015). The differences between the captive and choice users can be seen by how they would feel about accessibility and satisfaction if they travel with MRT Jakarta.

The aims of the present study are as follows: a) to explore the factors which are imperative to measure the service quality of the MRT Jakarta; b) to construct a detailed satisfaction model to measure the effects of service quality and the perceived accessibility as mediating variable on overall satisfaction with travel of MRT Jakarta. This research can be used to determine, evaluate, and develop the service quality for the perceived accessibility and passenger’s satisfaction in MRT Jakarta, especially during and post of the Covid-19 pandemic. The present study's findings provide decision-makers with necessary information regarding the rapid mass transit in Jakarta to deliver better public services.

In order to achieve these objectives, the paper will proceed as follows: immediately, in methodology section, the model development and statistical method i.e., Structural Equation Modelling is described; after this, questionnaire survey design and data collection are also presented in this section; while in the result section, results of descriptive analysis, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and thematic analysis are presented whereas discussion of the results is shown in next section; lastly, conclusions and future research are discussed in the last section.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Model development and hypothesis

The present study focused on the service quality, perceived accessibility, and travel satisfaction in MRT Jakarta during the pandemic of COVID-19 in second order model. Higher-order model shows the connection between second-order latent variable with the indicators in first-order latent variable (Koufteros et al., 2009; Laili and Otok, 2014). Service provided by the transport system should fulfill travel needs to reach satisfaction with travel. It is believed that improving service quality can help achieve passengers' satisfaction with travel (Shah et al., 2020; Soltanpour et al., 2020; Haron et al., 2015, 2016; Nguyen Van et al., 2018; Sze-Siong and Aksan, 2018; Monmousseau et al., 2020). Lai and Chen (2011) reported that the more positive customer expectation of high-service quality service, the more satisfaction was obtained.

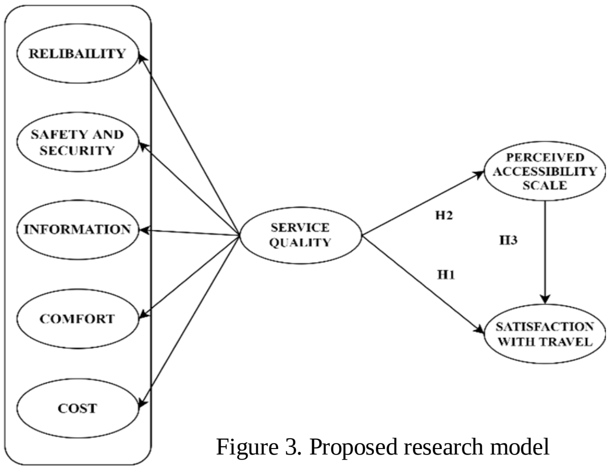

Figure 3. Proposed research model

Thus, service quality appears to be positively related and essential to perceived accessibility. The service quality dimensions used are reliability, safety, security, information, comfort, and cost. A previous study highlighted that service quality has been important for perceived accessibility in daily travel (Lättman et al., 2016b; Friman et al., 2020). Perceived accessibility has a role in travel satisfaction and general life satisfaction (Lättman et al., 2019; Inturri et al., 2021). It became the mediating role between service quality and satisfaction with travel. The higher the satisfaction with travel that customer feels, the higher perceived accessibility and quality are given. The service quality also has a role in drive customer satisfaction (Lai and Chen, 2011; Hussein and Hapsari, 2014; Chauhan et al., 2021). Therefore, hypotheses conducted in this research are (Figure 3):

H1: Service quality has an effect on satisfaction with travel
H2: Service quality has en effect on the perceived accessibility scale
H3: Perceived accessibility scale as a mediating variable has an effect on satisfaction with travel

Table 1. Definition of the operational variables

Variable	Definition	Indicator	Reference
Reliability (RE)	Reliability is the overall competencies to provide the service dependently. It also means the accuracy of the services (Henderson, 2013)	Travel times on MRT are reasonable	(Friman et al., 2020)
		MRT mostly runs on schedule	(Friman et al., 2020)
		I am satisfied with the number of departures	(Friman et al.,2020)
		Ease to changeover to other modes (transfer) from MRT	(Mandhani et al., 2020; Friman et al., 2020)
		Payment method is easy	(Lättman et al., 2016a; Mandhani et al., 2020)
Safety & Security (SS)	Safety & Security is protection to the passenger to prevent disturbance, accident risk, and criminal danger. (Haron et al., 2015)	Presence of police and security guard	(Haron et al., 2015; Haron et al., 2016)
		Risk of interference from other passengers	(Haron et al., 2015; Haron et al., 2016)
		Personal safety	(Haron et al., 2015; Haron et al., 2016)
Information (IF)	The information available for the travel (Lättman et al., 2016)	The information provided is good when traffic problems occur	(Friman et al., 2020)
		The information provided is good at stops and terminals	(Lättman et al., 2016a; Friman et al., 2020)
		The information provided is good on any other communication technologies	(Lättman et al., 2016a; Mandhani et al., 2020)
Comfort (CF)	How comfortable access to the service (Redman et al., 2013)	Traveling by MRT is comfortable	(Friman et al., 2020)
		I normally get a seat when I travel with MRT	(Friman et al., 2020)
		Cleanliness of MRT Station	(De Oña et al., 2015 & Friman et al., 2020)
		Convenience at MRT	(Friman et al., 2020 & Mandhani et al., 2020)
Cost (CS)	The monetary cost of the service (Redman et al., 2013)	Public transport gives value for money	(Friman et al., 2020)
		Public transport fares are reasonable	(Friman et al., 2020)
Perceived Accessi-bility Scale (PAC)	A way to use the transport system for a satisfactory living (Lättman et al., 2016a)	Considering how I travel today it is easy to do my daily activities with MRT	(Lättman et al., 2016a; Lättman et al., 2016b)
		Considering if MRT was the only mode of travel, I would able to live my life as I want to	(Lättman et al., 2016a, Lättman et al., 2016b)
		Considering how I travel today I can do all activities I prefer with MRT	(Lättman et al., 2016a; Lättman et al., 2016b)
		Access to my preferred activities is satisfying considering how I travel today with MRT	(Lättman et al., 2016a; Lättman et al., 2016b)
Satisfaction with Travel (TS)	Satisfaction with travel is the response of the customer about expectation and experience (Woodruff, 1997; Lättman et al., 2019)	Cognitive Quality Evaluation	(Chomeya, 2010; Hsu and Liao, 2019; Lättman et al., 2019)
		Affective Evaluation of Feelings of Boredom vs. Enthusiasm	(Chomeya, 2010; Hsu and Liao, 2019; Lättman et al., 2019)
		Affective Evaluation of Feelings of Stress vs. Relaxation	(Chomeya 2010; Hsu and Liao 2019; Lättman et al., 2019)

Research design

This research will use quantitative data from the data survey gathered by distributing the questionnaire from May until July 2021. The questionnaire used and presented to the respondent consists of 2 parts, demographic data and 24 questions based on the model indicators. This research used the multiple-choice type with a Likert scale from 1 to 7. According to Lewis (1993), the Likert scale of 7 points has a stronger correlation result. The seven-points Likert scale tends to be easier to use, more accurate, and better reflect the respondent. Moreover, this Likert scale is the best solution for questionnaires to conclude the usability evaluations (e.g., satisfaction survey) (Finstad, 2010). Besides Likert-type questions, the researcher also used open questions for opinions about MRT Jakarta's quality during the pandemic of COVID-19. The sampling technique in this research is non-probability sampling. This technique is not randomized methods. With this type of sampling, the participant was targeted and chose by the researcher in track of the purpose in the research. People from specified group was selected and sought out to represent the research purposes (Showkat and Parveen, 2017). Based on Bartlett et al. (2001) for determining appropriate sample size in survey research, there is a formula called Cochran formula as below:

$$n_o = \frac{(t)^2 \times (s)^2}{(d)^2}$$

n_o = sample size
t = level of risk (alpha level of 0.05 is 1.96)
s = estimate standard deviation ((range of scale)/(number of standar deviation))
d = acceptable margin of error (number of point scale × margin error)

Hence, the minimum number of respondents for this research is calculated with the Cochran formula below (Bartlett et al., 2001):

$$n_o = \frac{(1.96)^2 \times \left(\frac{7}{6}\right)^2}{(7 \times 0.03)^2} = 118{,}567 = 119$$

According to Sreejesh et al. (2014), there are rules of thumb for determining the sample size. For sample size, at least five times of the indicators entered into the questionnaire. This research has 24 indicators to ask the respondents. Thus, the minimum number of respondents for this research would be 120 samples. The minimum number of respondents with the Cochran formula by Bartlett et al. (2001) is 119 respondents, while the minimum number of respondents with a rule of thumb by Sreejesh et al. (2014) is 120 respondents. In conclusion, the minimum sample size for this research is 120 respondents. The sample in this research was passengers in MRT Jakarta during the pandemic of COVID-19. Respondents in this research were 264 people. At the beginning, data should be processed through the validity and reliability tests using R Studio. This test aims to find out that the model's instrument is reliable and has a valid output. If the measurement model is not valid, the instrument should be refined and defined in the new study. In case it is valid, then the model continues to the next stage. The processes of the SEM method will be tested by using the R studio. Besides the SEM method for quantitative data, this study also employs thematic analysis to identify the most frequent service quality indicator from the qualitative data.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Profile of respondents

Based on data obtained from 264 respondents, the majority of respondents were female (59.8%), the majority were 21-25 years old (50.75%), the majority lived in West Jakarta (21.96%), the majority worked (43.94%), the majority had range Rp1.000.000 – Rp5.000.000 in monthly salary (27.65%), the station majority was Bundaran HI station (28.4%). In addition, the majority were choice users (91.67%).

Exploratory factor analysis

Data were tested by validity using Rstudio. There is a function in Rstudio called “cor.test”. The Pearson (r) correlation measurement was used. This measurement is the most frequently used of many multivariate calculations. Values affect the coefficient, making the relationship stronger and normally distributed (Mukaka, 2012). After the validity test, the data will go through a reliability test used to measure the indicators of a latent construct to show how the indicators are interrelated. When it gives high reliability, it means a better relationship between a construct and indicators. According to Hair et al. (2009) the rating scale is the Cronbach's Alpha score.

Table 2 provides the final validity and reliability test result using R studio with 264 data of respondents which are the passengers of MRT Jakarta during the pandemic of COVID-19. The reliability of the samples was identified by using the overall Cronbach’s alpha (0.6-0.9) and found to be quite good (Hair et al., 2009).

Table 2. Results of explaratory factor analysis

Number	Items	Pearson Correlation	Cronbach’s Alpha
1	**Reliability**		**0.600**
RE1	Travel times on MRT are reasonable	0.716	
RE2	MRT mostly runs on schedule	0.657	
RE3	I am satisfied with the number of departures	0.599	
RE4	Ease to changeover to other modes (transfer) from MRT	0.549	
RE5	Payment method is easy	0.624	
2	**Safety and Security**		**0.753**
SS1	Presence of police and security guard	0.757	
SS2	Risk of interference from other passengers	0.890	
SS3	Personal safety	0.806	
3	**Information**		**0.774**
IF1	The information provided is good when traffic problems occur	0.833	
IF2	The information provided is good at stops and terminals	0.861	
IF3	The information provided is good on any other communication technologies	0.798	
4	**Comfort**		**0.730**
CF1	Traveling by MRT is comfortable	0.691	
CF2	I normally get a seat when I travel with MRT	0.582	
CF4	Convenience at MRT	0.548	
5	**Cost**		**0.609**
CS1	Public transport gives value for money	0.817	
CS2	Public transport fares are reasonable	0.881	
6	**Perceived Accessibility**		**0.900**
PAC1	Considering how I travel today it is easy to do my daily activities with MRT	0.790	
PAC2	Considering if MRT was the only mode of travel, I would able to live my life as I want to	0.892	
PAC3	Considering how I travel today I can do all activities I prefer with MRT	0.917	
PAC4	Access to my preferred activities is satisfying considering how I travel today with MRT	0.913	
7	**Satisfaction with Travel**		**0.788**
TS1	Cognitive Quality Evaluation	0.841	
TS2	Affective Evaluation of Feelings of Boredom vs. Enthusiasm	0.839	
TS3	Affective Evaluation of Feelings of Stress vs. Relaxation	0.843	

Structural Equation Model result

This study used a structural equation model (SEM), and was tested with R studio. The result was the appropriate model as shown in the Figure 4.

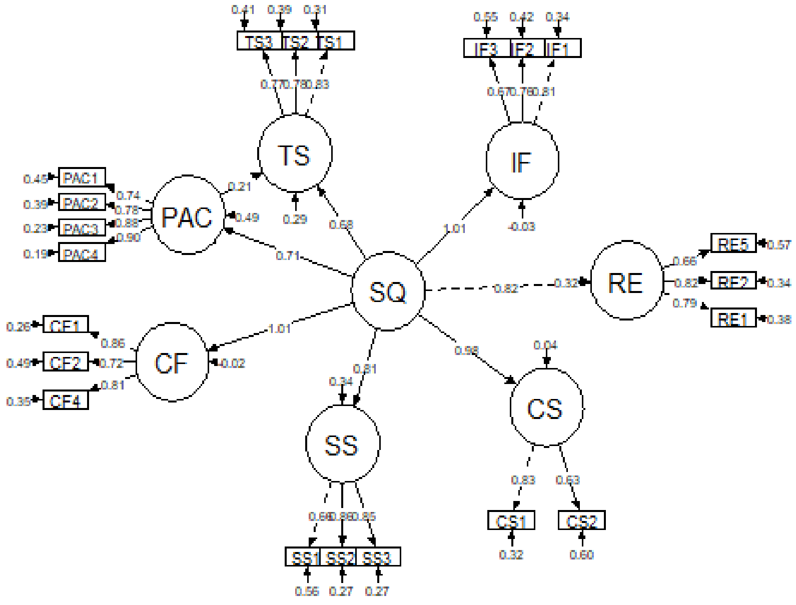

Figure 4. Structural model

The data used in this study are normally distributed after removing the outlier data from the Mahalanobis test for five iterations. Thus, the final data used in this study is 161 data out of the 264 original data. The measurement scale used in this study is the 7-point Likert Scale. This scale appears to be the optimum option for a questionnaire in usability, satisfaction survey, or evaluation (Finstad, 2010). According to Hair et al. (2009), standardized loading estimates should be at least 0.5 and ideally at least 0.7. Therefore, the second-order model was used to be combined with the full model. There is no standardized loading less than 0.5, so the analysis can be continued. The results of the confirmatory analysis are compared to the Goodness-of-Fit criteria, which indicates how effectively the proposed model creates the observed covariance matrix between items. It compares theory to reality, and the closer the values are to one other, the better.

It may be deduced from the test results that the model met the Goodness of Fit standards even though it has a high Chi-Square value. Since the Chi-Square value may be sensitive to the number of samples, as a result, if the Chi-Square value is significant, it is recommended to neglect it and focus on other Goodness of Fit criteria. Model called fit when the value of Goodness-of-Fit criteria has been fulfilled. Below the list of GoF criteria that must be fulfilled (Kassim et al., 2013; Kawesittisankhun and Pongpeng, 2019). Therefore, this model is fit based on the Goodness-of-Fit recommended criteria. The model modification passed for 17 iterations, i.e., 8 in second-order and 9 in the full model. Figure 4 describes how the structural model was modified based on the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) method to provide an acceptable model (fit).

Table 3. Evaluation of Goodness of Fit (GoF)

Criteria	Recommended	Observed	Results
Chi-square (χ^2) of estimated model		207.124, DF = 164	
Significance level	$p < 0.05$	0.013	fit
Normed Chi-square	$3.0 > (\chi^2)/DF > 1.0$	1.26	fit
RMSEA	< 0.08	0.040	fit
GFI	> 0.9	0.893	marginal fit
AGFI	> 0.9	0.850	marginal fit
TLI	> 0.9	0.977	fit
CFI	> 0.9	0.982	fit
IFI	> 0.9	0.982	fit

Table 4. Regression and defined parameters

Regressions							
		Estimate	Std.Err	Z-value	P(>|z|)	Std.lv	Std.all
PAC ~							
	SQ (c)	0.562	0.144	3.893	0.000	0.706	0.706
TS ~							
	SQ (a)	0.851	0.148	5.730	0.000	0.679	0.679
	PAC (b)	0.312	0.154	2.023	0.043	0.198	0.198
Defined Parameters							
medvar		0.175	0.082	2.138	0.033	0.140	0.140

In this research, there is a mediating variable which is the Perceived Accessibility Scale. It means perceived accessibility transmits the effect of service quality to increase satisfaction with travel. According to results in R studio, for every c = 0.706 unit increase in association between service quality and perceived accessibility, there was "medvar" = 0.140 increase in satisfaction with travel as shown in Table 4. SEM analysis provides the result of hypotheses testing. A standardized solution carried out the result in R studio. First, the null hypotheses are accepted and reject the alternative hypotheses with the p-value > 0.05 and z-score < 1.96. Then the null hypotheses are rejected and accept the alternative hypotheses with the p-value < 0.05 and z-score > 1.96. Table 5 provides two operations, regression and pointed-out. The "=~" is used to pointed-out the variable of the construct. In this case, service quality was built by five dimensions. The p-value of each variable with service quality is significant, and the z-score also has a great score. It means the sub-variables of service quality represent the service quality variable. Table 6 is the result of hypothesis checking.

Table 5. Standardized solution

lhs	op	rhs	est.std	se	z	pvalue	ci.lower	ci.upper
PAC	~	SQ	0.706	0.052	13.651	0.000	0.605	0.808
TS	~	SQ	0.679	0.080	8.526	0.000	0.523	0.835
TS	~	PAC	0.198	0.088	2.261	0.024	0.026	0.370
SQ	=~	RE	0.933	0.048	19.569	0.000	0.840	1.026
SQ	=~	SS	0.890	0.038	23.268	0.000	0.815	0.965
SQ	=~	IF	1.011	0.017	58.606	0.000	0.977	1.044
SQ	=~	CF	1.010	0.014	73.119	0.000	0.983	1.037
SQ	=~	CS	0.874	0.152	5.747	0.000	0.576	1/172

Table 6. Hypothesis testing result

Hypothesis	Path	Conclusion
H1	Service Quality → Satisfaction with Travel	Accepted
H2	Service Quality → Perceived Accessibility Scale	Accepted
H3	Perceived Accessibility Scale → Satisfaction with Travel	Accepted

Based on Table 5, the p-value and z-score between Service Quality (SQ) and Satisfaction with Travel (TS) are 0.000 and 8.526. According to the rule of thumb, this alternative hypothesis is accepted. The relationship has the second strongest relationship (0.679). Based on Table 5, the p-value and z-score between Service Quality (SQ) and Perceived Accessibility Scale (PAC) are 0.000 and 13.651. According to the rule of thumb, this alternative hypothesis is accepted. The relationship has the strongest relationship (0.706). Based on Table 4, the p-value and z-score between Perceived Accessibility Scale (PAC) and Satisfaction with Travel (TS) are 0.024 and 2.261 but have the weakest relationship (0.198). The p-value is less than 0.05, and the z-score is greater than 1.96. In this case, accept the alternative hypothesis.

Thematic Analysis Result

The thematic analysis uses RQDA (R Qualitative Data Analysis) as a software application to evaluate the qualitative data. In order to perform the RQDA, some packages should be installed in R studio, showing the RQDA GUI. After the installment, qualitative data can be transferred to RQDA using the txt file type. The qualitative data used in this research is the data that has a negative word such as critics. The codes were created and assigned to each of the sentences. The codes used were the service quality indicators because the questionnaire asks the respondent's opinion about service quality in MRT Jakarta during the pandemic of COVID-19. The codes also turned to be negative values. Visualization of the data should be generated in Rstudio, not in RQDA GUI (Graphical User Interface).The data visualization shows the frequency of the code of review from passengers of MRT Jakarta gathered by questionnaire. The most frequent indicator that given by respondents is SS1 about the presence of a security guard (Figure 5).

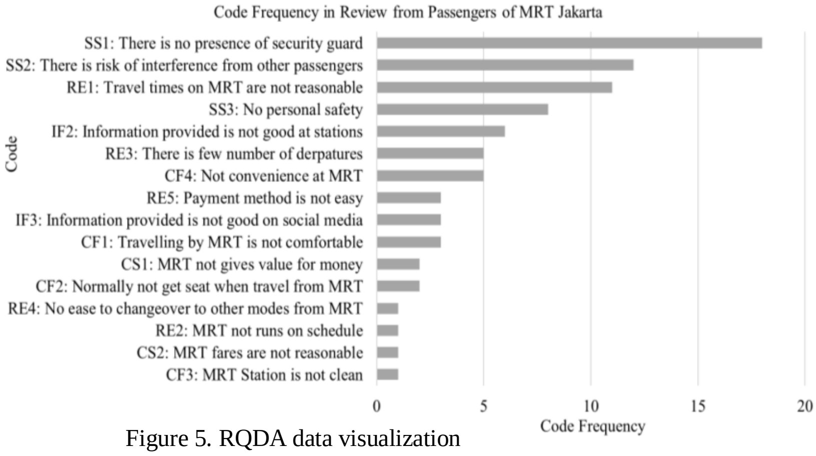

Figure 5. RQDA data visualization

DISCUSSION

The following discussion will examine the findings of a study on the impact of service quality on perceived accessibility and satisfaction with travel in MRT Jakarta.

The Effect of Service Quality on Satisfaction with Travel

The result of testing the H1 hypothesis indicates that service quality significantly affects satisfaction with travel. This result aligns with the research done by Shah et al. (2020), Soltanpour et al. (2020), Sze-Siong and Aksan (2018), and Monmousseau et al., 2020 that showed service quality significantly affects travel satisfaction. Therefore, service provided by the transport system should fulfil travel needs to reach satisfaction with travel. However, the object is different from the previous studies. In this study, the object is MRT Jakarta as the public transport whereas the other is airplane and urban rail. Therefore, it means the service quality in public transportation affects satisfaction with travel.

The Effect of Service Quality on Perceived Accessibility

Testing the H2 hypothesis indicates that service quality has a significant effect on perceiving accessibility scale. It aligns with the research done by Lättman et al. (2016b) and Friman et al. (2020) which showed that service quality appears to be positively related and important to perceived accessibility. The service quality dimensions used in this research are reliability, safety security, information, comfort, and cost, the same as the previous research. This may suggest that 161 respondents feel the service quality with these dimensions is related and directly affects perceived accessibility in the pandemic of COVID-19.

The Effect of Perceived Accessibility Scale on Satisfaction with Travel

Testing the H3 hypothesis indicates that perceived accessibility as a mediating variable significantly affects satisfaction with travel. In the previous study, Lättman et al. (2019) and Inturri et al. (2021) showed that perceived accessibility is related to satisfaction with travel. The perceived accessibility captures the individual’s experience related to social consequences towards the objective transportation environment. When the users perceive more accessible transportation, they feel it is easier to live the life they want. In the previous study, they used moderation for the age group. It founds that perceived accessibility is important for each segmentation of age for their satisfaction with travel.

Based on Figure 5, the qualitative data gathered from the reviews given from passengers to MRT Jakarta using the thematic analysis with the RQDA software. The data only used the negative value to provide further recommendations to service quality in MRT Jakarta. The most frequent code frequency from respondents’ review of MRT Jakarta is SS1 about the presence of security guards, followed by SS2 about the risk of interference from other passengers. The SS2 indicator talked about the presence of the guard and the behaviour presence of the guard. Many respondents said about the misbehaved of the guard in treating the passengers. In comparison, the SS1 talked about the lack of other passengers obeying health protocols, so they do not feel safe and secure. Several design strategies can be recommended based on the result obtained in this study. Policy measures should be formulated to improve the satisfaction level of the MRT Jakarta’s passengers. Various improvements are suggested in the following points related to service attributes such as:

a. Increase the security guard or staff officer for controlling health protocols at the station or inside the train.

b. The security guard or staff officers of MRT Jakarta should be friendly behavior towards passengers and still be assertive.
c. Fares and schedules information should be consistent.
d. The train should run on schedule, not too early or too late.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Structural equation model is a versatile method for evaluating and investigating how variables relate to one another. It involves measurement and structural models (Bauldry, 2015; Hair et al., 2009; Kassim et al., 2013). Based on the study results, the satisfaction with travel would increase if perceived accessibility is increasing by service quality. Based on the study results, the satisfaction with travel would increase if perceived accessibility is increasing by service quality.

The increase of perceived accessibility will make the users more accessible and easier to live their lives, leading to satisfaction with travel. Perceived accessibility as a mediating variable mediated service quality and satisfaction with travel. It means when the service quality gives effect to perceived accessibility, there is also an effect from perceived accessibility that affects satisfaction with travel. Thematic analysis is applied to examine classifications and display themes related to the data. The qualitative data processed with thematic analysis showed the most frequency quality concerned in MRT Jakarta is SS1 (Presence of Guard) and SS2 (Risk of Interference with Other Passengers).

This research can be used to determine, evaluate, and develop the service quality for the perceived accessibility and passenger's satisfaction in MRT Jakarta, especially during and after the COVID-19 pandemic. Also, it can be used for the following research and as a comparison for another research. In other words, variables and indicators can be added for more complex research. Especially the sub-dimensions of service quality to provide a comprehensive picture of which quality factors are crucial for satisfaction with travel and perceived accessibility. The COVID-19 variable may be used as moderating variable for the relationship between service quality, perceived accessibility, and travel satisfaction. More samples can also be added for future research for a better SEM analysis. More observations would give a more accurate fit for the model. The number of samples between the choice and captive users should be balanced.

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Article history: Received: 23.09.2021 Revised: 28.12.2021 Accepted: 27.01.2022 Available online: 21.02.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.200-209
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40124-820

THE GROWTH OF MEDICAL TOURISM AND THE IMPACTS ON LOCAL WELLBEING EQUALITY: A CASE OF THAILAND

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Citation: Syah, A.M., Deemod, K., Li, L.Y., & Rosman, A. (2022). THE GROWTH OF MEDICAL TOURISM AND THE IMPACTS ON LOCAL WELLBEING EQUALITY: A CASE OF THAILAND. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 200–209. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40124-820

Abstract: Within the Asia-Pacific region, the growth of medical tourism (MT) in Thailand has been gearing toward a monumental progress. Consequentially, the various research of its policy, strategy and service management have been explored and furthered. Contradictory, the study of local wellbeing equality over the MT has, unfortunately, been in hiatus. The objective of the study is to further the current premise of the literature, test, and prove; arguing that from Thai society's perspectives, the promising MT growth in the kingdom does not necessarily mean an equal establishment of the community's wellbeing. A quantitative methodology employed and linear regression by SPSS run. 0f 600 online and paper questionnaires distributed to Thai's medical doctors, resident doctors, medical students (senior year), and tourism scholars, 528 responses were attained. All four tested hypotheses on the perceived growth of Thailand's MT toward local community's unequal economic, social, healthcare, and environmental aspects, approved. That interprets the issue of policy isolation between MT's investment versus community's benefits.

Key words: Thailand's Medical Tourism, Medical Tourism Growth, Impact Assessment, Local Wellbeing, Equality

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INTRODUCTION

A Brief History of Medical Tourism in Thailand

Post the 70s, the rise of the medical tourism (MT) trend in Thailand had been exponential - thanks to a fit of emerging interests in Western countries regarding the travel access-friendly, reasonable rates of cosmetics, wellness treatment, facial rejuvenation, and other elective healing techniques which were not covered by healthcare coverage plans (Almeida García et al., 2015; Cohen et al., 1972; Connell, 2006b; Raggio et al., 2020). At the same time, the treatment availability of rhytidoplasty was at that time, of the mainstream's Thailand's MT's pull factors (Cohen et al., 1972), then, it extended to dental work and more extensive scope of medical treatments. Two vital sources of MT demand are: (1) a couple of developed countries wherein the great quality of medical services are restrictively costly or not promptly available like in down under country Australia, to Japan, United States until the United Kingdom; (2) on the other hand, the access was still fairly limited in the developing countries of Southeast Asia as well as the Middle East like Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates, Cambodia, Myanmar, or Bangladesh (Cohen, 2007). Furthermore, the vast numbers of demand were supported by some political enhancements at that point in time, and by two catastrophic occasions: The 9/11 terrorist tragedy, and Tsunami 2004 (Cohen, 2007). The 9/11 issues had made many Middle Easterners seek medical treatment in Thailand rather than the United States due to travel restrictions (Cohen, 2007; Connell, 2010). Meanwhile, the catastrophic Tsunami in 2004 had unexpectedly built the competitive edge of Thailand's MT. Since other developing countries' hospitals impacted by Tsunami endeavored to adapt to the high number of fatalities, Thailand acquired worldwide exposure for its medical agility, and unexpectedly receiving a surprising reputation outside the country which captivated outsiders to consider Thailand as a prominent destination for international healthcare hub (Cohen, 2007; Connell, 2010). Growing steady with promising healthcare treatments and services reputation, Cohen (2007) recalled the data; of 30% of the aggregate growth within the 2000s, with the record of the tourists visiting Thailand with an exclusive purpose of MT. This rate would have been logical as the medical treatment of Thailand's medical technology has constantly developed; with more medical centers

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providing bundling packages of medical treatment and leisure; extensive medical technology invested, as well as great support of Thailand's government under the campaign of" wellbeing hub" were all enacted within Thailand's government sound management (Cohen, 2008). The medical service's reputation in Thailand has sequentially been supported by different government-sponsored promotional campaigns; the most distinguished among them is the "Amazing Thailand" campaigns featuring "the attractions of spas, herbal products as well as hospitals" (Alberti et al., 2014; TAT, 2020; KPMG, 2018).

Current Standing and Growth of Medical Tourism in Thailand (2018 - 2020)

KPMG (2018) released Thailand's MT sector report on an initiative of global "Medical Hub" policy in the Kingdom. This initiative is being represented as the country's new engine of growth gearing both national healthcare development and its offers to all the world's patients. Additionally, "Medical Hub" is a regional catalyst targeting society development. The influence of Thailand's medical industry agility in formulating the pharmaceutical logistics and supply chain, the healthcare industry, and biotechnology to exercise the resilience of national economics and its competitiveness for the long-term plan, has been continuously praised (KPMG, 2018). As reported in the white paper of TIR (2020) and socialized by TAT (2020), the initiative gauged the plan of the Ministry of Public Health (MPH) 2016-2025 over Thailand's transformation into the first in the market to offer MT's attractiveness within four key five imperative points in support to MT in the kingdom: wellbeing, excellent healthcare support, advance-research-based medical treatments, as well as medical products. Thailand's MT is committed to offering a competitive edge, international standard of medical service, personalized services of medical staff, and a unique bundle of packages of medical and leisure services (Dang et al., 2020; TIR, 2020). MT demand outlooks, despite the unprecedented pandemic of COVID-19, have moved Thailand's government forward to concentrate investment outlooks in medical and wellness infrastructures. Meanwhile, the endeavor of Thailand's medical tourism promotion as a worldwide medical and wellness destination is fully administered by the Tourism Authority of Thailand in integration of Thailand's travel and tourism systems (TIR, 2020).

The fast-paced and attractive climate of investment in Thailand's international medical services are geared by Thailand's growth consistency in the holistic market share of the travel and tourism sector – not only within ASEAN regions but also globally. Thailand represents true hospitality services over world-class destination management support. The World Bank positions Thailand in the 21st rank among 190 nations under the category index of "Ease of Doing Business in 2020" - mirroring the country's favorable administrative environment for initiating local organizations (KPMG, 2018). Additionally, out of 160 countries, Thailand stands strong as the 32nd nation to perform outstanding "Logistic Performance Index" under the World Bank Criteria, leading almost head to head with Singapore in the ASEAN region (KPMG, 2018). With 370 non-public hospitals, up to 50 are certified by the Joint Commission International (JCI) a global standard, all of them are contemporarily upheld by Thailand's huge medical care industry, while there were additionally 18 JCI-licensed medical centers as of September 2019 (TIR, 2020) . This number is more prominent than some other ASEAN members and fourth-most elevated around the globe (KPMG, 2018). In addition, Thailand's overall medical services network comprises up to 25,000 health facilities, 1,000 public hospitals, 50,000 physicians, and over 10,000 clinics (TIR, 2020)

Table 1. Major Hospital Groups of Thailand's Medical Tourism Industry 2017 (Source: Bangkok Chain Hospital (2017), Bangkok Dusit Medical (2017), Udomvej (2018) – modified from Kaewkamol & Lim (2021))

Hospital or Group Name	Ownership Structure	Capacity (beds)	Market Capitalization (in US$)
Bangkok Chain	Harnphanich Family (Thailand, 50%); Free Float (38%); Others (12%)	2,178	1,211
Bangkok Dusit Medical	Prasarttong-Osoth Family (Thailand, 22%); Free Float (47%); Others (31%)	8,015	10,096
Bumrungrad	Bangkok Bank Public Company Limited (Thailand, 32%); Free Float (40%); Others (28%)	580	4,452
Chularat	Plussind Family (Thailand, 26%); Free Float (38%); Others (36%)	830	696
Siriraj Piyamaharajkarun	State-Owned (Thailand, 100%	344	N/A

Regarding the growth of MT, the International Healthcare Research Center (IHRC) reported by KPMG (2018) and TIR (2020) shows that it is anticipated to grow 14% annually, with 12% inbound tourists. From an economic development standpoint, the rising wage is potentially leading to a more middle-class economy and affecting their domestic spending especially on a health and cosmetic basis due to the hard pressure of day-to-day work and stress level. As KPMG (2018) added, the Medical Tourism Index (MTI) led by the IHRC, Thailand was ranked 18th to be the most predominant medical tourism destination in 2016, whose industry dominates the top 6 of Thailand' service growth. Thailand is enjoying the reputation to be the number 13th of international-standard facilities and services, along with destination attractiveness index that falls under 27th rank worldwide, and with steady tourist arrival of 25 million for medical and wellness tourism alone as of 2016 (TIR, 2020).

Statement of Problem

Despite prominent global recognition and promising growth, the discourse of Thailand's MT over local community wellbeing and its imperative on socio-economic and political equality have been lingering for over a decade without any further studies. Whilst, the most current one from Kaewkamol and Lim (2021) distinctively explored the MT shareholders and policy makers perspectives instead. The post study of (Cohen, 2008; Connell, 2010; Noree et al., 2016; Pocock and Phua, 2011), marked a generic, rather embedded thesis over inequality on Thailand's MT ecosystem (e.g. doctor migration problem, domination of private hospitals, the growth of inequity in the urban-rural divine the gap in healthcare cost).

Whilst, other most current literature are mainly offering frameworks on MT's desired attributed for healthcare services (Wongkit and McKercher, 2016) determinants and influencing factors of MT destination (Zarei et al., 2018), theoretical model of travel motivation, perceived risks and mobility barriers over MT destination image (Khan et al., 2017) and medical marketing in Asia (Zarei and Maleki, 2019). Hence, due to previous studies that are rather specific and over a concerning literature span interval, this study would endeavor to propose a literature novelty over the status quo of Thailand's MT growth over community inequality - and would particularly assess economic, social, healthcare, and environmental factors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theory of Medical Tourism

MT is said to have been exposed recently, also known to be a late 20th century phenomenon. However, the numerical data found on MT is unreliable and not sufficient to utilize since they depend on industry optimism and boosterism instead of the rigorous study (Hopkins et al., 2010; Johnston et al., 2010). With regards to medical care, traveling has been long existed and destination such as Harley Street, London has been known as a famous international center of medical care until the impact of "reverse globalization" took place just two decades ago which brought about developed countries' patients making their ways to developing countries for medical care because of homeland's high cost for treatment, accessibility, service, and also quality issues (Connell, 2013). People do tend to perceive MT as a means of traveling overseas - getting medical check-ups as well as having a chance to fulfil one's physical and mental needs and wants (Connell, 2013). From a niche industry-wise, MT took place when patients travel overseas to receive medical, dental, and surgical treatment, while also spending time on their holiday at their respective destinations - hence, it is categorized as travel and tourism activity (Connell, 2006a). Some scholars suggest the main goal of going on MT, as it has in a constant search to separate "medical tourism" from "health tourism" is focusing toward "the performance, low-key, therapeutic, as well as non-invasive method" (Connell, 2010, 2013). It is a traveling process that might bring about medical acts such as allowing dental activities and check-ups (Connell, 2013). Whereas Johnston et al. (2010) indicate the MT where patients traveling to another country beyond the authorized jurisdiction, with treatment is intended toward medical support and care, particularly aimed for the surgeries.

Thompson (2008, 2011) differentiates medical tourists as "qualified biosocial citizens" opposed to "medical migrants", whose names are rightly regulated through institutions on behalf of making personal decisions. Although the word "migrant" can be argued to be logical as (Glinos et al., 2010) emphasize that MT is the act of patients who seek healthcare abroad due to the limited quality of their own national healthcare system. Thus, in a more medical term, medical tourists may be considered as patient consumers – where it is deemed as an economic activity between two sectors in a service term. e.g. medical tourism = medicine + tourism (Bookman and Bookman, 2007; Connell, 2013). The Europe's case study explained the finding on the pull factor of patients' motivation towards outside borders medical treatment that are based by "availability, affordability, familiarity, and perceived quality" of MT's destinations (Connell, 2013: 2). Simply put, it is surprisingly unusual to point out that other than in nomenclature, tourism has not been formally discussed of international medical travel" (Connell, 2010, 2011; Laugesen and Vargas-Bustamante, 2010). Another claim, a vacation with traveling abroad to obtain medical services, should include relaxation activities (Connell, 2006b; Heung et al., 2010). Most recently, Cham et al. (2020), Raggio et al. (2020) and Zarei et al. (2018) mentioned the potential pull factors of MT as an emergent niche industry, from several different analysis such as better service quality, various leisure offers and budlings, value of money, and medical legal systems. While Cham et al. (2020) explored the generic premise of MT as an overarching offer of healthcare capped with tourism services like beach visit, wellness experience, and/or religious retreat, Zarei et al. (2018) touched the core attarctive factor of MT as an avenue for an individuals to seek legal procedure of physical sexual indentity changes whereby the home country's laws may hinder. Closely related to Zarei's study, the MT's emphasis of Raggio et al. (2020) is no longer the idea of foreign traveller seeking medical treatment in the MT's providing countries. Rather, enabling discussion on how possible legal dispute on medical treatement of facila rejuvenation (cosmetic surgery) understood.

The Manifestation of the Competitive Advantage Framework on Medical Tourism Growth Analysis

Izadi et al. (2012) reflect on the competitive advantage framework in defining the competitive edge indicators for MT-growth's policy analysis in Iranian business landscape. They mapped generic MT's competitive advantage and its relationship based on two distinctive mutual sequencing: (1) factors causing competitive advantage that include function excellence, quality excellence, customer response excellence and innovation; (2) relationship between factors causing competitive advantage that highlights critical factors of unique resources and capabilities under distinct competence criteria such as affordability, excellent service performance, accredited quality, and responsiveness to tourists (Izadi et al., 2012).

As Izadi et al., (2012) extend their framework, they came up with five competitive underpinning for MT growth basing value resources (e.g. MT physical, research, medical specialty supports), capabilities (e.g. advanced services in various surgeries), distinct competencies (e.g. specific pull factors of MT in Iran such as affordability, travel attraction, and culture), particular advantages (e.g. geographical location) and drawbacks (barriers of MT growth in Iran). Consequently, this published competitive advantage framework proposed by Izadi et al. (2012) is complicated, reconceptualized, and adjusted to accommodate the narrative framing of perceived growth of MT in Thailand context (independent variables).

The Impacts of Medical Tourism on Local Communities

Throughout the whole published research papers regarding all types of tourism, MT is still over the discourse in terms of its impacts towards the quality of life of the local community (Kim et al., 2015). It can be said quality of life is a complicated concept, consisting of multidimensional, environmental and inter-active domains that cover the aspect of lives and the environment in certain ways (Sirgy et al., 2000). Thus, when the local people and their social, economic, and environmental aspects change, their perceptions of the community would also change. Previous researches have shown that tourism brings about benefits and costs towards a community, and it has both positively and negatively influenced a community's quality of life (Almeida García et al., 2015; Bramwell and Lane, 1993; Haywood, 1988; Johnson et al., 1994; Lawrence et al., 1988; Liu et al., 1987; Liu and Var, 1986; Mccool and Martin, 1994; Pearce, 2009; Perdue et al., 1990; Sharpley, 2000; Suess et al., 2018; Kaewkamol and Lim, 2021). Some studies have investigated community well-being regarding the local community's assessment on the impacts of tourism (McCabe and Johnson, 2013). Weaver and Lawton (2001) explain that the states of wellbeing within the community involve living experiences and living satisfaction in a community. Whist, Hansruedi (1994) urges to address the subjective wellbeing of local residents. Correspondingly, Uysal et al. (2016) points out that local community subjective wellbeing is a significant aspect of both emotional and physiological experiences which the local or national tourism planner should take into account within their implementation agenda. Thus, the subjective wellbeing of local residents should be priorities for the community's quality of life and partnering with living experiences and community satisfaction by practicing tourism towards the community (Uysal et al., 2016). Holistically within general tourism's impact studies toward the quality of life of a local community, the approved measurement indicators of impacts range from (1) economic and healthcare impacts such as the quality of local community infrastructure for healthcare facilities and standard of living; (2) social development measurement over the equal provision of public service supports as well as a social network establishment; (3) environmental aspects range from the conserved natural resources over the growth of mainstream tourism, and control of country/regional's pollutions due to tourism; (4) healthy culture and political impacts can be measured by the landscape quality of local community area, preservation of local culture, cultural confidence, physical amenities, as well as local community protection from foreign cultural impacts; (5) specific local community wellbeing ranges from high-standard of good living experience over tourism growth as well as local community satisfaction toward the government (Andereck and Nyaupane, 2011; Chuck et al., 1985; Clare and Var, 2002; Filkins et al., 2000; Goudy, 1990; Grzeskowiak et al., 2003; Hansruedi, 1994; Kasarda and Janowitz, 1974; McGehee and Andereck, 2004; Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2012; Sirgy et al., 2000; Sirgy and Cornwell, 2001; Suess et al., 2018; Weaver, 2005). Even though Kuvan and Akan (2005) noted that local communities who are economically breathing from the tourism growth perceived merely positive impacts, the studies of negative impacts from tourism development, especially medical tourism, could not emphasize more concerns and further discourses (Connell, 2013; Suess et al., 2018). From the literature reviews, the authors found out the novelty in the study of Thailand's niche MT industry growth toward the assessment of equality on local community's well-being – which in the Thailand context, has not yet been systematically examined by the scholarly research. Notably, the study rigorously explores and seeks out the unresolved facts of the true medical tourism's impacts being testified by hands on of Thai' medical doctors, resident doctors, medical students (senior year), and tourism scholars within the Kingdom.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Hypothesis

Based on the robust underpinnings from the literature reviews on MT competitiveness and growth factors, as well as the aspects of local community's impacts over MT sector, the research constructs the hypotheses where independent variables are the perceived growth of medical tourism in Thailand, and dependent variables are inequalities on economic, social, healthcare, and environment (illustrated in Table 1). Nonetheless to say, within the dependent variables, the political impact as resonated by Suess et al. (2018) is not exercised in respective manner as the political support ideas to the local community have been embedded comprehensively in the economic, social, and environmental concern areas.

H1: The perceived growth of medical tourism in Thailand has not been fully contributing to the healthcare equality of the Thai local community

H2: The perceived growth of medical tourism in Thailand has not been fully contributing to the economic equality of the Thai local community

H3: The perceived growth of medical tourism in Thailand has not been fully contributing to the social equality of the Thai local community

H4: The perceived growth of medical tourism in Thailand has not been fully contributing to the environmental equality in the Thai local community

Sampling and Data Collection

This research employed quantitative methodology where primary data gathered from the respondents by questionnaire. From October 2020 until April 2021, of 600 online and paper questionnaires distributed and 528 responses were successfully returned, making it 88% of the response rate. The primary data is gathered from first-hand sources of Thai's medical doctors, resident doctors, medical students (senior year), and tourism scholars, in order to fully reflect the accuracy of the issue and maximize the quality of the responses (Aldiabat and Navenec, 2018). Non-probability sampling technique (purposive sampling) is employed to reach the targeted respondents effectively. The questionnaires are divided into 3 different sections: (1) Demographic profile; (2) Perceived Growth of Medical Tourism in Thailand (3) Impact assessments of Thailand's medical tourism toward local wellbeing equality focusing on economic, social, healthcare, and environmental impacts. Of questionnaires 2 and 3, 5-point Likert scale (1 "strongly disagree" and 5 "strongly agree") employed.

Data Analysis

The data were processed by SPSS software where descriptive statistics of demographic profile, exploratory factor analysis of questionnaire variables, and linear regression analysis of the hypothesis were tested. The Cronbach's α was also run. According to Zikmund et al. (2010), the Alpha 0.7 works as an accurate guide (rule of thumb) to indicate internal reliability's acceptable level. The reliability test was run to examine if the data and the construct are reliable. The table shows that Cronbach's α is higher than 0.6 for all variables. The alpha 0.6 is considered as fair reliability, and the higher alpha is considered better reliability. To ensure the holistic frameworks' reliability, Cronbach's α was run both for questionnaire items of independent and dependent variables.

Research Framework

Self-developed questionnaire was developed and was subjected to back-to-back reviews of ten assigned experts to validate accurate indicators of MT's growth factors, and to avoid ambiguity in wordings. Four of the experts are Thai's medical doctors, three tourism policy professors in Thailand, and three tourism management professors from the United States. Upon completion of the first round of survey validations, fifty questionnaires were distributed for pilot study in September 2020. Minor feedback from respondents were attained and final expert evaluations undertaken.

Table 2. Framework and Cronbach's Alpha (Reliability) (Source: Authors)

Independent Variables	**Questionnaire items**	**Cronbach's α**
Perceived Growth of Medical Tourism	Thailand has valuable resources for MT (e.g. international-standard laboratory; specialist in dentistry, cardiology, and cosmetics treatment; various sub-specialist of medical faculty and research centers; and integrated leisure supports)	.733
	Thailand has great capabilities for MT (e.g. continuous global recognition and accreditation in most advanced surgeries with committed policy of anti-medical malpractice)	.735
	Thailand has distinct competencies for MT (e.g. low-cost medical fee recognition with qualified doctors; English proficiency; welcoming Asian culture; beautiful tourist destinations; and excellent hospitality services and bundles)	.748
	Thailand has particular advantages for MT (e.g. strategic geographical advantages; leading global tourism hub; high demand of MT from neighboring countries; high number of expatriates)	.621
	Thailand government support on MT is exceptional (e.g. exceptional national budget for healthcare sector; great incentive policy for MT; investments on innovation, advanced medical technology, hospital facilities, accommodation and destination facilities, logistics infrastructure, and R&D; exceptional budget for international MT promotion and marketing; VISA and tourist safety)	.731
Dependent Variables	**Questionnaire items**	**Cronbach's α**
Economic Inequality	Lack of equal establishment of community infrastructures	.639
	Not better off standard of living	.657
	Not better off employment opportunity	.846
	More monopoly of private hospital over public hospital	.732
	More income disparity between private medical worker and public medical worker	.733
Social Inequality	Lack of equal healthcare's service provider provision between medical tourism providing cities and community areas	.775
	Lack of equal community's social service support provision (e.g. mental support, depression, physical illness, smoking & alcohol abuse)	.780
	Lack of social inclusion in affordable/subsidized medical education access to all citizens	.621
	Lack of social participation in the medical tourism investment decision making	.831
Healthcare Inequality	Lack of equal provision on more advanced, speedier, and affordable healthcare treatment for the community	.733
	Lack of equal provision on skilled doctor both in the medical tourism providing cities and community areas	.855
	Lack of good control of the significant risk of bacterial travel and communicable disease from medical tourist to the community	.758
	Mortality rates in underdeveloped community towns are still overwhelming	.633
Environmental Inequality	Insufficient availability of community's landscapes and green spaces including public parks and safety pedestrian	.862
	Lack of good control of significant air pollution due to congestion of medical tourism transports	.734
	Lack of good control of significant noise pollution due to congestion of medical tourism transports	.634
	Lack of good control of the significant impact of medical's solid-toxic waste	.739
	Lack of good control of the significant impact of the community's water supply due to the growth of wellness facilities such as hotels, spas, swimming pools	.740

RESULT

The demographic data on gender comprises 36% male and 64% female. The age group of the respondents from 20-25 years old accounted for 34%, 26-30 years old at 3%, and the >30-year at 62%. The majority of the respondents are medical doctors at 54%, followed by medical students (senior year) at 19%, resident doctors at 17%, and tourism scholars at 10%. Whilst, 38% of the respondent population coming from North of Thailand, South of Thailand accounted for 7% followed by 5%, 8%, 8%, and 34% for East, West, Northeast, and Central of Thailand respectively. Over 95% confidence level, the linear regression results show statistical significance of respective dependent variables (economic inequality, social inequality, healthcare inequality & environmental inequality) at .000. that interpret

Table 3. Demographic Profile

Gender	**N**	**%**	**Respondent Group**	**N**	**%**
Male	190	36	Medical Doctor	287	54
Female	338	64	Resident Doctor	92	17
Other	0	0	Medical Student (Senior-Year)	98	19
Total	**528**	**100**	Tourism Scholar	51	10
Age	**N**	**%**	**Total**	**528**	**100**
20 - 25	182	34.5	**Respondent Origin**	**N**	**%**
26 - 30	18	3.4	North of Thailand	201	38
>30	328	62.1	South of Thailand	38	7
Total	**528**	**100**	East of Thailand	28	5
			West of Thailand	40	8
			Northeast of Thailand	41	8
			Central of Thailand	180	34
			Total	**528**	**100**

the approval of all constructed hypotheses (illustrated in Table 3, 5, 7 and 9). Whilst, the results of adjusted R-squared of .866 (or 87%), .864 (or 86%), .809 (or 81%), and .890 (or 89%) indicate a strong value of predictor variables toward dependent variables on respective economic, social, healthcare, and environmental inequality testing.

Table 4. Hypothetical Testing Result 1 (Source: Authors)

Coefficients									Model Summary		
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		R-Square	Adjusted R-Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
1	(Constant)	-.160	.356		-.449	.653	-.859	.539	.866	.866	.686
	Perceived Medical Tourism Growth	.932	.016	.931	58.279	.000	.901	.964			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived Medical Tourism Growth
b. Dependent Variable: Economic Inequality

Table 5. Hypothetical Testing Result 2 (Source: Authors)

Coefficients									Model Summary		
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		R-Square	Adjusted R-Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
1	(Constant)	-1.412	.328		-4.305	.000	-2.056	-.768	.864	.864	.632
	Perceived Medical Tourism Growth	.853	.015	.930	57.868	.000	.824	.882			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived Medical Tourism Growth
b. Dependent Variable: Social Inequality

Table 6. Hypothetical Testing Result 3 (Source: Authors)

Coefficients									Model Summary		
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		R-Square	Adjusted R-Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
1	(Constant)	-.459	.371		-1.238	.216	-1.189	.270	.809	.809	.715
	Perceived Medical Tourism Growth	.788	.017	.900	47.230	.000	.755	.821			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived Medical Tourism Growth
b. Dependent Variable: Healthcare Inequality

Table 7. Hypothetical Testing Result 4 (Source: Authors)

Coefficients									Model Summary		
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		R-Square	Adjusted R-Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
1	(Constant)	-9.430	.425		-22.206	.000	-10.264	-8.596	.890	.890	.819
	Perceived Medical Tourism Growth	1.247	.019	.944	65.344	.000	1.210	1.285			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived Medical Tourism Growth
b. Dependent Variable: Environmental Inequality

DISCUSSION

The result of the study, notably within the inequality measurement criteria of healthcare policy for local people, explains that the absence of Thai's local wellbeing equality is believed to be associated with previous MT's statement of the problem in Thailand from Almeida García et al. (2015); Chongsuvivatwong et al. (2011); Cohen (2008); Connell (2006a, 2011). They argued that despite the specific impacted indicators were not identified in the research, it was proven that in general concern, the extensive investment in the private medical centers towards foreign customers, as well as upgrading the medical care facilities that come with more expensive medical fees, have been impacting a specific group of Thai's local patients. As Almeida García et al. (2015); Chongsuvivatwong et al. (2011); Cohen (2008); Connell (2011); Lauridsen (2009) added, middle-class Thais, who would prefer not to depend on the 30-Baht scheme (the affordable medical support program from the Thailand government) as they perceive it to be less appreciated in terms of medical service treatment, found private hospitals to be extremely expensive - so there a huge buying power gap hinders. The issue has validated the real phenomenon of healthcare inequality where equal provision on more advanced, speedier, and affordable health support is still far from being balanced.

Furthermore, a closely related problem that resonates the finding in the healthcare altogether with economic equality issues is that; there is a term “brain drain” that has been attracted more excelled health professionals as well as medical staff from public hospitals to the private ones - as private hospitals would offer them higher incomes and better working conditions (Cohen, 2008; Connell, 2011; Suess et al., 2018). The phenomenon of migrating doctors and professional healthcare is escalating due to the competing interests of the Thaksin government’s health policy. One among the vital outcomes of the 30-Baht scheme has been the growing demand for governmental hospital services as local people are keen to utilize the healthcare benefits (Cohen, 2007; Cohen et al., 1972). To put the issue into the Thai’s local economic inequality perspective, the current provision and service quality gap between private and public hospitals in Thailand has been mostly geared by the state’s endeavors in order to advance Thailand’s MT as a "wellbeing hub," and energize the development of international medical treatment destinations. The effort has successfully opened up economic opportunities for doctors and other medical staff. However, the consequences are unbearable. A significant number of the local doctors and medical professionals leave in pursuit of "better compensation and working conditions in private hospitals" - leaving skilled doctors outside of MT’s destinations unequal; let alone the income disparity issues (Cohen, 2008; Connell, 2010). In contrast, public hospitals are under-financed for more advanced technologies while being understaffed at the same time. This condition has made the public hospitals inadequately set up to manage the services toward the constant medical demands (Cohen, 2008). Hence, as the study looks back to the hypothesis on healthcare and economic impacts, it is without surprise, that the finding indicated strong agreements and proved the thesis. Within a local’ social sphere, aggravating at the same time, the current inequality in the medical business sphere among suburb and metropolitan regions, and versus the services offered to the wealthy and the less fortunate layers of Thai society has led to the never-ending vicious cycle of social inequality (Chongsuvivatwong et al., 2011; Connell, 2010; Mudur, 2004; Lauridsen, 2009). Strictly speaking, the investment in pharmaceutical and medical technologies, medical education as well as healthcare facilitators; regardless of whether the investments are primarily expected solely for MT or helps encourage the productions of Thai medicines, the obsessive medical infrastructure allocation by the Thailand government in order to carry foreign expenditures to Thai hospitals is inevitably sucking an equally affordable medical-care away from Thai locals (Chongsuvivatwong et al., 2011; Cohen, 2008; Cohen et al., 1972). From general economic growth figures, with the biggest growth weight much heavily in Bangkok, the Northeast region of Thailand is receiving the growth gap consequences. With Bangkok's gross regional product of over 8.3 times higher than the Northeast in 2004 alone, the unequal social condition is inevitable. Consequently, despite perceived good growth of Thai’s MT, the respondents’ agreement on local’s equal healthcare's service provider provision, and equal community's social service support provision are reflecting dissatisfaction.

From environmental assessment, the perceived growth of Thailand’s tourism and the niche MT has validated strong agreements toward unequal policy impacts of local’s environmental degradation (Alberti et al., 2014; Dang et al., 2020; Syah et al., 2021). The impact examination has never been so novel, and this research, has, in its capacity, underscoring the policy evidence of MT’s focus on the environment. “This (tourism impact on the environment) is an important issue - especially for developing countries where economic conditions are relatively dependent on natural resources and the environment - since, in reality, where tourism revenues are concerned, economic and environmental factors are opposite sides of a coin” (Wattanakuljarus, 2006: 5). As Wattanakuljarus (2006) extended, Thailand’s service industry like MT relies heavily on land, forest, and piped water. Unfortunately to date, the politics on the management and national, or regional supply of water is still sparking sound conflicts of unfair land use and deterioration of green areas like forest and community landscapes (Wattanakuljarus, 2006) – the case is presumed to intolerantly impacting locals without political privileges and minimal access to environmental policy discourses (Syah et al., 2021). More severely on the water issue, “conflicts in water allocation are so serious that Thailand could face a water crisis in the near future unless water management and allocation are better managed” (Wattanakuljarus, 2006: 2). Tourism including MT are estimated to consume 300 liters/individual/day with up to 1,000 liters/guest/day for most upscale hotels (Wattanakuljarus, 2006). Eventually, despite a challenging search of literature reviews on Thailand’s MT impact toward air, noise, as well as medical solid-toxic waste, the statistical significance from the overall framework of environmental impacts on the Thai’s the local community has generalized an understanding that the environmental externalities of MT in Thailand are yet to be prioritized.

Table 8. Hypothesis Summary (Source: Authors)

H 1	The perceived growth of medical tourism in Thailand has not been fully contributing to the healthcare equality of the Thai local community	Accep-ted
H 2	The perceived growth of medical tourism in Thailand has not been fully contributing to the economic equality of the Thai local community	Accep-ted
H 3	The perceived growth of medical tourism in Thailand has not been fully contributing to the social equality of the Thai local community	Accep-ted
H 4	The perceived growth of medical tourism in Thailand has not been fully contributing to the environmental equality in the Thai local community	Accep-ted

Table 9. Resolution Coined at the 3rd National Health Assembly (Source: NHC, 2017a; Modified from Kaewkamol and Lim, 2021)

Resolution 1	Overcoming crisis of injustice for the wellbeing of Thai society together
Resolution 2	Control of food marketing strategy for infants and young children
Resolution 3	Fairness in access to health services by the disabled
Resolution 4	Solving the problem of unplanned pregnancy in Thai teenagers
Resolution 5	Measures to make Thai society free from asbestos
Resolution 6	Measures on health risk factors particular on tobacco control
Resolution 7	Policies to support self-management areas for social wellbeing
Resolution 8	Medical hub
Resolution 9	Protection of well-being and society from the impacts of free trade

CONCLUSION

The equality issue on local growth over the extensive spur of MT in Thailand has always been a major concern (Cohen, 2008). Yet, the studies of Thailand's MT’s impact toward local wellbeing are still lacking. Hence, with a more systematic and comprehensive approach over economic, social, healthcare and environmental aspects, this research has proved the thesis statement and successfully furthered the examination of these perceived unequal impacts on Thai's local community. When the perceived growth of MT's in Thailand is understood to reflect positively on the overall's success of government economic initiatives, the impacts towards equal industry's benefits provision on economic, social, healthcare, and environment are still deemed contradicting - resulting in an understanding of negative externalities of MT development towards local wellbeing. All four hypotheses were approved. And that being said, even after a long hiatus from previous study on MT versus socio-economic equality (Cohen, 2008; Connell, 2010; Noree et al., 2016; Pocock and Phua, 2011), this new study interprets a conservative, rather static of the implementations of Thai's MT sound policy and integrated business strategy that are geared solely towards the support of specific, direct industry's beneficiaries. Where the wellbeing supports of stakeholders like Thai's local community are not yet to be fully identified over the MT's policy agenda. In other words, the issues of developmental policy isolation between MT's investments versus community benefits are still up in the air. In addition to the facts stated in the discussion section of this study, to put the approval of hypothesis into a perspective of Thailand's MT's governance, the phenomenon of perceived inequality can be straightforwardly associated by the argument of Thailand's ineffective, and less inclusive policy transfer (Syah et al., 2021). This particular policy approach has maintained the status quo of a bottleneck and bureaucratic overarching socio-economic discourses within the non-elite communities in the Kingdom of Thailand. In contrast, however, MT's strategic plan per se, being proposed by Thailand's National Health Commission in 2017 (Table 9), exhibits an impressive, such a firm integration between the MT's vast investment and flourishing, well-deployed, and blanketed community's socio-economic, and security empowerement. In fact, the commission being formed during Thailand's National Health Act in 2007 was lawfully set under the article of 13.1 and 13.2 whereby the prime minister and minister of public health voted as chair and vice-chair respectively – with inclusive member of board advisiors" (Kaewkamol and Lim, 2021, p. 10; NHC, 2017b), has set Thailand's MT apart, as one of the most prominent governances (Figure 1).

Of course, the narrative of this research finding can be resonated with the assumption of Thai's community overall dissatisfactions on their government political slants (ongoing people demands on a more transparent government, supremacy of democracy, monarchy constitutional laws review) – in fact, there is a huge room for that argument. However, in this very case, what the study can see is merely tied by the exisiting literature which uncovered the issues, in a direct manner, between MT's investment and Thai's citizen wellbeing. In another occasion, nevertheless, the relationship study of MT's investment versus local wellbeing, mediated by a mere political point of view, can be conceptualized. Hence to bring back the focus, the inevitable power gap between the elites and commoners (in this research:

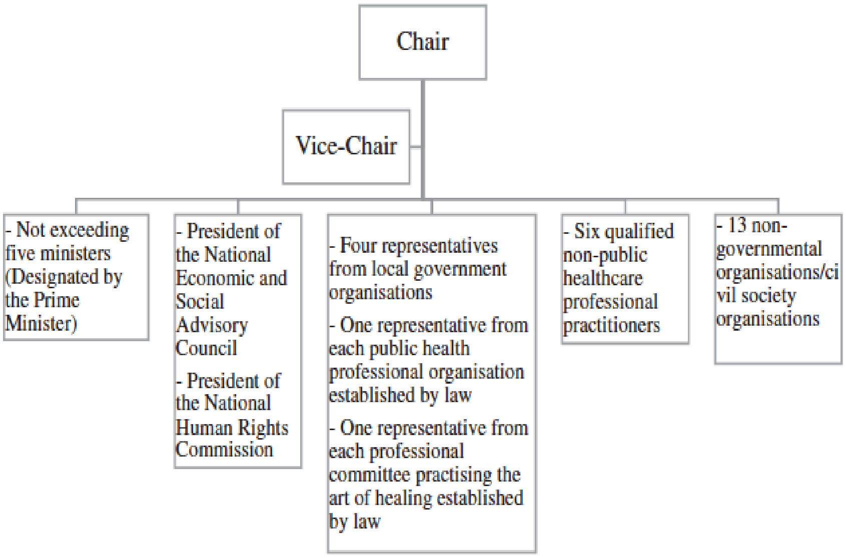

Figure 1. Organization Chart of National Health Comission
(Source: NHC, 2017b; Kaewkamol and Lim, 2021)

Thai's medical doctors, resident doctors, medical students (senior year), and tourism scholars), has resulted in a big governance question as to how the unsolved alienation of Thailand's exclusive policy transfer over an efficacious governance of transparency and participation for Thai's local community can be all altered. Overall with the capacity of this study, this research is opening a clearer, more guided map for the furtherment of MT research over democratized social policy, political economy, environmental impacts, social and economic network management, and bottom-up business policy communications frameworks, to say the least.

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Article history: Received: 23.09.2021 Revised: 16.12.2021 Accepted: 28.01.2022 Available online: 23.02.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.210-217
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40125-821

DIRECTIONS FOR MANAGEMENT IN SMALL AND MEDIUM HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS COMPANIES

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Citation: Lucas, A., & Ramires, A. (2022). DIRECTIONS FOR MANAGEMENT IN SMALL AND MEDIUM HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS COMPANIES. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 210–217. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40125-821

Abstract: The primary goal is to validate if there is a relationship between liquidity and economic profitability in hotels and restaurants sectors, in small and medium companies (SMCs). The question to be answered is whether the short-term view will not compromise the future results of those companies. After a literature review, hotels and restaurants financial ratios were analysed over 5 years. Data were also treated using linear regression, to understand if there is a relation between liquidity and economic profitability. All the financial information was obtained from the SABI database. According to the studied literature, it was not expected to have any relationship between liquidity and economic profitability. The study consists of the Portuguese context in the latest 5 years period before COVID-19, in the hotels and restaurants sector, and it does validate those previous studies. Indeed, findings show no relationship between both ratios. Findings show to hotels and restaurants managers that liquidity-based management does not necessarily lead to future economic profitability. Even if liquidity is necessary for accurate short-term management, it shall not be used to guide them in the decision-making process concerning economic profitability. The results obtained are of enormous importance to both practitioners and academics. Managers must understand that they must take into account the need for liquidity in a short-term vision, but they must also understand that this fact alone is not a guarantee of good profitability in a long-term vision. The results in the empirical study also help to reinforce the inexistence of a relationship between the liquidity ratio and the economic profitability ratio in the literature.

Key words: economic profitability, hotels management, liquidity ratio, Portugal, restaurants management

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism is an important source of income for all 28 countries in Europe. The weight that these revenues represent in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of each country is variable. In Portugal, tourism revenues in 2019 accounted for around 8.5% of GDP, and it has been growing steadily in recent years, before the COVID-19 pandemic (FFMS, 2020a). Employment in the tourism sector, in that year, represented 6.5% of employment in the national economy (Turismo de Portugal, 2020).The weight of tourism revenues in GDP reflects the importance that this sector has for the economy of a country. Two of the sectors that directly influence this weight of tourism revenues are restaurants and accommodation. The management of these business units has suffered a severe setback since the beginning of the global pandemic due to COVID-19, which has led to drastic reductions in the profitability of companies in those sectors. Also, the main Portuguese business structure is of small and medium companies (SMCs), and these sectors are no exception. One of the characteristics of these companies is the fact that the operational management is mostly based on the analysis of liquidity (Atrill and McLaney, 2019; Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Nikolaos et al., 2020), instead of the accounting results. The main objective of this article is to validate, or not, the relationship between liquidity and economic profitability (Atrill and McLaney, 2019; Bordeianu and Radu, 2020) in each of these sectors, in SMCs. Therefore, the research question is: "Does a higher liquidity leads to higher economic profitability, in the hotels and restaurants sector held by SMCs?"

Hence, it is intended to understand whether liquidity actually leads to subsequent positive net results. In crises, such as was experienced during COVID-19, management tends to be based even more on the short term, that is, on a more treasury perspective, than on the medium and long term, from an economic perspective. Accordingly, the question to be answered is whether this short-term view will not compromise the future results of those SMCs. Therefore, the objectives of the investigation are: (1) to analyze the evolution of the liquidity of hotels and restaurants in the last 5 years before COVID-19; (2) to analyze the evolution of the economic profitability of hotels and restaurants in the last 5 years before COVID-19; (3) to analyze the overall financial performance of SMCs hotels and restaurants; and (4) to analyze the relationship between liquidity and economic profitability, if existing. To answer the research question and to achieve the proposed goals, a previous literature review was realized focusing on the concepts of liquidity, economic profitability, and SMCs management. Portuguese hotels and restaurants' financial ratios, liquidity, and economic

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profitability were analyzed in five years, from 2015 to 2019. All the information was obtained from The Iberian Balance Sheet Analysis System (SABI) from Bureau van Dijk (2021), a database of detailed financial information of Portuguese and Spanish companies. The search included only Portuguese hotels and restaurants, detained by SMCs. To achieve the first, second, and third objectives, it was done a simple statistical analysis, to gauge the evolution over the 5 years under analysis, based on its average values. This evolution is presented by groups, hotels, and restaurants, and graphically, to make the evolution more noticeable. The analysis is done separately for liquidity and economic profitability.

Then, for the fourth goal, data were treated using linear regression. This linear regression made it possible to understand if there is a relation between liquidity and economic profitability in those companies. According to the studied literature, it was expected no relationship between liquidity and economic profitability. Indeed, findings point to the fact that liquidity-based management does not necessarily lead to future economic profitability, and in the long-term running, managers should review the management tools they use to guide them in the decision-making process. Findings also open doors to further empirical studies, to investigate this issue in more depth and with data directly obtained from the SMCs. In terms of structure, the study adopts a conventional format: literature review; explanation of the methodology; presentation of findings; and discussion and conclusions.

Tourism impact on the Portuguese economy

Tourism is a traditional and fundamental sector of the Portuguese economy. In recent years, before COVID-19, it has shown high growth in its main indicators: contribution to GDP, supply of several beds, employment, and average daily expenses per tourist. According to FFMS (2020a), the weight of the tourism sector has been increasing gradually, but consistently, in Portuguese GDP, over the last years, before the beginning of the global pandemic, in 2020 (Figure 1). The expected value in 2020 is 3,8%, well below the trend of recent years.

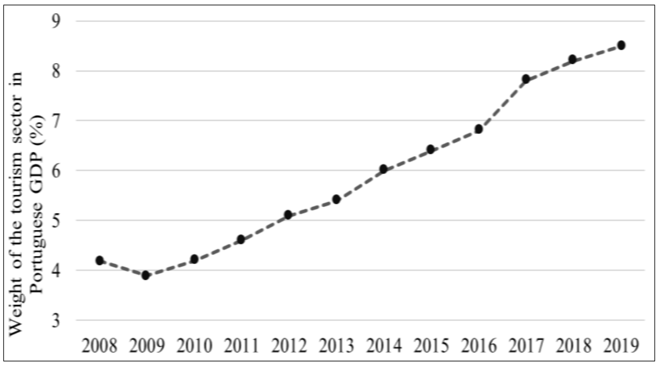

Figure 1. Weight of the tourism sector in Portuguese GDP (Source: FFMS, 2020a)

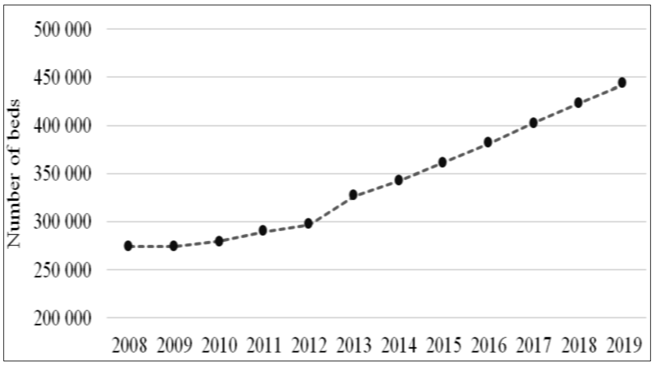

Figure 2. Number of beds available in hotel establishments (Source: FFMS, 2020b)

The number of beds available in tourist establishments has also been increasing exponentially (Figure 2), before the COVID-19 pandemic, according to FFMS (2020b). This increase is justified by the increase both in demand and in income per tourist that has occurred in recent years. However, with the emergence of the global pandemic and the consequent confinement that existed in Portugal, the number of tourist establishments with activity suspension reached from 109 in February up to 965 in April, representing 21.28% of the total of those tourist establishments (Turismo de Portugal, 2021a).

Employment in the tourism sector has also been increasing its share of total employment in Portugal, in the last years before the global pandemic. The evolution in recent years, based on INE (2019), can be analyzed in Figure 3. The number of jobs also expectably decreased by 8.9% in 2020 (Turismo de Portugal, 2021b).

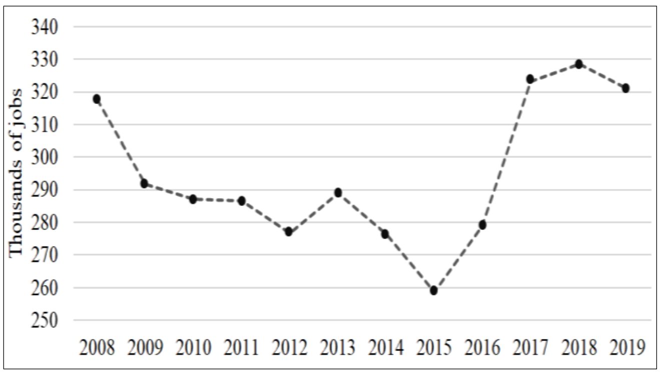

Figure 3. Total employment in tourism (Source: INE, 2019)

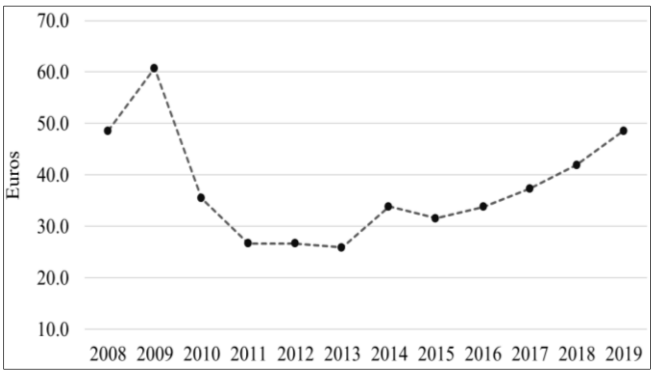

Figure 4. Average daily expenditure per tourist (Source: FFMS, 2020c)

Finally, according to FFMS (2020c), the average daily expenditure per tourist (Figure 4) had its highest value in 2009, followed by a significant decrease in the following years. However, since 2013 it has increased again, although slightly. In

2020, the average value of daily expenses reached a predictable value of €57.69 (Turismo de Portugal, 2021c), increasing slightly compared to previous years. However, the pandemic COVID-19 and the restrictive measures adopted by the government determined a sharp drop-in tourism activity, which led to a decrease of 61.3% in guests, so the increase in the value of average daily expenses was not enough to maintain global tourism revenues from previous years.

In short, although all the indicators presented, between 2008 and 2019, are in a positive evolution, the forecasts of the same indicators for 2020 are well below this trend, because of the global pandemic due to COVID-19.

Small and medium companies' management

Academic research has mainly focused on large companies listed in financial markets, mainly due to the data availability. However, in more recent years, new databases with detailed business information on micro, small and medium-sized enterprises have appeared, allowing the analysis of time series (Espert et al., 2012). The SMCs definition can be defined as all private enterprises, excluding agriculture, hunting, and fishing, employing less than 250 employees. National definitions may exist (Reyes-Ruiz and Hernández-Hernández, 2020), however, it is common to distinguish the following sizes: micro-enterprises, with less than 10 employees; small enterprises, with 10 to 49 employees; and medium-sized enterprises, with 50 to 249 employees (Verheul et al., 2001). In Portugal, there were 1,281,857 micros, 44,492 small, and 7,300 medium-sized companies in 2019, which accounted for 99.90% of the total business companies.

Of those companies, 117,971 were from the hotels and restaurants sector (FFMS, 2021). Additionally, SMCs have a very important performance in any current economy, as they contribute both to the generation of wealth and the creation of jobs (Reyes-Ruiz and Hernández-Hernández, 2020). Many managers of SMCs have the professional knowledge directly related to their activity, however not necessarily the management and economical knowledge (De Vries et al., 2009; Lakatos, 2020; Reyes-Ruiz and Hernández-Hernández, 2020). The competitiveness of SMCs depends to a large extent on their growth and expansion capacity (Espert et al., 2012). However, when they need financing investment projects, SMCs only use internal financing and bank loans. Small businesses, even to finance their operations, have little internal cash flow, and in these cases, they also need bank loans. But to loan to SMCs, banks look for their future financial and economic profitability (Paulet et al., 2014). Though SMCs managers tend to have a short-term view of their business (De Vries et al., 2009) and managers generally rate their business success with a cash flow approach, meaning, they are mostly concerned with whether their company's liquidity is good or not (Lakatos, 2020). This sort of management based on the short term and the analysis of liquidity can thus be an obstacle to improving the growth and expansion capacity of SMCs.

Liquidity ratios

A financial ratio generally defines the relationship between two numbers. Those numbers are usually based on the Balance Sheet and/or the Statement of Profit and Loss. These financial ratios provide important information to strengthen the decision-making (Reyes-Ruiz and Hernández-Hernández, 2020; Rondós-Casas et al., 2018). They are powerful tools to help summarize financial statements and the health of a company or enterprise (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020).

Rondós-Casas et al. (2018) also claim that ratios are a tool used by both scholars in their research and professionals in the study of a company or a sector. The same study also states that ratios provide more information when compared to the historical values for the same company, or sector. Ratios that focus the study of the short-term financial information include net working capital (Bhattacharyya and Jagadeesh, 2018; Lakatos, 2020), current liquidity ratio (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Nikolaos et al., 2020), quick liquidity ratio (Atrill and McLaney, 2019; Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Nikolaos et al., 2020), and cash liquidity ratio (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Nikolaos et al., 2020), among others (Table 1).

Table 1. Liquidity ratios

Ratio	Formula	Source
Networking capital	Current assets - Current liabilities	Bhattacharyya and Jagadeesh (2018); Lakatos (2020)
Current Liquidity Ratio	Current Assets / Current Liabilities	Bordeianu and Radu (2020); Nikolaos et al. (2020)
Quick Liquidity Ratio	(Current Assets - Inventories) / Current Liabilities	Atrill and McLaney (2017); Bordeianu and Radu (2020); Nikolaos et al. (2020)
Cash Liquidity Ratio	(Cash + Cash equivalents) / Current Liabilities	Bordeianu and Radu (2020); Nikolaos et al. (2020)

Networking capital management is an important way in achieving profitability for micro, small and medium enterprises (Bhattacharyya and Jagadeesh, 2018). It is the difference between a company's current assets, such as cash, accounts receivable, and inventories, and its current liabilities, such as accounts payable. This indicator is also a form of measuring the company's liquidity. Its basic goal is to make sure that a company has enough funds to meet its operating costs (Sagner, 2010). Companies focus on networking capital management to liberate funds and optimize liquidity.

Liquidity is defined by Papadeas and Sykianakis (2017) as the ability of an economic entity to repay its obligations without disrupting its proper functioning. The liquidity focus is on the short-term. Liquidity ratios examine the relationship between liquid resources held and payables due for payment shortly (Atrill and McLaney, 2019). Liquidity is considered in different studies in different forms. Some studies consider liquidity ratios, as current (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Nikolaos et al., 2020), quick (Atrill and McLaney, 2019; Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Nikolaos et al., 2020), or cash liquidity ratios (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Nikolaos et al., 2020). Others consider liquidity as a cash flow approach, as the networking capital (Bhattacharyya and Jagadeesh, 2018; Lakatos, 2020). As SMCs managers generally evaluate their business success with a cash flow approach, they use to have practical knowledge of the liquidity indicators (Lakatos, 2020).

This study will use the current liquidity ratio, as Bordeianu and Radu (2020) refers to it as the most common liquidity ratio and it indicates a company's ability to pay its short-term bills. Prior literature on restaurants and hotels liquidity ratio conclude that hotels have higher liquidity when compared to restaurants (Turegun, 2019).

Economic profitability ratio

Profitability ratios indicate a company’s ability to generate earnings against cost during a given period. They are generally used to determine how profitable a company, or sector, is in sequential periods. Companies use various profitability ratios to provide useful insights into the financial well-being and performance of the business (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020). The economic profitability rates are an important instrument of financial analysis, as they reflect the level of the economic viability of a company (Burja and Burja, 2009).

Table 2 presents some of the most used profitability ratios, such as gross profit margin (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Van et al., 2021), net profit margin (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Lima Santos et al., 2021; Van et al., 2021), operating profit margin (Van et al., 2021), return on assets (ROA) (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Burja and Burja, 2009; Van et al., 2021), return on equity (ROE) (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Lima Santos et al., 2021; Van et al., 2021), among others.

Table 2. Profitability ratios

Ratio	Formula	Source
Gross Profit Margin	Gross profit / Sales revenue	Bordeianu and Radu (2020); Kamandulienė and Kulbokas (2020)
Net Profit Margin	Net income / Total sales	Bordeianu and Radu (2020); Lima Santos et al. (2021)
Operating Profit Margin	Revenue - Expenses (excluding interest, taxes, depreciation, and amortization)	Lukic (2018)
Return on Assets	Profit / Total Assets	Bordeianu and Radu (2020); Burja and Burja (2009)
Return on Equity	Net income / Equity	Bordeianu and Radu (2020; Lima Santos et al. (2021)

Gross profit margin measures how much is left after subtracting the cost of goods sold from revenue expressed in percentages (Kamandulienė and Kulbokas, 2020). Net profit margin shows the percentage of each remaining dollar sale after all costs and expenses, including interest, taxes, and preferred stock dividends, have been reduced (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Mulyadi et al., 2020). Operating profit margin measures how much profit a company makes on sales before paying interest or tax (Nguyen et al., 2019). It is a measure of the long-term performance of companies (Lukic, 2018). ROA indicates the effectiveness of using the assets to generate income, and the higher the value of ROA, the higher the efficiency of asset use (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Burja and Burja, 2009; Nguyen et al., 2019).

At last, ROE expresses the percentage of net income relative to stockholders’ equity or the rate of return on the money that equity investors have put into the business (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020) The higher the ROE number, the higher the business financial performance (Nguyen et al., 2019). According to Bordeianu and Radu (2020), the ROA ratio specifically reveals how much after-tax profit a company generates for every one dollar of its assets. In financial literature, it is known as ROA (Burja and Burja, 2009). For these reasons, ROA is the ratio used in this study for the economic profit evaluation. Prior literature on micro, small and medium enterprises concluded that those companies performed favorably in liquidity, but had a low level of profitability.

Also, there was found no relationship between liquidity and profitability (Mendoza, 2015). Other studies, using ROE for economic profitability, concluded that restaurants have higher profitability than hotels (Turegun, 2019).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This research uses secondary data from the SABI database (Bureau Van Dijk, 2021). Financial information was analyzed over the 5 years pre COVID-19, from 2014 to 2019, on Portuguese hotels and restaurants, detained by SMCs. The analysis of tourism companies was carried out separately in hotels and restaurants. The first group includes hotel establishments, vacation homes, and other short-term accommodation. The second one includes restaurants, mobile catering activities, provision of meals for events and other meal service activities, and beverage establishments. Inclusion factors were SMCs with activity, constituted before January 1st, 2015, from all regions from Portugal, including North Portugal, Portugal Center, Lisbon, and Tagus Valley, Alentejo, Algarve, Autonomous Region of the Azores, and Autonomous Region of Madeira, using the Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics (NUTS) 2 Portuguese notation. Exclusion factors were not being an SMC, meaning having more than 249 workers, and having no employees declared; having no available values for current assets, current liabilities, or net income, as the financial ratios used in the study are based on those values; and also having a zero value for current

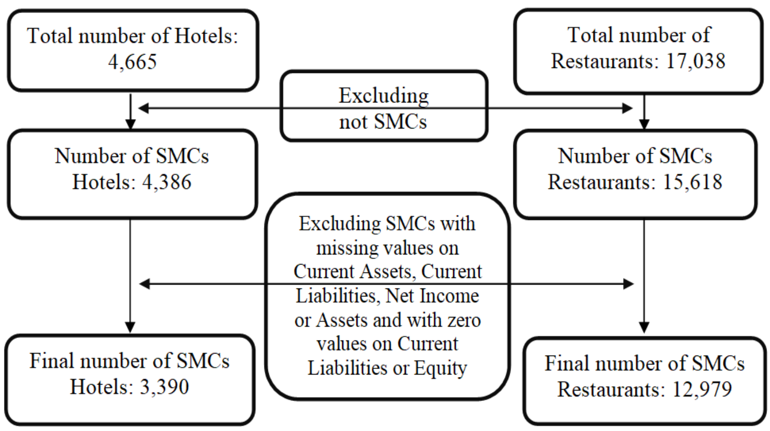

Figure 5. Selection of data process (Source: Self-development)

liabilities or assets, as it would similarly be impossible to obtain the values of the ratios. Figure 5 shows the selection process of the data. Lastly, the study used the 5 years of a total of 3,390 hotels (68% micro, 24% small, and 8% medium-sized) and 12,979 restaurants (76% micro, 22% small, and 2% medium-sized).

The study has as a main research question: "Does a higher liquidity leads to higher economic profitability, in the hotels and restaurants sector held by SMCs?". To answer the question, it was analyzed: (1) the evolution of the liquidity and economic profitability of hotels and restaurants in the last 5 years before COVID-19; (2) the overall financial performance of SMCs hotels and restaurants; and (3) the relationship between the liquidity and economic profitability in each of those groups. To accomplish the goals and to answer the research question, was done a study on financial ratios, current liquidity ratio, and ROA, based on financial information obtained from the SABI database (Bureau Van Dijk, 2021).

The analysis of financial information was divided into three stages: 1) the analysis of the evolution of Portuguese hotels and restaurants' financial ratios, namely current liquidity ratio, and ROA, in five years, from 2015 to 2019; 2) an overall analysis of these ratios; and 3) the analysis of the existence of any relationship between these two indicators in those sectors, through multiple linear regression.

To do an overall analysis of the ratios in the study, it was used the qualitative rating scale of Mendoza (2015) concerned liquidity and economic profitability (Table 3). This table shows the qualitative rating scale used in assessing the financial performance of the business enterprises, and it classifies into low, medium, and high for each measure. According to that study, the criteria were based on the experience of most enterprises. Those values are also following the literature on financial ratios (Atrill and McLaney, 2019; Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Burja and Burja, 2009; Nikolaos et al., 2020).

Table 3. Qualitative rating scale

Ratio	Low	Medium	High
Current liquidity ratio	Below 2	2 to 10	Over 10
Return on Assets (%)	Below 5	5 to 10	Over 10

Findings and analysis

The results are presented in four parts: liquidity evolution in the hotels and restaurants sector, economic profitability in the same sectors, an overall analysis of the financial ratios, and the relationship between economic liquidity and profitability, also in both sectors. SPSS version 28.0 was used to analyze the data. Before the analysis, companies with standardized values of liquidity or ROA outside the absolute value of 4, the threshold score suggested for samples larger than 80 by Hair, et al. (2014), were marked as univariate outliers and removed, leading to a total of 3,328 hotels and 12,728 restaurants with valid data.

Liquidity evolution

The liquidity degree was measured using the current liquidity ratio, as it is generally done in similar studies (Atrill and McLaney, 2019; Bhattacharyya and Jagadeesh, 2018; Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Nikolaos et al., 2020). Liquidity presents differently in hotels and restaurants. Both sectors have positive liquidity, on average, however, hotels liquidity tends to be higher than restaurants' (Figure 6). In both sectors, there is a large dispersion in the average liquidity of companies, as can be seen in Table 4. In hotels, the year 2016 had a high average score, more than twice as high as in other years. The application of the paired-samples t-test did not highlight statistically significant differences in the evolution of the current liquidity ratio across time (Table 5). Therefore, the liquidity mean was relatively stable, presenting values between 14 and 35, a good average of approximately 19, having the ability to meet short-term obligations with no difficulty. Restaurants are more stable yet show much lesser liquidity. Their average values are from 3 to 4 and on average around 4, and they also can pay short-term obligations. Only the increase observed in this sector from 2015 to 2016 was statistically significant (Table 5).

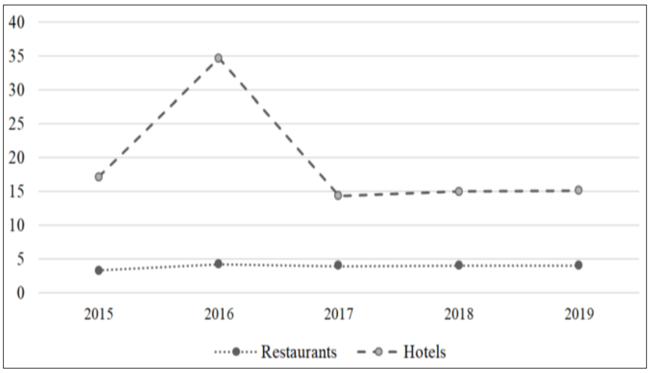

Figure 6. Liquidity evolution

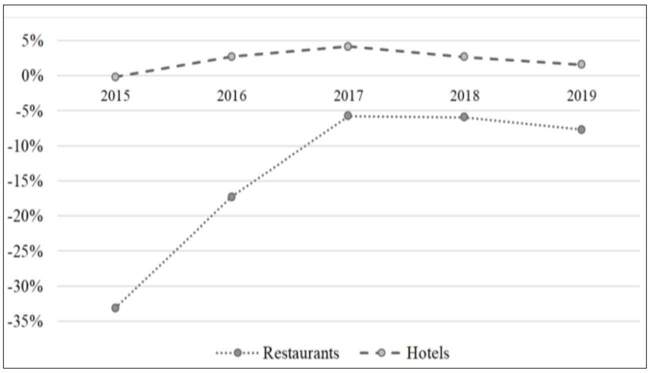

Figure 7. Economic Profitability (ROA) evolution

Economic profitability evolution

As Rondós-Casas et al. (2018) state that ratios provide more information when compared the historical values for the same company, or for the sector to which the company belongs, this study also analyses the evolution of the economic profitability during the five years pre COVID-19. Also, the economic profitability rate is an indicator that expresses the efficiency of using the equity of a firm (Burja and Burja, 2009), and the ROA ratio specifically reveals how much after-tax profit a company generates for every one dollar of its assets (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020). Similarly to liquidity, economic profitability was also studied based on the average of companies' values. Restaurants seem to have a highly variable economic profitability from year to year, being in general higher than the hotels. Hotels tend to have more stable profitability, but very low over the years (Figure 7). The analysis of the Table 4 allows us to verify that in this ratio there is also a great dispersion of the values towards the average. In both groups, the same pattern of evolution was observed: until 2017 the average value of ROA ratio increased followed by a gradual decrease.

However, over the 5 years, hotels showed in general positive mean scores and on average around 2%, and restaurants negative ones with a 5-years mean of -14%. In 2015, the restaurants ROA ratio was at a very low negative level, but in the next two years, the increase was very prominent, growing approximately 50% and 33%. Comparing the evolution of the ROA ratio across time, the results of the paired-samples t-test allowed us to conclude that almost all differences, increases and decreases between consecutive years, were statistically significant for both sectors. Only between 2017 and 2018, there was no difference between the means of the restaurants' economic profitability rates (Table 5).

Overall analysis of the financial ratios

The liquidity level and the economic profitability were also analyzed through the qualitative rating scale of Mendoza (2015). These rating results shown in Table 4, allow us to better understand the differences between the financial ratios of the hotels and restaurants. It confirms as seen before, that hotels have high liquidity, but restaurants only have a moderate one.

As for the ROA, the situation is similar, as both hotels and restaurants have a low level of economic profitability, although positive in the former and negative in the latter.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) and overall financial performance of SMCs hotels (N=3,328) and restaurants (N=12,728)

Year	Current liquidity ratio		Return on Assets (%)	
	Hotels	Restaurants	Hotels	Restaurants
2015	17.14 (255.06)	3.30 (10.7)	-0.18 (26.70)	-33.09 (101.08)
2016	34.69 (1,283.23)	4.25 (21.94)	2.74 (16.86)	-17.23 (74.23)
2017	14.29 (132.24)	3.93 (9.37)	4.13 (18.36)	-5.79 (66.35)
2018	15.04 (154.84)	3.98 (9.34)	2.62 (16.35)	-6.00 (65.87)
2019	15.08 (170.71)	3.98 (8.85)	1.51 (18.65)	-7.71 (66.80)
5-years	19.25 (277.50)	3.89 (8.49)	2.16 (12.71)	-13.96 (55.64)
Qualitative Rating	High	Medium	Low	Low

Table 5. Comparison of the average of the ratios of SMCs hotels and restaurants across time

Sector	Ratio	Comparison	Mean (SD) difference	95% CI	*t*	*p*-value
Hotels	Current liquidity ratio	2019-2018	0.04 (140.7)	(-4.741, 4.823)	0.02	.987
		2018-2017	0.75 (161.79)	(-4.753, 6.244)	0.27	.790
		2017-2016	-20.40 (1,277.08)	(-63.804, 23.005)	-0.92	.357
		2016-2015	17.56 (1,302.25)	(-26.703, 61.816)	0.78	.437
	Return on Assets (%)	2019-2018	-1.11 (19.14)	(-1.763, -0.463)	-3.35	.001
		2018-2017	-1.50 (18.89)	(-2.146, -0.862)	-4.59	<.001
		2017-2016	1.39 (19.2)	(0.739, 2.044)	4.18	<.001
		2016-2015	2.92 (25.77)	(2.042, 3.794)	6.53	<.001
Restaurants	Current liquidity ratio	2019-2018	0.00 (8.13)	(-0.142, 0.14)	-0.02	.987
		2018-2017	0.05 (8.32)	(-0.092, 0.197)	0.71	.477
		2017-2016	-0.32 (20.86)	(-0.683, 0.042)	-1.73	.083
		2016-2015	0.95 (21.74)	(0.572, 1.327)	4.93	<.001
	Return on Assets (%)	2019-2018	-1.72 (62.91)	(-2.815, -0.629)	-3.09	.002
		2018-2017	-0.20 (61.24)	(-1.263, 0.866)	-0.37	.715
		2017-2016	11.44 (64.03)	(10.328, 12.553)	20.16	<.001
		2016-2015	15.86 (84.59)	(14.394, 17.333)	21.16	<.001

Relationship between liquidity and economic profitability

To accomplish the last goal, it was done a multiple linear regression to better understand the relationship between liquidity and economic profitability. To test the relationship between both ratios, the model presents the economic profitability of 2019 as a dependent variable and the liquidity ratios for the years between 2015 and 2019 as explanatory variables. Both for hotels and restaurants, the explanatory power of the variation in economic profitability through liquidity was almost null since for hotels the R^2 was 0.002 and for restaurants was 0.005. For hotels, the model is statistically insignificant, which implies that there is no significant relationship between the economic profitability of 2019 and liquidity ratios from 2015 to 2019. Considering restaurants, the model is statistically significant, indicating a significant relationship between the economic profitability of 2019 and the predictors, 2015 and 2019 liquidity. However, only 0.05% of the variance of ROA 2019 is explained by the variance in liquidity ratios. The results obtained demonstrate that in the case of Portuguese hotels and restaurants owned by SMCs, there is no clear relationship between the companies' liquidity and economic profitability.

Table 6. Regression of economic profitability ratio on liquidity ratio

Sector	Hotels			Restaurants		
	Coefficient	*t*	Sig.	Coefficient	*t*	Sig.
(Constant)	1.573	4.819	<.001	-9.451	-14.169	<.001
Liquidity 2015	0	-0.015	.988	-0.141	-2.289	.022
Liquidity 2016	0	-0.351	.726	-0.003	-0.089	.929
Liquidity 2017	-0.006	-2.177	.030	-0.032	-0.378	.706
Liquidity 2018	0	0.049	.961	0.012	0.137	.891
Liquidity 2019	0.002	0.626	.531	0.576	6.708	<.001
R-squared	0.002			0.005		
Adj. R-squared	0.000			0.005		
F-statistic	1.048			13.030		
Prob(F-statistic)	.388			<.001		
Dependent Variable: Economic profitability ROA 2019						

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

As tourism is an important source of income for all countries in Europe, and in particular for Portugal (FFMS, 2020a); FFMS, 2020b; FFMS, 2020c; Turismo de Portugal, 2021a); Turismo de Portugal, 2021b); Turismo de Portugal, 2021c); INE, 2019), it is important to understand if the companies in this sector have proper management. This knowledge is of paramount importance since the whole sector had a severe setback with the global pandemic due to the COVID-19, and it is urgent to use the best management tools to recover and maintain companies in the long term. Previous literature agrees that most of the companies in this sector are SMCs, as in the rest of the Portuguese entrepreneurial sector. SMCs use to have a short-term management style, giving priority to management by liquidity, rather than to economic profitability (De Vries et al., 2009; Lakatos, 2020). The financial ratios, based on the financial information of the companies, allow an in-depth analysis of both the companies and the sector and allow the assessment of the situation of the sector in terms of short, medium- and long-term management (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020; Reyes-Ruiz and Hernández-Hernández, 2020; Rondós-Casas et al., 2018). In this study, the current liquidity ratio (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020) was used for the analysis of short-term and ROA (Bordeianu and Radu, 2020) from a medium- and long-term perspective.

The study had the main research question and four goals to better answer this research question. Concerning the first goal, to analyze the evolution of the liquidity of hotels and restaurants in the last 5 years before COVID-19, there were found differences in the hotels and restaurants groups, as restaurants are more stable, yet with lesser liquidity than hotels. The second goal, to analyze the evolution of the economic profitability of hotels and restaurants in the last 5 years before COVID-19, there were also found differences in both sectors. Hotels tend to have more stable profitability, yet very low over the years, as restaurants seem to have a highly variable economic profitability. Concerning the third goal, to analyze the overall financial performance of SMCs hotels and restaurants, findings show that hotels have high liquidity, but restaurants only have a moderate one. These findings are consistent with the study of Turegun (2019). As for the ROA, both hotels and restaurants have a low ratio. This result is not in line with the study of Turegun (2019), which concluded that restaurants have higher profitability than hotels. However, it can be due to the use of different ratios to measure the economic profitability, as that study used the ROE ratio, and the present study used the ROA ratio.

Lastly, the fourth goal is to analyze the relationship between liquidity and economic profitability, findings show that there is no relation between those two ratios. This result is consistent with prior literature (Mendoza, 2015).

All those findings allow us to answer the research question: "Does a higher liquidity leads to higher economic profitability, in the hotels and restaurants sector held by SMC?". Findings suggest indeed that even if a company has high liquidity, it does not mean that it has, or will have higher economic profitability. As companies intend to grow and expand their capacity, this fact can be an issue. These findings are also in line with the study of Mendoza (2015).

The contribution of this study is that it is useful not only for a better economic understanding of the behavior of the SMCs managers, but also to alert them that the company's long-term maintenance must be based on a long-term vision, valuing economic profitability, and not just immediate liquidity. Like any study, this one also has some limitations. Despite being on the alert that SMCs managers should not use the liquidity ratio as a predictor of future economic profitability, no new tools are proposed to include future income by the companies. For future research is proposed to find new management tools that go beyond the current limitations. Also, it was possible to verify the existence of many outliers in data from the SABI database, which seriously decreased the sample dimension.

Acknowledgment

We thank Universidade Europeia, who funded this article.

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Article history: Received: 19.10.2021 Revised: 29.12.2021 Accepted: 31.01.2022 Available online: 23.02.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.218-224
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40126-822

IMPACT OF GENDER ON SELF-EFFICACY: EVIDENCE FROM INDONESIA'S KARO TOURISM

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Citation: Ginting, N., Rahman, N.V., & Nasution, A.D. (2022). IMPACT OF GENDER ON SELF-EFFICACY: EVIDENCE FROM INDONESIA'S KARO TOURISM. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 218–224. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40126-822

Abstract: Self-efficacy in tourist destination can influence the tourists' level of satisfaction which may depend on how much the destination has fulfilled their needs. This research aims at investigating the relationship between gender preference and self-efficacy in tourist destination in Karo regency. Female tourists are usually significantly different, in which male's self-efficacy tend to be higher than female's. This research used a qualitative and quantitative method to obtain the varieties of perception, such as accessibility, comfort, confidence, and safety. The result reveals self-efficacy isindeed different for local male and female visitors; however, the male and female tourists from abroad do not indicate significant difference. The level of self-efficacy (LSE) for females is not always lower than males and, even, the activities cannot limit the LSE for males and females. The tourists' activities in the masculine category proved that the females' SE is higher than males. However, the males' SE proved to be higher than females are only found among local people; however, the tourists's SE between males and females look the same. In the development of tourism which is based on the tourists' SE, preference of gender does not need to be considered; however, if it is done on the basis locals' SE, then the preference of gender is really needed.

Key words: gender preference, self-efficacy, Karo regency, tourism

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism becomes a multi-sector industry that rapidly grows in recent years. Also, tourism becomes a tremendous resource of income for many countries (Stratan et al., 2015), especially for developing countries to generate their economy (Samimi et al., 2011). Karo regency can be a potential industry in tourism and may improve the economy of the regency, which is known for its most popular tourist destinations in North Sumatra Province as well as in Indonesia. It owns a variety of natural, cultural, and artificial attractions for tourists. It also has moderate weather, mountains, volcanoes, Brastagi city, Lau Kawar lake, Sipiso-Piso waterfall, traditional Lingga Village, among others. However, its tourist objects are improperly managed and maintained; all this brings impacts to the local and international tourists' optimal leisure and satisfaction. The perception of visitors and residents is essential in tourism since their good or bad impression affects their satisfaction for a tourist destination (Stedman, 2002; Wang and Xu, 2015; Ginting, 2016). Self-efficacy (henceforth SE), in this case, can be considered to play a vital role in the stimulation of both good and bad perception (Ginting et al., 2017). The SE refers to a person's belief about his ability to well perform an activity in a place (Bandura, 1997). A person who feels satisfied with a place can perform all his activities leisurely (Twigger-Ross et al., 2003). So naturally, if the SE for a place is high, then the satisfaction to such place is also high. Some studies suggest that gender has a relationship to SE for a place (Propst and Koesler, 1998; Hallak et al., 2014; Hallak et al., 2015; Ghanian et al., 2017), in which male's SE, especially his self-confidence, in outdoor is higher than female's one. All this is caused by the differences in behavior between male and female. Females tend to be more emotional, empathetic, gentle, and sensitive, however, malesare more logical, confident, and assertive (Hallak et al., 2014; Ghanian et al., 2017). Since the standard of male's and female's SE is different, therefore, such standard needs to be further investigated.

The SE is someone's belief in his/her ability to do things (Bandura, 1997; Gist and Mitchell, 1992; Gu and Ryan, 2008; Wang and Chen, 2015) and can be achieved if an environment has supporting facilities for him/her to do activities or, at least,he/she is not interferedin spending their leisure (Bandura, 1997). With reference to tourism, the SE may be achieved if tourist destinations can provide a sense of satisfaction for foreign tourists (henceforth FTs) and local tourists (henceforth LRs) (Ginting, 2018). Therefore, anoperator of a tourist destination (henceforth TD) is required to manage his destination to meet the FTs' and LRs' needs and to make them feel satisfied with the TD.

The SE consists of four aspects, for instance, confidence, comfort, safety, and accessibility (Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996; Eusuf et al., 2014). A person is stimulated to be confidentt if he/she believes he/she can do his/her activities without

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any hindrance (Hung and Petrick, 2012). In the context of tourism, confidence can be marked by complete and accurate information about the tourist attractions that can be obtained from the information centre, website, or other sources, so that an FT or an LR does not hesitate to do their activities there (Ginting et al., 2017). If such information can be easily obtained, then the FTs and LRs will be interested in visiting a TD. Comfort can be seen when either FTs or LTs show as well as express their satisfaction with the atmosphere of TD they stay. An uncomfortable TD will, for example, reduce FTs' and LTs' SE and give them a negative impression to the TD (Twigger-Ross and Uzzell, 1996; Ujang, 2017). Comfort can, in tourism, be measured by the TD's surroundingsof physical conditions such as landscape, pedestrian path, and signage (Ginting, 2016). Safety is the one which is the most important factor not only in SE but also in tourism. It affects the FTs' and LTs' decision whether to visit or not a TD and they will avoid a TD if they think the TD is not safe (Amir et al., 2015). Safety contributes for tourists to make their SE and, when the SE is proved to be safe, they then do their activities; unluckily, no safety in the TD can significantly influence FTs' and LTs' decision to come and to spend their days since they do not feel comfortable with the TD (Ginting, 2018). In this current research, researchers focused on four variables, i.e., accessibility, comfort, confidence, and safety, to reveal the impacts of gender on self-efficacy and to support tourism (Table 1). The variables are believed to provide a sense of satisfaction for local and international tourists and residents.

Table 1. Variables of Self-efficacy Principle

Confidence	Comfort	Safety	Accessibility
-Respondents' perception on activities in the research areas -Respondents' perceptions on new experiences and insights gained -Provision of the information center	-Respondents' perceptions on comfort in the research areas -Provision of dust bins -Provision of public toilets -Provision of public seats	-Respondents' perceptions on safety in the research areas -Provision of street lights	-Quality of pedestrian paths -Sufficient public transportation -Provision of parking lots

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study was conducted in Karo regency (henceforth KR) which is widely known for its nature and cultural heritage. Five unique TDs, such as Pasar Buah, Bukit Gundaeling, Air Terjun Sipiso-Piso, Desa Lingga, and Bukit Kubu (Figure 1), were chosenon the basis of pilot research by the students of Architecture Department, Universitas Sumatera Utara. Firstly, the *Pasar Buah* (Fruit Market) sells not only fruits but also flowers, souvenirs, and even pets in which all of the itemsare locally branded. It is a recommended place to visit when FTs and LTs are visiting Berastagi. The *Bukit Gundaling* (Gundaling Hill) is the highest plateau in KR and the best place to view both of Sinabung and Sibayak mounts. Many tourists come to the TD to see its beauty. The *Air Terjun Sipiso-Piso* (Sipiso-Piso Waterfall) becomes not only the leading TD in KR but also one of geo-sites in Toba Caldera Geo-park. It is precisely located in Geoarea of Haranggaol and was historically formed from the Toba Caldera supervolcano eruption in 74 thousand years ago. The *Desa Lingga* (Lingga Village) is a historical village having Karonese traditional houses that still stand strong for over 250 years old; unfortunately, there are only four traditional houses left in the village. Lastly, the *Bukit Kubu* (Kubu Hill) is a grassy open space facilitated by private party. The TD can be used to play soccer, kite, bubble, and many more.

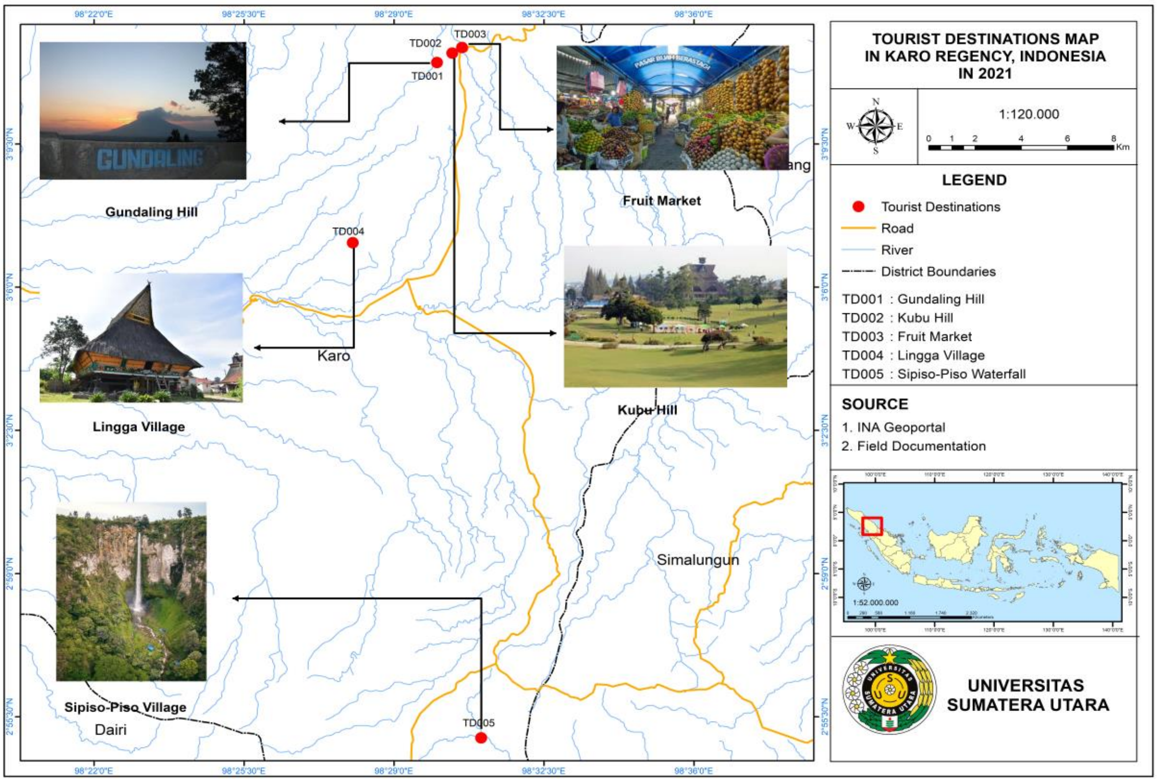

Figure 1. Research Areas (Source: own elaboration)

The research used the mixed methods to obtain the respondents' perception on their SE for TDs in KR (Figure 2). The quantitative method employed the questionnaires (Table 2) for 360 respondents. To collect different perception and attitudes, the questionnaires were distributed in five samples of research locations and filled by FTs and LTs with the ratio of 50:50. As for the paper would only discuss the different perception between male and female respondents, the ratio is not 50:50 or 180:180 but 176:192 respectively.

In the Pasar Buah, more female respondents were chosen but in the Desa Lingga, more male respondents were ditermined. In the qualitative method, the observation in the research areas was conducted with the aims to collect the physical data, such as physical characteristics, traditional buildings, facilities, the street circulation, pedestrian paths, people activities, among others. Deep interviews with eight stakeholders were also conducted in the areas.

Table 2. Indicators and statements of self-efficacy

No	Indicators	Statements
SEF01	Confidence	I can do my activity
SEF02		The best place to do the things I want
SEF03		Gives new experience and insights
SEF04		The information that got from this place is same or positive
SEF05		I would recommend this place to others
SEF06		There are information center
SEF07	Comfort	I feel comfortable
SEF08		There are trash bins
SEF09		There are seat facilities
SEF10		The condition of public toilets is good and sufficient
SEF11	Safety	I feel safe
SEF12		There are street lights
SEF13	Accessibility	There are good pedestrian path
SEF14		There are good public transportation
SEF15		The condition of the parking lot is good and sufficient

Table 3. Gender, age and educational background of respondents

Gender	PB		BG		AS		DL		BK		%
	L	T	L	T	L	T	L	T	L	T	
Male	13	15	20	18	21	19	21	24	27	14	53%
Female	23	21	16	18	15	17	15	12	9	22	47%
Age	PB		BG		AS		DL		BK		%
	L	T	L	T	L	T	L	T	L	T	
18-24	10	15	17	14	12	18	4	17	8	15	36%
25-49	17	18	12	18	19	16	18	12	21	16	46%
50-64	7	3	5	4	5	2	12	7	5	5	15%
65+	2	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	2%
Edu	PB		BG		AS		DL		BK		%
	L	T	L	T	L	T	L	T	L	T	
HS	29	10	31	10	32	14	30	4	27	7	54%
UG	7	18	5	20	4	21	6	27	9	26	40%
G	0	8		6		1		5		3	6%

The eight stakeholders are local figures, government, academics, travel agencies, and hotel association, who are directly or indirectly involved in tourism in the regency. The results from the questionnaires were then processed statistically with SPSS 20 to obtain quantitative data that was used in the SE assessment. The results were analyzed quantitatively using the percentages and average value in the either graphs or tables. The results from quantitative and qualitative data which were combined and triangulated to seek the convergence were described and interpreted on the basis of literature review; after all, the overall conclusion was made.

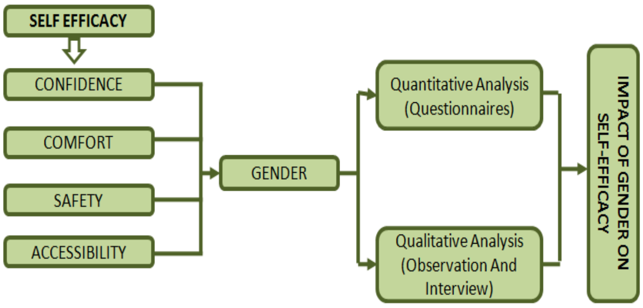

Figure 2. Flow Chart Research

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Respondents

In this study, the respondent's profile was classified into gender, age, and education. Respondent profile is important to know because someone with a lower education has lower SE than any other person who has higher education (Schwarzer, 2014; Piperopoulos and Dimov, 2015; Stajkovic et al., 2018). Questionnaires were distributed to 360 respondents in the study area. Each TD was represented by 72 respondents, with a composition of 36 residents and 36 tourists. There were 192 male respondents and 168 female ones (see Table 3). Most foreign tourists (FTs) came from Asia (76%) and Europe (21%). The majority age of respondents was between 25-49 years (46%) (Table 3), followed by 18-24 years old (36%), 50-64 (15%), and 65+ (2%). With reference to educational background, 54% respondents were graduated from high schools (mostly dominated by the local residentswhose educational level was lower than the tourists (see Table 3). Around 83% of the local residents were graduated from high schools, and 17% are studying undergraduate but none of the local residents have a bachelor's degree. While 25% of tourists have graduated from high school, 62% are currently studying for a bachelor's degree, and 13% have a bachelor's degree.

2. Self-Efficacy Principle

The average score of the questionnaire survey in Table 4 shows differences in the perception of respondents between men and women on the SE principle. Mostly the respondents feel comfortable and recommend tourist destinations to others.

3. Confidence

A good TD is the one in which tourists can perform their activities without any difficulties (Wang and Xu, 2015). All respondents, males and females, locals and tourists, claimed to be able to perform their activities properly in the five TDs (see SEF01 in Table 4). There were no significantly different opinions between males and females. Although the respondents thought they could do activities properly, the residents, especially those living in Bukit Gundaling and Pasar

Buah, do not feel that the place is the most appropriate for doing activities (see SEF02 in Table 4). Locals tended to less appreciate their place but the tourists did. Locals tend to respond negatively to tourism activities in their place because they are more perceive towards the losses they generated than the profits they got (Guo et al., 2014). The respondents stated that the TDs’ operators provided enough and good experience and information (see SEF03 in Table 4).

Table 4. The perception of male and female respondent on self-efficacy

NO	BUKIT GUNDALING				BUKIT KUBU				PASAR BUAH				TERJUN				DESA LINGGA				MEAN
	LOCAL		TOURIST		LOCAL		TOURIST		LOCAL		TOURIST		LOCAL		TOURIST		LOCAL		TOURIST		
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
SEF01	3.45	2.94	3.00	3.22	3.37	3.44	3.36	3.45	3.08	3.13	3.27	3.52	3.24	3.20	3.05	3.35	3.48	3.07	3.29	3.58	3.27
SEF02	3.25	2.63	3.17	3.17	3.22	3.33	3.21	3.36	2.92	2.78	3.13	3.14	3.48	3.13	2.89	3.06	3.14	3.00	2.83	2.50	3.07
SEF03	3.55	2.88	3.44	3.39	3.33	3.22	3.57	3.50	2.85	3.09	3.67	3.33	3.33	3.07	3.26	3.53	3.38	3.13	3.83	3.75	3.36
SEF04	3.45	2.63	3.28	3.17	3.37	3.22	3.29	3.64	3.00	3.04	3.40	3.48	3.10	3.13	3.11	3.35	3.29	3.07	3.17	3.33	3.23
SEF05	3.50	2.81	3.50	3.39	3.70	3.44	3.79	3.82	3.15	3.30	3.73	3.48	3.48	3.47	3.05	3.71	3.48	3.40	3.75	3.75	3.49
SEF06	2.90	2.50	2.89	2.67	3.41	3.44	3.21	3.50	3.00	2.87	2.47	2.90	2.81	2.53	2.84	2.94	2.67	2.40	3.54	3.08	2.93
SEF07	3.65	3.00	3.50	3.28	3.59	3.11	3.93	3.77	3.31	3.43	3.47	3.38	3.38	3.33	3.26	3.47	3.43	3.27	3.58	3.58	3.44
SEF08	3.25	2.50	2.83	2.83	3.44	3.44	3.43	3.45	2.92	2.57	3.00	2.95	3.00	3.13	2.74	3.24	3.00	3.00	2.83	3.17	3.04
SEF09	3.20	2.56	3.22	2.94	3.48	3.11	3.50	3.32	2.69	2.35	2.93	2.86	3.05	2.87	2.95	3.35	2.90	3.07	2.83	2.67	2.99
SEF10	2.60	2.44	2.50	2.22	3.37	3.33	3.29	3.41	2.77	2.43	2.27	2.43	2.90	2.80	2.63	2.88	2.48	2.60	2.50	2.25	2.71
SEF11	3.30	2.69	3.22	3.11	3.48	3.56	3.36	3.64	3.00	3.04	3.27	3.33	3.10	3.20	3.16	3.47	3.00	2.87	3.54	3.58	3.25
SEF12	2.95	2.25	3.06	2.94	3.22	3.00	3.50	3.14	2.54	2.52	2.53	2.81	2.29	2.47	2.74	3.06	2.90	2.80	3.29	3.08	2.85
SEF13	3.10	2.44	3.22	2.72	3.30	3.33	3.29	3.09	2.69	2.87	2.27	2.95	2.86	3.07	2.63	3.47	2.71	2.67	3.17	3.00	2.94
SEF14	3.25	2.63	3.11	2.78	3.41	3.33	2.93	3.32	2.85	2.91	2.53	3.05	2.67	2.73	2.79	3.24	3.19	3.00	3.21	3.25	3.01
SEF15	2.80	2.31	2.89	2.83	3.33	3.56	3.71	3.73	3.00	2.78	2.33	3.10	2.67	3.13	3.26	3.59	3.19	2.93	2.92	2.83	3.04
MEAN	3.21	2.61	3.12	2.98	3.40	3.33	3.42	3.48	2.92	2.88	2.95	3.11	3.02	3.02	2.96	3.31	3.08	2.95	3.22	3.16	3.11

Interestingly, the average of female respondents (locals and tourists) tended to have lower SE than male respondents did. Females, when in a TD, were more likely to have bad experience than the males do (Yang et al., 2017). The low response from females to Yang et.al.’s statement shows that they had more bad experience than men did in the TDs. Therefore, it is necessary to improve thesecurity and comfort for women in the TDs. According to respondents,the information they obtained from outside is the same as the real information in the research areas (see SEF04 in Table 4). Although the responses from males and females tended to be the same but the females’ responseswere higher than males, due to the fact that females usually provided better for their tours compared to males (Yoo et al., 2017). Therefore, females responded more actively; in contrast to the previous statement, the respondents’ responsesto recommendthe TDs to others were positive (see SEF05 in Table 4); responses from male respondents tended to be higher than female. A tourist recommending a TD can be caused by good experience he/she got during his/her visits (Antón et al., 2017). Female respondents, based on the previous statement (see SEF3 in Table 4), had worse experiences than males who were less likely to share their experiences. TD needs to have information centers so they can provide clear information and improve visitor knowledge (Shavanddasht et al., 2017; Ginting et al., 2021).

The respondents’ responses to the statement in information centre was quite low (see SEF06 in Table 4) because of adequate information centre in the TDs except Bukit Kubu that had the information centre because it is managed by the private party (Figure 3). An information centre in a TD is essential not only to provide information about the TD for tourists, especially new tourists, but also to promote crafts and souvenirs made by local people (Ballantyne et al., 2009). In case of lower females’ responses than males’ onesare in line with the previous statement (see SEF04 in Table 4). This is also in line with the main respondents’ statement: “The condition of the information center in Pasar Buah is inadequate. Its roof is mossy and loose. In addition, there is also a loose ceramic wall. So the place should have been repaired and maintained, but that hasn't been realized yet.” (key respondent from local figure).

Figure 3. Information center at Bukit Kubu (Source: own collection, 2018)

Figure 4. Toilet at Bukit Kubu (Source: own collection, 2018)

With regard toself-confidence, male respondents are more confident than female are, especially who were visiting Bukit Gundaling and Desa Lingga because they thought that they spent masculine activities like picnic and sightseeing. Females proved to be more confident in Pasar Buah since their activities looked feminine. This phenomenon is in line with the opinion stated by Hallak et al. (2015) in which males are more confident doing masculine activities than women, and vice versa. The results were due to the striking differences between males and females of local respondents; for tourists, different confidence between males and females women were not conspicuous. For example, in the Sipiso-Piso waterfall, female tourists were more confident than male ones are although the TD offered masculine activities like climbing.

4. Comfort

Someone who is comfortable with a TD would be happy and have a high SE for the destination (Ujang, 2017). Based on the survey results, respondents thought they felt comfortable in the destinations (see SEF07 in Table 4); however, the responses from female respondents was lower than that of male respondents. The TDs that are not clean will make the tourists feel uncomfortable (Alfonzo, 2005). Respondents' responses to the statement about the trash in the tourism areasvaried; however, most respondents reacted negatively (se SEF08 in Table 4) because of, unfortunately, no adequate garbage can. Although females' responses were more positive than males' ones, there was no significant differences. Similar to previous statements, the statement about the seating facilities in the TDs was also responded fairly negative by the respondents (see SEF 9 in Table 4). Providing seats at the destinations were urgently needed to reduce the tourists' fatigue (Zakaria and Ujang, 2015). Interestingly, most female responses are much lower than male ones because physically females were weaker than males (Plamondon et al., 2017). Therefore, females were more easily tired and needed more seat than males did. Not much differentwith the previous statement, the clean and adequate public toilets were also responded negatively by the respondents (see SEF10 in Table 4) since toilets were the most important facilities in the TDs (Ja'afar et al., 2012). Unfortunately, in the research areas, toilet facilities were not clean and adequate (Figure 4). This is also in line with the main respondents' statement: "We will lose our appetite if we go to the toilet before eating. Every place has to build a restroom, and it is fine to pay for it if it is always well-maintained" (key respondent from Travel Association). Even though, public toilet facilities that are clean and have water available will provide comfort for tourists (Simanjuntak andSyahputra, 2021). Moreover, the responses from female respondents tended to be lower than the malesdid andthis is consistent with the statement by Wright-St et al. (2017) who argued that femaleswere more concerned and more self-care than males. Therefore, females needed clean and adequate toilets higher than males did.

Overall, male respondents felt more comfortable compared to female on the basis of cleanliness and physic; however, with reference with hygiene, females were more concerned than males although they were weak. The phenomenon is still in line with previous statements stating that the males' SE is higher than females' (Hallak et al., 2015; Ghanian et al., 2017). In case of self-confidence, females' low response was influenced by the striking differences between them, and males; among local repsondents, males were higher than females and among the tourists, the difference was not visible, especially in the Sipiso-Piso Waterfall, although the response from female tourists was higher than male ones.

5. Safety

Security is the most important factor for an attraction because tourists only need to visit a safe TD (Amir et al., 2015). Most respondents thought they felt safe while in the research areas (see SEF11 in Table 4). However, the response fro male respondents to the statement tended to be lower than that of female ones. This is in contrast to the results of research conducted by Yang et al. (2017) in which females were more likely to feel insecure in a TD than males.

When asked about the street lamps, some respondents responded slightly negative (see SEF12 in Table 4) because of no sufficient street lamps in the destinations; others argued street lamps were not so needed since they only stayed there only till afternoon. Actually, lamps in the TDs are a must to provide a sense of security for tourists when traveling and stimulate themto stay longer (Movahed et al., 2012; Murray and Feng, 2016). A respondent stated: "For the tourism development in KR, the first crucial aspect to improve is accessibility. When we are travelling in the TDs in the afternoon, a crime is surely potential to occur. Thus, good accessibility is required where the provision of signs and of evening lamps in the TDs are really important" (Respondent: Head of Tourism Planning Program). With regard to the statement of Movahed et al., (2012) females did not respond anthusiastically indicating that, although females tended to feel more secure with security-related facilities, they were more concerned than males. Overall, for security-related statements, responses from both males and females were equally positive. Moreover, on average, there was no significant difference between the two sexes.

6. Accessibility

Accessibility becomes an essential aspect in SE and tourism in which tourists would more easily visit TDs that have good accessibility which stimulates them to come to tourist places (Chin et al., 2014); the accessibility is the pedestrian path. The physical quality of the pedestrian path is essential in making it easier for tourists to explore tourist destinations (Wibowo et al., 2021). Accessibility will affect visitors feel comfortable and not comfortable, which will affect visitors' SE (Jaelani et al., 2020). Most respondents (see SEF13 in Table 4) responded negatively about pedestrian paths in the TDs. Paths were not sufficient, had holes and bad surface, and were uncomfortable to walk on (Figure 5). Low responses came from females but males had different responses about paths and even in someTDs responses from both sexes were very significantly different because females prefered to walk and to relax than males (Pollard and Wagnild, 2017). Therefore, with poor condition of pedestrian paths, females felt uncomfortable and unhappy. Similarly, being asked about the condition of public transport, responses from most respondents tend to be negative (see SEF14 in Table 4) because public transports in the TDs were not adequate. Ideally, public transport in tourist areas is significant because it is associated with the ease of tourists to visit a tourist attraction (Amir et al., 2015). However, responses from males seemed to be lower than of the females’. Parking space would affect tourists’ desire to return to the destinations they have ever visited (Snider et al., 2015). Unfortunately, not much different from the previous two statements, the statement related to the adequate parking lots were also responded negatively by the respondents (see SEF15 in Table 4) since parking areas, for instance in Bukit Kubu, were not sufficient. The statement is in line with the following statement: “Inadequate parking area in Berastagi is a crucial problem. No space for loading and unloading local products often disturbs tourists. Local police also applied traffic simulation to overcome the crowded traffic flow, that is, cars are not allowed to pass and park any longer in Brastagi” (Respondent: Hotel Manager). Interestingly from all areas of study, for accessibility-related statements, females tend to be higher than males. Only in Bukit Gundaling and Desa Lingga, females were lower than males. However, self-efficacy between the two sexes, females’ self-efficacy is noted to be lower, so, in this case, such statement is not applicable in the research areas (Hallak et al., 2015).

Figure 5. Pedestrian path in Pasar Buah
(Source: own collection, 2018)

CONCLUSION

Self-Efficacy (SE) refers to a person’s belief about his ability to well perform an activity in a place. In this study, gender affects the level of self-efficacy (LSE) in tourist destinations especially for local people. The level of self-efficacy (LSE) for females is not always lower than males. The tourists’ activities which are categorized as masculine proved that the females’ SE is higher than males. However, what needs to be examined more deeply is related to the aspects that affect the LSE since theoretically, the males’ SE proved to be higher than females are only found among local people. The differences can be influenced by the respondents’ levels of education and age.

Age and education are influential for SE because, for instance, a person who is old, has lower SE than that of younger one; someone with a lower education has lower SE than any other person who has higher education. Furthermore, in the development of tourism which is based on the tourists’s SE, preference of gender does not need to be considered. However, if the development of tourism is done on the basis locals’ SE, then the preference of gender is really needed. The high level of SE will increase visitor satisfaction with the place. The further research will be directed to other tourist’s destinations which are especially located in the urban areas in which the results are hoped to be different with this research and the preferences of the urban community will certainly differ from that of the rural community.

Acknowledgement

The Authors would acknowledge their gratitude to the Indonesian Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education for its financial support and to the Universitas Sumatra Utara (USU) for its TALENTA scheme of PUU in the Year 2017 with Grant Number: 42/UN5.2.3.1/PPM/KPTALENTA USU/2017. We would also thank the USU’s Sustainable Tourism Working Group andthe students of the USU’s Department of Architecture, Faculty of Engineering.

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Article history: Received: 23.09.2021 Revised: 29.12.2021 Accepted: 01.02.2022 Available online: 23.01.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.225-231
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40127-823

PLANNING A SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DESTINATION FOCUSING ON TOURISTS' EXPECTATIONS, PERCEPTIONS AND EXPERIENCES

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Citation: Kyriakaki, A., & Kleinaki, M. (2022). PLANNING A SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DESTINATION FOCUSING ON TOURISTS' EXPECTATIONS, PERCEPTIONS AND EXPERIENCES. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 225–231. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40127-823

Abstract: This study aims to research the special characteristics, expectations and experiences of the tourists a destination attracts and elaborate them during sustainable tourism planning in the effort to (re)build a destination. Research conducted in southern Chania, Crete, Greece based a) on a structured questionnaire to capture the characteristics of tourists visiting the area, their motivation and opinions b) a content analysis of the material posted on "Trip Advisor" in order to understand the perceived image of the area. Cluster analysis highlighted three groups a) the eternal lovers, b) the devoted families and c) the adventurers. All groups declared a high degree of satisfaction and loyalty to the destination and a strong interest in sustainable and alternative tourism. Nevertheless, the commercial image of the area continues to focus on the model "Sun - Sea - Sand", without sufficiently highlighting other local resources. The results can be the basis for the enrichment and upgrading of the quality of the existing tourism product, to be supported by a management model under the UN SDGs. This approach is expected to increase the competitiveness of the destination and lead to sustainable development.

Key words: Sustainability, alternative tourism, destination planning, tourists' clusters, Crete Greece

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INTRODUCTION

The profound change of the existing model of tourism development seems to be imperative for a number of small and medium-sized "Sun-Sea-Sand" Greek tourism destinations, which can be classified as "mature". These destinations have completed the successive stages of development-growth and entered a state of stagnation as shown by the stabilization in the growth rate of arrivals, the zero increase in beds, the reduced competitiveness, the almost homogeneous tourism product (Sarantakou, 2017). A new tourism development pattern based on quality, innovation and sustainability (López-Sánchez and Pulido-Fernández, 2016) with the enrichment of the tourism product (Prince and Ioannides, 2016) seems to be the best option for this type of destination in order to increase their attractiveness and competitiveness and ultimately reach the "rejuvenation" stage. During the last years, the concept of sustainability has been a hot topic for discussion in the tourism industry. Two facts highlighted its importance and accelerated the priority of its implementation: a) The issuance by the United Nations of the 2030 Agenda and the relevant, Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), through which states, the public and the private sector are encouraged to plan and measure their contribution to sustainable development by 2030 b) the pandemic of Covid-19, which has allowed the tourism industry to take a step back and assess the opportunity to improve its quality and become more thoughtful. Understanding of sustainable tourism has been limited almost exclusively to the supply perspective although tourist behaviour and attitudes play a key role when a mature destination aims to be reformed in a competitive and sustainable tourism destination (López-Sánchez and Pulido-Fernández, 2016). According to Kastenholz et al. (2018), visitors with sustainable behaviour play an important role in sustainable development promotion, not only during their visit but also in the long term, acting as positive word-of-mouth.

Based on the above argument, the study analyses the tourism demand of the south-western (SW) front of the Chania Regional Unit, Crete, Greece, a destination where tourism development began in the 70's and evolved in the coastal zone attracting a limited number of outbound tourist flows. The main aim of this article is to investigate the tourists' mindset, expectations and experiences and incorporate them into a sustainable tourism planning in the study area.

Research in the rural tourism market shows that particular tourist profiles, motivations and travel behaviours, imply more sustainable development opportunities than others, by promoting sustainability not only during the visit, but also in the long term by encouraging future visits not only by the visitor but also by others through positive word-of-mouth (Kastenholz et al., 2018). Sustainable travel behaviour is related to social interaction with local residents, nature and culture preservation, appreciating local products and activities, saving resources and recycling, engaging in nature and culture activities (Kastenholz et al., 2018). According to López-Sánchez and Pulido-Fernández (2016), assessing the

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meaning of sustainability from the tourist's perspective is a trending topic during sustainable development planning. Additionally, segmenting the tourism market and determining the characteristics of the clusters is crucial for a destination that aims to (re)position itself in the market as a sustainable tourism destination (Paulino et al., 2021). Furthermore, the motives of tourists, whether related to the attitudes, goals and needs that push them to travel (push factors) or to the characteristics that make a destination attractive (pull factors) are the main tools during the decision making process (Fraiz et al., 2020; Kyriakaki et al., 2019). Their study is increasingly important in understanding consumer behaviours as the motivations and needs of the tourists become more complicated, while at the same time the variety of options and tourism destinations is growing. Satisfaction from travel is also a compound concept that is mainly related to the emotional and perceptible values of the visitor. In any case, combined with the image of the destination, it is a crucial parameter for assessing the loyalty of the visitor to a destination and the intention to visit and to recommend it to acquaintances (Artuger and Çetinsöz, 2017; Carvache-Franco et al., 2020; Chiu et al., 2016; Kastenholz et al., 2018; Kyriakaki et al., 2017; Kyriakaki et al., 2016; Veasna et al., 2013). In addition, the destination image i.e. "the beliefs, ideas and impressions people have about a place or destination" (Artuger and Çetinsöz, 2017), is crucial in decision making. Tsartas et al. (2010) state that the differences between destinations consist in different ways in which someone imagines them. Given the explosive development of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT), the promotion of a place through digital visual and verbal content is the main tool of modern destination marketing. As stated by Cuenca et al. (2020), an adequate communication strategy can help in the construction of a particular brand identity. Assuming the importance of using visual content tools for the promotion of destinations, it is a matter of relevance for tourism organizations to know if the communication image is consistent with the information they want to convey.

According to Rate et al. (2018), tourism planning aims to take into account a number of factors related to the development of tourism (social, cultural, economic, physical, technical/technological, international relations, communication and infrastructure, administrative, legal and policy-making) as well as their future development to ensure that a destination remains attractive, providing the necessary guidance to increase its competitiveness and address its weaknesses. Therefore, tourism planning organizes the future of a tourism destination to achieve specific goals, acting as a guide for decision making. In particular, in the case of sustainable tourism development, planning has three main objectives (Ruhanen, 2010): a) maintain the value of local resources, b) provide a high quality experience to the tourists during the interaction with local resources, c) maximize the returned economic, social and environmental value in the host community.It is clear that the holistic approach of sustainable tourism development in relation to the environment, the society, the economy, requires a strategic approach with a generalized vision and a broader time frame in comparison to conventional tourism planning. Therefore, a participatory strategic planning is suggested that aims at developing a strong connection of both locals and tourists to the destination and its resources, better knowledge of how the tourism sector operates, strengthening of cooperation, mutual respect, and gaining environmental awareness. The complication of tourism destinations makes strategic planning a challenge due to the large number of the stakeholders involved. However, the prevailing approach to tourism planning is based on immediate profit, increasing volumes of tourists and facilities and ad-hoc treatment of opportunities and issues, simply providing short-term solutions to substantially long-term problems (Ruhanen, 2010; Soulard et al., 2018; Dolnicar, 2020; Rizal, 2020).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study area: The research area is the SW front of the Chania Regional Unit, Crete, Greece which administratively belongs to the municipality of Kantanos-Selino. It has strong locality elements due to its natural resources (most of them belong to Natura 2000 network), the unique ecological identity, the combination of gorges, mountains and sea landscape, the rich tangible and intangible cultural heritage and the authenticity of the local residents..The coastal zone is an area of moderate residential and tourism development around the settlements of Paleochora and Sougia. The mountainous hinterland includes many untouched small villages and settlements. The economy of the region is based on tourism but also on the primary sector. The tourism supply is characterized by small and medium size businesses which are concentrated almost exclusively in the coastal zone. The area, which is 70 km away from the main tourism city of Chania, has been developed as a destination with mixed development characteristics as mass tourism and alternative forms of tourism coexist in the area. According to the Hellenic Chamber of Hotels registry (personal communication, May 19, 2020), in 2019 the area had 20 hotels (all categories), 412 rooms and 806 beds. The area attracts a standard core of tourists as in 2018, 11,636 international and 2,269 domestic tourists visited the area which amounted to 1.2% of the inbound and 2.3% of the international and domestic tourism respectively visiting Chania Regional Unit (Hellenic Statistical Authority, 2019).

The research aims: The main aim of this study is to investigate tourist needs, expectations and experiences and involve them in a sustainable tourism planning of the area in order to rejuvenate the destination.

The research questions are as follows:

- Which types of tourists choose the area as a travel destination?
- How familiar and aware are the tourists with the concepts of mass tourism, alternative tourism and sustainability?
- What are the motivations of the tourists and how do they ultimately evaluate their experiences and their intention to revisit or recommend the destination?
- What is the current 'destination image" and to what extent is it harmonized with the motivations and expectations of the tourists?
- How could the mindset, expectations and experiences of the tourists be utilized in order to transform the area into a sustainable destination?

The Research Methods: Two surveys were conducted during the period August - October 2019. A primary quantitative research was conducted using a structured questionnaire. Convenience sampling was chosen as a non-probability sampling technique of drawing data due to unavailability of resources. The sample was selected from a portion of the population (international tourists) because of its convenient accessibility and proximity to the researchers (Babbie, 2011; Christou, 1999). 350 questionnaires were distributed in co-operation with local hotels and 191 responses collected (N=191). The questionnaire contained 70 questions grouped in 8 sections. An initial draft of the questionnaire was piloted and improvements and corrections were made for the final version. Sociodemographic and travel characteristics of tourists at the survey area were assessed by 17 closed questions. Tourists' motivations, perceived experiences and opinions about local resources and attractions were captured by 45 closed-type questions, the majority of which were measured on a 5-point Likert scale. A group of 5 open-ended questions targeted to the views of the respondents, in relation to the basic concepts of "mass tourism", "alternative tourism" and "sustainable development". Also, through a 10-point scale, an attempt was made to rate the current image of the area as an alternative tourism destination and an open-ended question asked respondents to cite European destinations where alternative forms of tourism were successfully developed.

Table 1. Profile of Tourist Clusters ([a]1: Never – 5: Very often)

		Eternal Lovers	**Devoted Families**	**Adventurers**
Size of the cluster		0.36	0.34	0.30
Parameter	Categories	%	%	%
Age	18-25		13.3	15.4
	26-49		50.0	65.4
	50-64	64.5	30.0	19.2
	65+	35.5	6.7	0.0
Nationality	German	0.13	0.23	0.19
	Austrian	0.13	0.03	0.35
	British	0.26	0.07	0.08
	French	0.06	0.20	0.08
	Italian	0.00	0.17	0.04
	Other EU	0.13	0.03	0.12
	Other non-EU	0.10	0.13	0.04
	Unknown	0.19	0.13	0.12
Marital Status	Single	38.7	6.7	26.9
	Couple	58.1	3.3	69.2
	Couples with children	3.2	83.3	3.8
Level of Education	Primary	6.5	13.3	19.2
	Secondary	35.5	20.0	38.5
	Tertiary	54.8	60.0	42.3
Employment Status	Employee	25.8	36.7	57.7
	Self-Employed	29.0	43.3	19.2
	Retired	38.7	3.3	3.8
	Student	0.0	10.0	15.4
Annual Household Income	up to 20,000€	3.2	20.0	11.5
	21,000-40,000€	32.3	23.3	30.8
	41,000-65,000€	12.9	13.3	15.4
	>65,000€	22.6	20.0	15.4
Whom you visit with	Alone	35.5	3.3	3.8
	Couple	61.3	0.0	61.5
	Family	0.0	80.0	0.0
	Friends	0.0	0.0	34.6
	Family &Friends	3.2	16.7	0.0
Travel Booking	Tour Operator	16.1	6.7	0.0
	On your own (Internet)	77.4	90.0	84.6
	Other	3.2	3.3	15.4
Information Source for Holidays Planning	Tour Operator[a]	(1.9)	(1.7)	(1.5)
	Friends &Family[a]	(3.2)	(3.7)	(3.8)
	Internet & Social Media[a]	(3.9)	(4.3)	(4.5)
	Media (TV, Magazines)[a]	(2.2)	(2.2)	(2.2)
Travel duration	2-4 days	3.2	0.0	46.2
	1 week	25.8	36.7	34.6
	between 1and 2 weeks	6.5	3.3	7.7
	2 weeks	48.4	50.0	11.5
	> 2 weeks	16.1	10.0	0.0
Frequency of visits to the area	1st time	6.5	30.0	57.7
	2nd time		20.0	15.4
	more than 2 times	93.5	50.0	26.9
Other areas of Crete included in travel	No	48.4	46.7	19.2
	Chania Regional Unit	41.9	30.0	38.5
	Other areas of Crete	6.5	20.0	34.6

The last group included 3 single-answer multiple-choice questions in relation to the respondents' intentions to revisit the destination, recommend it to acquaintances and friends, and actively participate in a network to promote sustainable practices in the area. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, version 26.0) was used to analyse the data. The implemented statistics analysis were descriptive (numerical and graphical) and inferential (ANOVA test, Chi-square test-x^2 test, alpha level=.05). Cluster analysis and Factor analysis were also carried out to determine the tourists' clusters and to classify the tourism motivation and expectation, respectively. Methodology was based on the study of Carvache-Franco et al. (2020). The second survey included a content analysis of the photo posts and evaluations posted at 'Trip Advisor' by tourists having visited the survey area. The purpose was to comparatively evaluate the primary data in order to obtain a more integrated and documented opinion about the destination image as perceived by the tourists (Cuenca et al., 2020; Tsartas et al., 2010). A random sample representing the 50% of the uploaded photos by the 26th June, 2020 was analyzed i.e. 3,897 photos for Paleochora and 642 photos for Sougia. The main themes of each photo post were classified into 8 categories in accordance with tourists' motivations. 'Trip advisor' reviews and ratings were also used to assess the popularity and quality of experience of local attractions and activities combined with relevant questionnaire responses.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

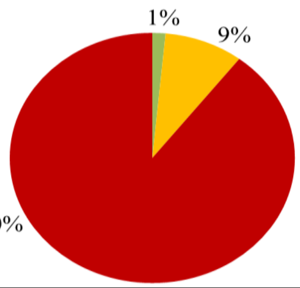
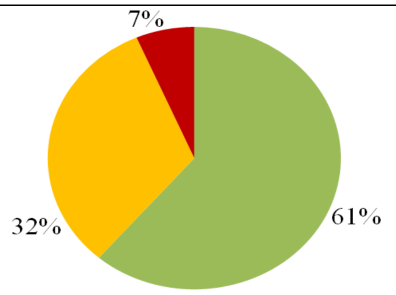
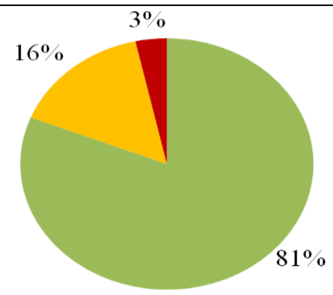
Cluster analysis of the respondents according to their sociodemographic and travel characteristics concluded that the variables “age”, “travel group”, “travel duration” and “frequency of visits” were stronger correlated (Table 1). Therefore, the following three clusters were identified:

The eternal lovers: They are comparatively the largest group (35.6 %). They are 50+ years old, have a high level of education, a middle annual household income and are mostly retired. They are devoted to the area as the vast majority has visited it more than 2 times. Their trip usually lasts two weeks or more and often includes other areas of Chania Regional Unit. They organize their own trip using the Internet and Social Media as a source of information to plan their holidays.

The devoted families: Equally important group (34.5%). They are couples with children who belong to the age group 26-49 and travel as a family. They have a middle annual household income, a high level of education and are self-employed or employees. They like the area and the majority have visited it at least 2 times. Their journey usually lasts one to two weeks and often includes other areas of Crete. They almost always organize their own trip using the Internet and Social Media as a source of information to plan their holidays.

The adventurers: This group (29.9%) concerns younger couples belonging to the age category 26-49. Most have a university or higher degree of education and a middle income while they are mainly employees. The majority visited the area for the first time and their trip lasts a maximum one week as it often includes other areas of Crete. They organize their trip almost exclusively on their own using the Internet and Social Media as a source of information to plan their holidays. All respondents have a clear view of the negative effects of mass tourism as opposed to the positive ones of sustainable development. Alternative tourism is viewed positively but its context seems unclear. The comparative figure is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Standpoints about tourism models

Mass Tourism	Alternative Tourism	Sustainable Development
“low income/low behaviour”	“vacation for individuals”	“good compromise between comfort, nature and culture”
		
Positive	Neutral	Negative

In relation to mass tourism, the answers of the respondents focus on a tourism model, which exceeds the carrying capacity of an area and leads to overcrowding mainly in the coastal areas with countless sunbeds, oversized all-inclusive hotels, noise, huge queues in front of tourism facilities or attractions, air and sea pollution, inability to relax, lack of authenticity, inability to explore an area and alienation of the local community because of tourism.

The model of alternative tourism is characterized as a "special way to travel - beyond the ordinary", which gives freedom and opportunities to explore hidden places and new ways of entertainment and enjoyment, while maintaining the idea of "minimal". The harmony between the tourism and local development and culture is emphasized, as well as the possibility to enjoy nature and experience the balance of tourism and the environment. Alternative forms of tourism activities include hiking, cycling, diving, safaris, yoga, agrotourism, ecotourism, acquaintance with local traditions and products, slow food. Concerns are expressed as to whether alternative tourism could introduce a new type of mass tourism.

Regarding the model of sustainable development, this is highlighted as a development strategy "for the good of us all". The respondents emphasized the concept of balance between society, economy and the environment, as well as the importance of reducing impact for the benefit of future generations. It is interesting that sustainable development is seen "as a good combination between comfort, environment and culture". The implementation of sustainability is considered important "for the preservation of the beauty of Crete", provided it includes the participation and support of the local community. Good practices proposed by respondents mainly relate to environmental protection such as reducing the use of plastics, waste treatment, use of renewable energy sources, reducing the volume of waste, recycling, organic farming and small-scale construction. It is worth noting that 53% of respondents are positive about their participation as volunteers in the development and implementation of sustainable practices in the region.

The above highlighted interests and opinions regarding tourism models, are also clearly represented in the respondents main motivations for visiting the destination, grouped to identify the prevailing trends and to correlate them with the results from clustering. As shown in Table 3, the unique 'Natural Environment' of the area in combination with the 'Sea & Sun' experience and the opportunity for 'Relaxation & Activities' are the key factors that motivate the respondents to travel and choose the specific destination. Moreover, they look for the 'Local authentic experience' in terms of culture, gastronomy and local products. The overall degree of satisfaction from the travel experience for all clusters is high (4.6 out of 5.0) and the close relationship between satisfaction, loyalty and recommendation is verified by the research data. The higher the level of satisfaction (for the study area) the more favourable the future behaviours- recommendation and intention to return. Tourists with 'very positive' travel experience, declared a 74% intention to revisit the area x^2 (2, N=191)=10.74, p < .05 and a 72% willingness to recommend it as a holiday destination to their friends and family x^2 (2, N=191)=12.47, p < .05.

Table 3. Motivation and Quality of Experience

Main Motivation[a]	Eternal Lovers	Devoted Families	Adventurers	Overall Expected[a,c]	Overall Perceived[b]
The local authentic experience	**2.9**	**3.5**	**3.1**	**3.2**	**4.1**
Gastronomy	3.8	4.1	3.8	3.9	4.5
Culture (Monuments & Attractions)	2.5	3.4	2.9	3.1	3.7
Culture (Local Traditions & Events)	2.4	3.2	2.6	2.9	3.7
Local Products	3.0	3.3	2.9	3.2	4.3
Relaxation &Activities	**3.9**	**3.9**	**3.6**	**3.8**	**4.4**
Sports & Activities	2.4	2.7	2.8	2.7	3.9
Relaxation & Tranquillity	4.8	4.7	4.3	4.6	4.7
Local Hospitality	4.6	4.3	3.7	4.2	4.7
Sea & Sun	**4.1**	**4.0**	**3.9**	**4.0**	**4.4**
Sea & Sun	4.9	4.8	4.9	4.9	4.8
Low Prices	3.4	3.2	2.9	3.2	3.9
Natural Environment	**4.9**	**4.8**	**4.6**	**4.7**	**4.9**
[a] 1: Not at all important – 5: Very important; [b] 1: Very Negative – 5: Very Positive				**3.9**	**4.6**
[c] KMO Index =0.556 Bartlett's Sphericity test ($\chi 2$=104.92, df =45, Sig. 0.000<0.05)					

Of particular interest is the observation that in most of the motivation factors examined, the perceived experience surpasses the expected one. These findings prove that the destination, except for the classic dominant product "Sea & Sun", has additional competitive advantages, which the visitors discover during their travel and are related to locality elements and alternative forms of tourism (sports & activities, local products, gastronomy, cultural resources). This research element is largely correlated with the monothematic "commercial" image promoted for the destination, as confirmed by additional research findings analysed below. The commercial image of the area has been accessed by analyzing thematically the photos included in the travel platform, 'Trip Advisor' and concern the two main tourism poles i.e. the cities of Paleochora and Sougia. The main themes of each photo were categorized in accordance with the motivations that lead the traveller to the area. The results are depicted in Table 4. In the case of Paleochora, the image is dominated by the sea and the beach (68%) while the settlement and lifestyle follow. Sougia's image is dominated by the relaxed lifestyle (35%) in combination with the sea and the beach (26%) and the natural landscape (23%). It is noteworthy that in both destinations the themes related to culture, attractions, activities and gastronomy are low in popularity. In terms of attractions and activities in the area, assessment was based on two pillars: the input from questionnaires and the reviews from Trip Advisor. The most significant activities, in terms of popularity and quality of experience, concern local gastronomy and hiking (gorges crossing) while many other attractions and activities show low popularity and levels of experience. These results are confirmed by the reviews posted on Trip Advisor.

Table 4. The Image of the Main Tourism Poles (Source: Own elaboration based on Trip Advisor.com data)

Photo main theme	Paleochora	Sougia
Beach	35%	10%
Sea	33%	16%
Settlement	9%	-
Natural Landscape	5%	23%
Lifestyle	9%	35%
Activities	4%	6%
Culture & Attractions	4%	7%
Gastronomy	1%	3%

The overall assessment of tourism resources is very positive (Mean=4.1/5). More specific, hospitality, relationship with the locals, quality of catering and accommodation, Tranquility, safety and respect of privacy are the main strengths of the destination. However, infrastructure, local transport, accessibility and the quality of entertainment are pointed out as sections requiring improvement. A main weakness is identified as the low environmental awareness shown by the locals. A number of actions to correct this, are proposed by the respondents and include environmental awareness campaigns reducing the use of plastic (bags, glasses, straws), the provision of running drinking water instead of an overconsumption of plastic bottles, the separation and recycling of waste, the avoidance of throwing plastic items into the sea. Therefore, the overall grading of the area as an alternative tourism destination was scored at 7.3/10 (SD=1,94), clearly indicating the alternative character but also the room for improvement. Findings show a remarkable profile of inbound tourism. The area attracts mainly visitors from Central and Western Europe, with middle or high income and higher education, who organize their trip on their own and stay for at least 2 weeks. The segmentation based on their special characteristics highlighted three clusters groups of equivalent weight: the "Eternal Lovers”, the "Devoted Families" and the "Adventurers". All visitors are characterized by a high degree of satisfaction and loyalty to the venue, which is a very positive element for area’s promotion. Moreover, the observed repeated visits in 70% of tourist flows combined with the relatively high age profile of visitors, may be a reason for shrinking incoming tourism in the future. Consequently, the "Adventurers", who represent 30% of the total, who visited the area for the first time and are younger, are the most dynamic and prominent cluster.

The choice of this alternative tourism destination instead of mass tourism is a conscious decision and is related to their strong interest in sustainability and in minimizing the negative impact of tourism development. The low performance of the area in relation to the environment is treated with similar interest and concern by respondents, resulting in the area being ranked as an alternative destination but with room for improvement. In this context, Juvan and Dolnicar point out that tourists can help to reduce negative environmental impacts *“by making environmentally sustainable vacation and behaving in an environmentally sustainable manner while at the destination*” (2016:30).

Apart from the need for relaxation and contact with nature, the interest of tourists in activities related to the environment, culture and the authentic local experience is substantial, while their perceived experience of such activities exceeds their expectations. Nevertheless, the commercial image of the area continues to focus on the "Sun - Sea - Sand" model and does not adequately promote complementary tourism resources, highlighting a gap between tourism supply and demand which should be addressed. In relation to the other characteristics of the area’s tourism product, safety, hospitality, tranquillity, catering and accommodation are its strong points while weaknesses concern infrastructure, accessibility, transport, entertainment and mainly environmental awareness. Adopting the above results, the researchers formulated a proposal for the new model of tourism development of the area which includes the enrichment and upgrade of the existing tourism product into a multi-faceted product that will balance the alternative forms of tourism the area can offer with coastal tourism and the local agri-food sector supported by a sustainable development management pattern. The adoption and implementation of the proposed model leads to a pioneering combination of coastal, rural and alternative tourism and is estimated to be a vehicle for the transformation of the SW front of Chania Regional Unit from an occasional alternative tourism destination to a sustainable alternative destination model that protects its assets/resources i.e. nature, culture, customs, locality, gastronomy, longevity, safety, hospitality, and at the same time meeting the motivations and expectations of the "modern tourists". The new tourism product will combine the unique experience of health, tranquillity and relaxation offered by the natural environment and the beaches of the area, with the active holidays through alternative forms of tourism, thus creating a variety of options to visit and a product that is attractive all year round (while easing the load of the coastal zone). Regarding the management model of tourism development, which is a key factor for the successful implementation of the upgraded tourism product, a model based on the principles of sustainable development is proposed as formulated by the Global Sustainable Tourism Council (GSTC, 2019) in agreement with the SDGs. The management model splits into four axes related to management, society, economy, culture and environment. This planning approach is expected to create competitive advantage for the destination and lead to sustainable development (Grilli et al., 2021).

CONCLUSION

According to López-Sánchez and Pulido-Fernández *“any competitive strategy for the positioning or repositioning of a destination should consider not only the supply-side perspective, but also the demand-side”* (2017:262). The above analysis points out that in the process of comprehensive planning for tourism and sustainable regeneration of a destination the important elements are not only the investigating and analysis of the main characteristics of the tourists who visit each destination but also their views, expectations and experiences. The current tourists have more travel experiences, as people today travel more than any other period. Doubtless, they are more informed about destinations, cultures, tourism services etc., are becoming more conscious of the environment and often seek destinations which are certified as sustainable.

In addition, modern tourists are gradually involved into a movement that prioritizes local culture and community over mass tourism. In this context, the sustainable strategic planning methodology is proposed to be based not only on the analysis of tourism resources and supply but also on tourism demand. The evaluation of the destination's image through primary research and content processing from digital tourism platforms may produce significant knowledge for local planners. Based on this information, it is possible to assess the current tourism development as well as to examine the potential for enriching the tourism product and to adapt a sustainable management model accordingly (Figure 1).

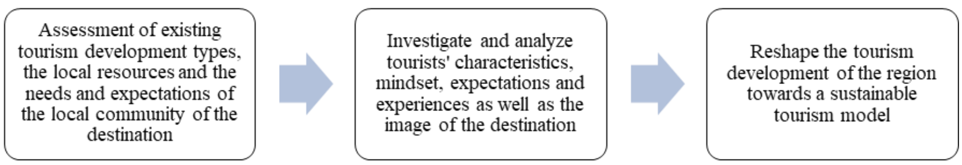


Figure 1. Strategic Planning Concept (Source: Own elaboration)

The researchers presented their proposal for sustainable rejuvenation to the municipal authority of the study area, in an effort to receive feedback, highlight the benefits and the challenges in its implementation. The local authorities consider that the biggest challenge would be the difficulty in changing the mentality of locals and especially those who are involved in tourism businesses as they do not share the need for change and continue to support a tourism model with weaknesses and low level of sustainability, which, in short term, continues to attract tourists and make a profit. The shock of the pandemic of Covid-19 could be a milestone fostering openness to change, with a new way of thinking and acting.

The research results could constitute the basis to measure changes in tourists' behaviour of the specific destination especially after the pandemic covid-19 as well as to quantify the impact of future local improvement initiatives. In addition, as further research, the methodological approach depicted can be applied to other destinations with similar characteristics which also need a sustainable rejuvenation. Its results could be used for comparative evaluation.

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Article history: Received: 19.09.2021 Revised: 21.12.2021 Accepted: 02.01.2022 Available online: 01.03.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.232-241
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40128-824

OUTDOOR TOURISM, KAYAKING, TOURISM POTENTIAL AND TOURISM OPERATIONS IN CENTRAL- EASTERN EUROPE: THE CASE OF POLAND

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Citation: Lewandowicz, E., & Bac-Bronowicz, J. (2022). OUTDOOR TOURISM, KAYAKING, TOURISM POTENTIAL AND TOURISM OPERATIONS IN CENTRAL- EASTERN EUROPE: THE CASE OF POLAND. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 232–241. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40128-824

Abstract: This article aimed to describe the potential of outdoor tourism in Poland, with emphasis on kayaking tours. Reports and strategy documents generated by the Polish Tourism Organization (PTO), spatial data, and information about tourism operators in Poland were processed and analyzed. An analysis of geographic data and business registers revealed considerable differences across Polish regions and the absence of a sustainable tourism development strategy in Poland. The results do not justify PTO's recommendations for promoting the development of outdoor tourism operators in selected Polish regions. The study demonstrated that in some Polish regions, the development of the tourist industry is contingent on the efforts made by local entrepreneurs, whereas other regions do not tap into their tourism potential despite ample natural resources for the development of water tourism. Entrepreneurship indicators in the outdoor tourism sector have generally increased in the last 46 years, but considerable differences are noted across Polish voivodeships. The study revealed that the development of outdoor tourism is highly fragmented and that strong local hubs of tourist activity exist at the local level. The interest in water tourism has increased markedly in the last two years because this form of active recreation promotes social distancing and can be safety practiced during the COVID-19 pandemic. The aim of this article was to describe the potential of outdoor tourism in Poland, with emphasis on kayaking tours. Reports and strategy documents generated by the Polish Tourism Organization (PTO), spatial data, and data about tourism operators in Poland were processed and analyzed. The study revealed that the development of outdoor tourism is highly fragmented and that strong local hubs of tourist activity exist at the local level. Tourists preferences for participating in kayaking tours in different voivodeships do not match the recommendations of the PTO.

Key words: outdoor tourism, adventure tourism, ecotourism, kayaking, outdoor tourism potential, tourism operators

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INTRODUCTION

The tourism potential of Central-Eastern Europe was recognized only in 1999 after the political and economic transformations in the region (Ivy and Copp, 1999). Considerable research on the development of tourism in this part of Europe was done in the following decades (Mazurski, 2000; Copp and Ivy, 2001; Marciszewska, 2006; Paesler, 2007; Hughes and Allen, 2009; Saarinen and Jarkko, 2017; Niewiadomski, 2018; Hall, 2020; Klitsounova, 2020). Central-Eastern Europe is open to changes in the tourist market and has vast potential for developing various types of tourism (Grzelak and Roszko-Wójtowicz, 2020). However, the growth of tourism in the region was initially hampered by the scarcity of the accompanying infrastructure, and it was limited to urban or city tourism. This negative trend was reversed as Central-European countries became more affluent. The region's rapid economic growth has led to new recreational development in attractive natural sites and in the vicinity of water bodies. Tourism is a major source of income. It contributes to regional development (Butler et al., 1997; Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda, 2002), which is why tourism operators should receive support. According to the literature, poorly developed regions in Eastern Europe find it difficult to harness their vast natural and geographic potential for sustainable tourism development (Hegarty and Przezborska, 2005).

The popularity of tourism and water sports is on the rise around the world (Gössling et al., 2012, 2015; Folgado-Fernández et al., 2018). Water bodies are used for a wide variety of outdoor recreational activities, including kayaking, water biking, water motorsports, sailing, windsurfing, scuba diving and iceboating. Water tourism is less popular in Central-Eastern Europe (Folgado-Fernández et al., 2018). However, according to Gössling et al. (2012), domestic and international tourism share in domestic water use is relatively low in Central-Eastern Europe (Figure 1). River and sea kayaking is an increasingly popular category of outdoor tourism. The development of water tourism is strongly linked with the existing natural resources. Fossgard and Fredman (2019) have argued that river regulation projects and water sports involving scooters and motorboats impede the development of kayaking. The COVID-19 pandemic has significantly limited tourist activities (Gössling et al., 2021). However, outdoor tourism was the first sector where restrictions were gradually lifted because outdoor activities

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require little social contact and minimize the risk of virus transmission. As a result, the pandemic has transformed the tourist industry. Moreover, the popularity of global tourism has declined in favour of local tourism (Giddy and Webb, 2016; Godtman et al., 2018; Gössling et al., 2021). This trend was initially reported in 2019. Nevertheless, most consumers are still inclined to choose local activities over international travel. Given the growing popularity of outdoor tourism, this study aimed to determine the potential of outdoor tourism (kayaking) in Poland. This goal was achieved by analyzing various sources of data. Finally, the results were presented graphically on maps using Geographic Information System (GIS) tools.

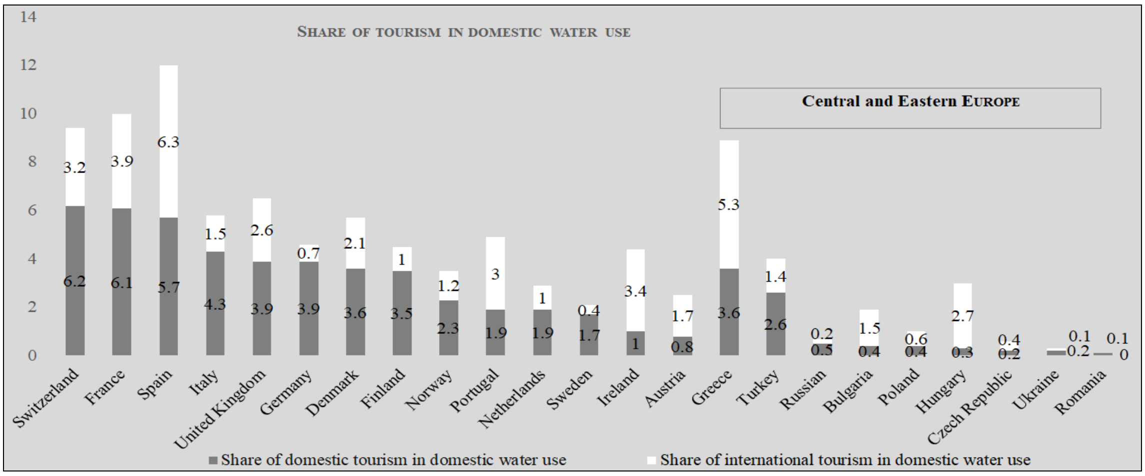

Figure 1. Share of domestic and international tourism in domestic water use (Source: Gössling et al., 2012)

Figure 2. River kayaking in Poland: a) Pisa Warmińska River – nature tourism; b) Czarna Hańcza River – senior tourism; c) Marózka River – adventure tourism; d) Brda River – hard tourism. Source: own study.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Data for the study were acquired from the following sources:

- Polish Tourism Organization (PTO) (strategic documents, reports and market analyses) made available by website (www.pot.gov.pl/pl);

- Spatial databases in the public domain containing topographic data (BDOO_250 and BDOT_10) made available by the Head Office of Geodesy and Cartography on the national geoportal (geoportal.gov.pl);

- Business registers, including the National Court Register (KRS) from Ministry of Justice and the Central Register and Information on Economic Activity (CEIDG) from Ministry of Development and Technology, made available by website of the Republic of Poland (gov.pl). In the first stage of the study, the reports and analyses developed by the PTO were used to assess the potential of the Polish tourist market in view of outdoor tourism, including water tourism (kayaking).

In the second stage of the study, an attempt was made to evaluate the potential of water bodies for the development of water tourism in Polish voivodeships. The analysis relied on topographic databases containing bodies of standing water, rivers and water bodies in forests. These databases were analyzed using GIS tools, and the results were visualized on maps.

In the third stage of the study, the data acquired from Ministry of Justice from base KRS and Ministry of Development and Technology from base CEIDG were analyzed to identify tourist associations and tourism operators, in particular operators specializing in outdoor tourism. In addition, the databases developed by CEIDG were used to determine the number of registered businesses that rent tourist equipment, including water sports equipment. Data generated by KRS and CEIDG are available in the form of text and Excel (Xls) files which contain the tourism operator's registered name, address, date of business establishment/closure, and periods when business operations were temporarily suspended. GIS tools were used to localize and visualize these datasets on maps and present changes in the number of registered tourism operators over time.

In the fourth stage of the study, the potential of natural resources, including water bodies, for tourism development was assessed in Polish regions. Various tourist function indicators have been proposed in the literature, including Baretje-Defert's tourist function index, Charvat's index and Schneider's index (Szromek, 2012, 2013; Korzeniewski and Kozłowski, 2020). These indices are expressed relative to reference unit area or population. In the present study, they were also related to Polish regions' geographic (natural) potential. The results of the analyses were presented in tables and maps. Three types of maps were generated for this purpose: vector maps, raster maps covering all of Poland, and cartograms and thematic maps covering Polish voivodeships. Vector maps were developed based on geospatial information acquired from public databases (geoportal.gov.pl): the Database of Geographic Objects in 1:25000 scale (BDOO), the Database of Topographic Objects in 1:10000 scale (BDOT), and the National Register of Geographic Names (PRNG).

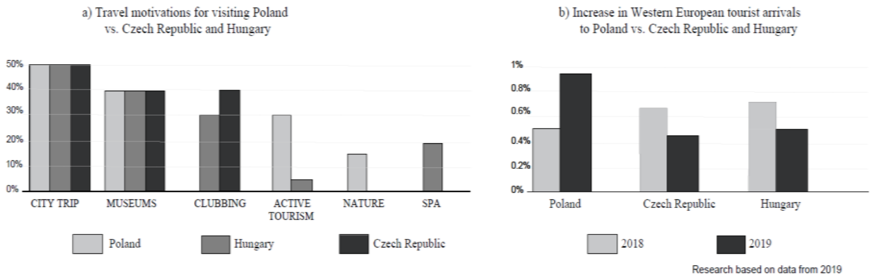

Figure 3. Analysis of the Polish tourism market: a) Travel motivations for visiting Poland vs. Czech Republic and Hungary; b) Increase in Western European tourist arrivals to Poland vs. the Czech Republic and Hungary Source: own study on Polish Tourism Organization (2019)

a. b.

Figure 4. Polish regions recommended for kayaking tours addressed to: a) domestic tourists; b) German tourists (Source: own study from Table 1)

Table 1. Kayaking tours in Polish regions recommended to domestic and German tourists, on a scale of 1 (X) to 3 (XXX) points. (XXX (3) – priority, XX (2) – standard, X (1) – secondary, – no marketing activity - (0); (Source: Marketing strategy for the Polish tourist industry for 2012-2020, adopted by the Management Board of the Polish Tourism Organization on 5 December 2011 (PTO, 2011)

	Voivodeship	Kayaking tours targeting domestic and German tourists	
		Domestic	German
1	Lower Silesia	X	X
2	Kuyavia-Pomerania	XXX	XX
3	Lublin	XXX	XX
4	Lubusz	XX	XX
5	Łódź	XX	XX
6	Małopolska	X	X
7	Masovia	XX	X
8	Opole	XX	XX
9	Podkarpacie	-	-
10	Podlasie	XXX	XXX
11	Pomerania	XXX	XX
12	Silesia	XX	X
13	Świętokrzyskie	-	X
14	Warmia-Masuria	XXX	X
15	Wielkopolska	XX	XXX
16	West Pomerania	X	XXX

Using geocoding, the text and table data generated by KRS and CEIDG were converted to vector format. A point represented a company's geographic location on the map based on its registered address. Vector data were converted to raster data using density tools based on geographic coordinates and an object's attributes, such as the surface area of a water body or the length of a river segment. Raster maps facilitate a more generalized and vivid presentation of geographic phenomena. Density tools calculate the density of point and line features only; therefore, bodies of standing water were converted to point objects. To generate raster maps, datasets were divided into subsets by calculating quantiles with five class breaks. In the quantile classification method, an equal number of values is assigned to each class, supporting the analysed phenomena' accurate presentation. The results of spatial analyses are generally presented on maps and in tables, and data corresponding to different administrative division units are visualised using cartograms and thematic maps. This form of data presentation was also used in the study. The analyzed data sources contained various types of geospatial data, and data for the cartographic presentation were normalized for comparative purposes. Data were normalized in the range of 0 to 1, relative to the highest value in the dataset. In addition, data from cartograms and thematic maps generated by the local authorities were normalized relative to the reference unit area. Various types of data were presented using GIS tools (ESRI 2021) to facilitate an assessment of Polish regions' potential for the development of outdoor and water tourism, including kayaking.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Polish outdoor tourism market – analyses of the Polish Tourism Organization (PTO)

Central-Eastern Europe is experiencing increased international tourist arrivals as an attractive destination for outdoor tourism activities. According to the PTO (2016), foreign tourists highly value Poland for its unspoiled nature and a wide variety of active recreation options. The most popular types of outdoor recreation are hiking, biking and kayaking.

The results of surveys involving foreign tourists indicate that Poland is regarded as a country with a diverse offer in the outdoor tourism category. Unlike the Czech Republic and Hungary, Poland boasts a wide variety of services in the segment of outdoor and adventure tourism. The results of a survey conducted among Belgian tourists confirm the above observation (Figure 3). A growing number of visitors from Western and Eastern Europe travel to Poland to participate in outdoor tourism activities in natural surroundings (PTO 2017, 2016). Other authors have previously made similar observations (Burneika and Kriaucinas, 2007; Brelik, 2009; Barkauskas, 2015). The PTO marketing strategy for 2012-2020 (PTO, 2011) emphasised kayaking. For kayaking in Polish regions, the availability of navigable waters was evaluated separately for domestic and foreign (German) tourists (Table 1). Table 1 data were visualized on maps in Figure 4. According to the PTO, marketing efforts targeting domestic tourists should focus on north-eastern Poland. In contrast, kayaking tours for German tourists should be promoted mainly in north-western and eastern Poland.

2. Potential of Polish regions for the development of outdoor tourism, including water tourism – kayaking

a. Evaluation of geographic potential based on geospatial databases in the public domain

Water tourism and kayaking tours require a well-developed hydrographic network. Therefore, geospatial databases in the public domain were analyzed to evaluate the potential of Polish regions to provide water tourism services and organize kayaking tours. In the first step of the analysis, bodies of standing water and rivers were identified in the Database of Geographic Objects on 1:250000 scale (BDOO_250). Their location was presented on vector maps (Figures 5a and 5b).

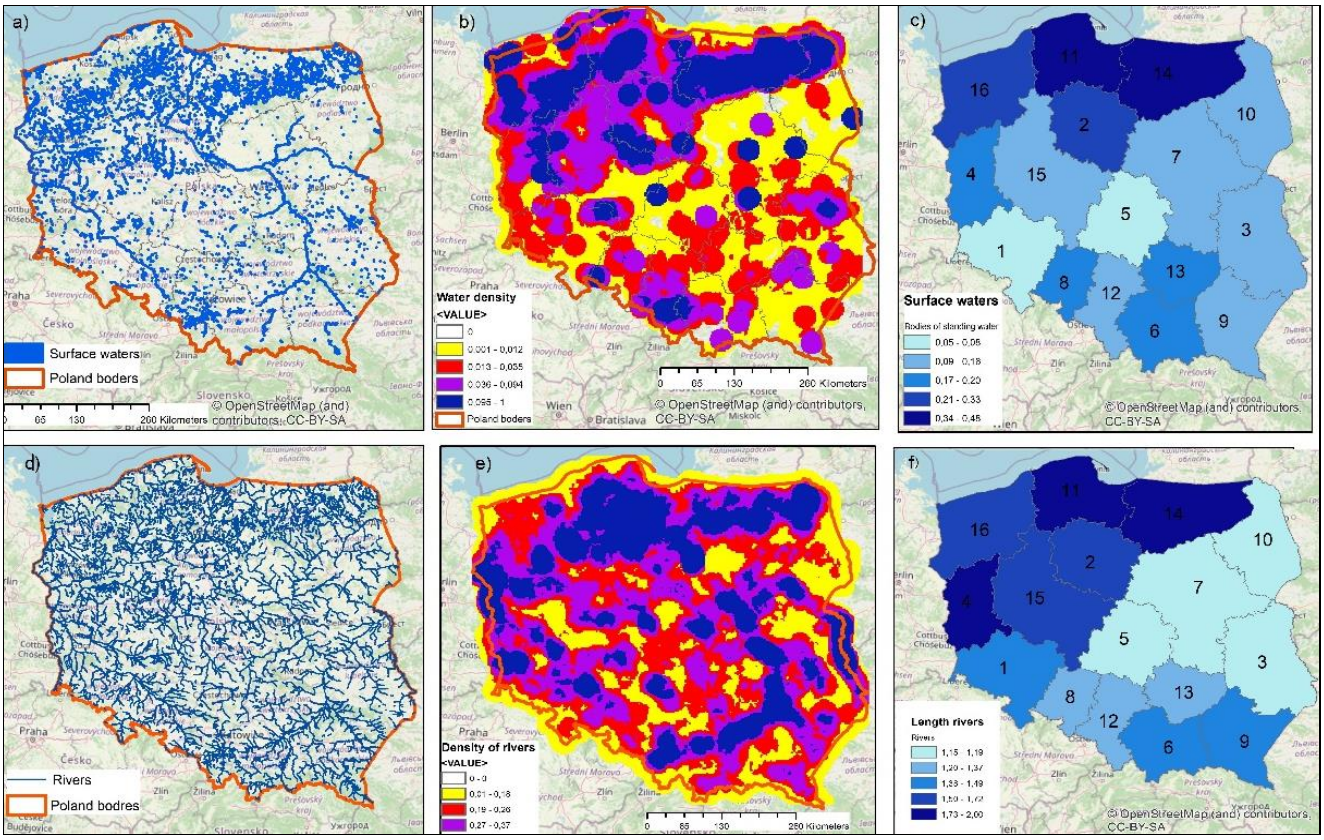

Figure 5. Bodies of standing water and rivers in Poland: a) bodies of standing water on a vector map; b) bodies of standing water on a raster map; c) bodies of standing water in km^2/voivodeship area; d) rivers on a vector map; e) rivers on a raster map; f) rivers in km/voivodeship area (Source: own study on database BDOO_250 and used GIS tools)

Raster maps (Figure 5b and 5d) were generated in the Geographic Information System (GIS) – ArcGis (ESRI 2021) application and preseneed on base map from OpenStreetMap (OSM)platform[1] . Vector maps (Figures 5a and 5d) present bodies of standing water (3027) and rivers (1241) with registered geographic names. Rivers channels span a total length of 27,150 km, and river segments intersecting bodies of standing water have a combined length of 19,701 km. Therefore, the total length of potential kayaking routes is 44,614 km. Raster maps were generated by dividing datasets into subsets and calculating quantiles with five class breaks. The density of the visualized objects was normalized in the range of 0 to 1. The area of the water bodies visualized in Figure 5 is presented in Table 2, separately for each Polish voivodeship. Table 2 data were expressed per unit area in each voivodeship, and the results are presented in cartograms in Figure 5c, f.

[1] https://www.openstreetmap.org/#map=6/52.018/19.137

Table 2. Potential for developing water tourism (kayaking) in Polish voivodeships (Source: own study on database BDOO_250)

	Voivodeship	Voivodeship area [km^2]	Forest area [km^2]	Area of standing water bodies [km^2]	Length of rivers [km^2]	Number of rivers
1	Lower Silesia	19936	5549	156	2970	109
2	Kuyavia-Pomerania	17948	4174	474	3084	85
3	Lublin	25134	5634	362	2935	93
4	Lubusz	13990	7029	252	2475	97
5	Łódź	18194	3833	98	2168	66
6	Małopolska	15166	4313	305	2216	85
7	Masovia	35529	7903	401	4094	145
8	Opole	9400	2496	182	1283	60
9	Podkarpacie	17844	6642	280	2656	107
10	Podlasie	20193	6040	244	2394	89
11	Pomerania	18305	6645	872	3566	127
12	Silesia	12317	4034	157	1684	59
13	Świętokrzyskie	11697	3224	235	1466	52
14	Warmia-Masuria	24151	7251	1088	4831	140
15	Wielkopolska	29797	7642	402	4858	143
16	West Pomerania	22896	8217	751	3867	145

The data presented in Table 2 indicate that the voivodeships of Pomerania and Warmia-Masuria have the most favourable conditions for water tourism, including kayaking. However, the results presented in Figures 4 and Figures 5 are not consistent. Domestic tourists' preferences for participating in kayaking tours in different voivodeships do not match the water tourism potential presented in Figure 5. The regions recommended to German tourists do not match the data in Figure 5 either.

These findings suggest that tourists' preferences are influenced by a region's geographic potential and other factors. These factors should be identified.

b. Institutions that organize and promote outdoor tourism (KRS, CEIDG)

Poland's two business registers: the National Court Register (KRS)[2] and the Central Register and Information on Economic Activity (CEIDG)[3]. Entrepreneurs who are not natural persons, i.e. associations, social and professional organizations, or foundations, are registered in KRS. In turn, natural persons conducting business activity (self-employed) are registered in CEIDG. The data obtained from these registers were analyzed to determine the number of businesses providing outdoor tourism and kayaking tourist services.

Analysis of databases in the National Court Register (KRS)

The databases of the National Court Register were searched based on registered company names. The following keywords were used: *tourism*, *tourist*, *tour*. The root word in the search was the *tour?* where the question mark denoted all possible characters. A total of 1814 records were identified, including 975 associations and 839 entrepreneurs. The search based on the keywords *recreation* and *recreational* (*recreation?*) produced 376 entries, including 230 associations and 146 entrepreneurs. In the group of 230 associations, 215 entities were affiliated with the Polish Tourist and Sightseeing Society (PTTK), and 69 entities were additionally identified when the acronym *PTTK* was used in the search (Table 3).

Table 3. Associations and companies registered in KRS whose business names contain the searched key words (Source: own study on selected data from KRS)

KRS Number of searches	Key words				
	tour?	recreation?	Polish Tourist and Sightseein g Society	PTTK	kayak?
Total	1814	376	285	69	63
Associations	975	230	215	45	52
Entrepreneurs	839	146	70	24	11

The search was then narrowed down to kayaking tours, and the applied keywords were *kayak/ kayaks/kayaking*. A total of 63 records were found, including 11 companies and 52 associations. The geographic location of the identified entities is presented on a map in Figure 6. Most of these organizations are seated in south-western Poland. In addition, five kayaking associations are registered in the Polish capital of Warsaw, including the "Habazie" Academic Kayaking Club and "Kajakowa Dzieciom" Foundation for Education and Sports. It should be noted that the geographic location of kayaking tour organizers registered in KRS is not correlated with the location of water resources presented in Figure 5.

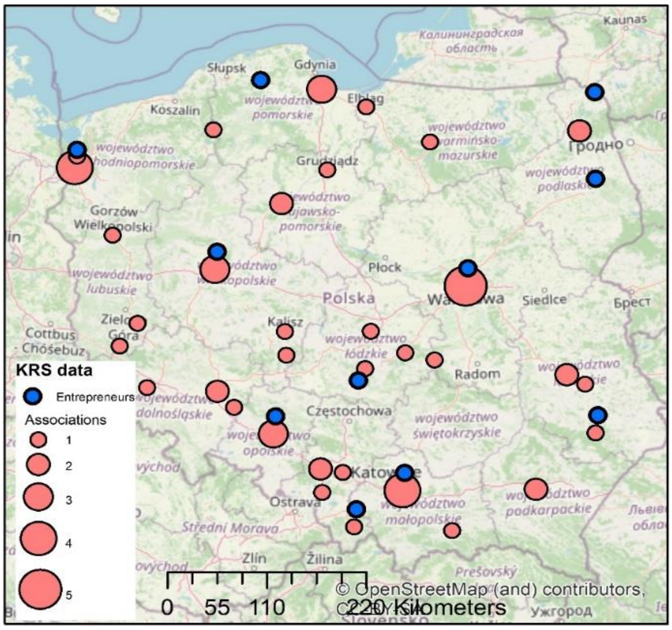

Figure 6. Location of tourism operators (entrepreneurs and associations) registered in KRS whose business names contain the keyword kayak? (Source: own study on selected data from KRS, basemap of OSM and used GIS tools)

Analysis of databases in the Central Register and Information on Economic Activity (CEIDG)

It was assumed that most kayaking tour organizers and tourists use the rented equipment. Many Polish businesses rent

[2] https://ekrs.ms.gov.pl/web/wyszukiwarka-krs/strona-glowna/index.html

[3] https://aplikacja.ceidg.gov.pl/CEIDG/CEIDG.Public.UI/Search.aspx#

kayaking equipment. These types of businesses were identified in CEIDG and localized in an attempt to determine the potential of kayaking-related tourism. Entrepreneurs who are natural persons (self-employed) are registered in CEIDG. They are assigned a Polish Classification of Activities (PKD) code that denotes the type of conducted business activity. For example, PKD code 7721Z denotes economic activities involving rental and charter of recreational and sports equipment:

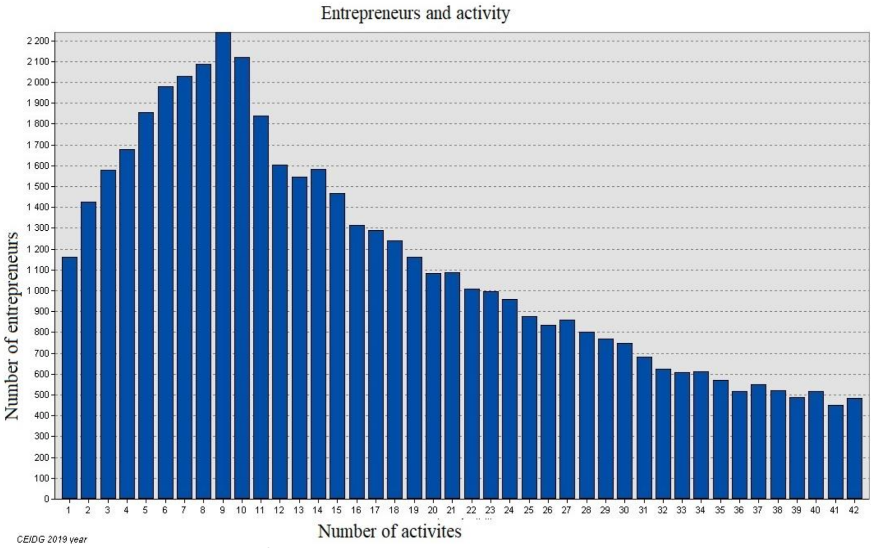

Figure 7. Number of entrepreneurs registered in CEIDG who declare various types of business activities, including the activity represented by PKD code 7721Z? (Source: own study on selected data from database CEIDG)

- tour boats,
- kayaks,
- sailboats,
- bicycles,
- beach chairs and parasols,
- skis,
- other recreational and sports equipment.

It should be noted that this category of business activity does not include the rental of tour boats and yachts that are chartered with the crew or the rental of sports and recreational equipment that is owned by recreational centres. PKD code 7721Z represents businesses that provide tourist and recreational services and rent kayaks for kayaking tours. An analysis of the CEIDG database revealed that 53,380 Polish businesses operated under PKD code 7721Z in 2020. The analyzed database covered all CEIDG entries since 1970, including entries relating to businesses that had terminated or suspended their operations. However, businesses registered in CEIDG rarely declare only one type of business activity and, therefore, they are assigned more than one PKD code. In the total number of 53,380 identified businesses, only 1160 had operated solely under PKD code 7721Z (Figure 8). The remaining entrepreneurs were also engaged in other types of business activity, mostly those represented by the following PKD codes:

- 5520Z: short-term (daily or weekly) accommodation services – 280 businesses;
- 9329Z: entertainment and recreational services – 105 businesses;
- 8551Z: sports education, sports and recreational activities – 70 businesses.

The distribution of CEIDG entries based on the number of declared business activities is presented in Figure 7. The largest group of entrepreneurs had declared 9 types of business activity. A high number of CEIDG entries and PKD codes, including 7721Z, indicates that many entrepreneurs combine various recreation, tourism and sports services in their business operations. To process the acquired data in the GIS environment, the businesses identified in CEIDG databases were geocoded based on their registered address (by plotting x/y coordinates). Geocoded data were presented graphically on vector and raster maps. The geographic location of each business is marked with a point on the map (Figure 9). Each of the generated maps presents the number of entrepreneurs that had declared a given number of business activities. Clear differences in the density of address points can be observed between maps. In Figures 8c to 8e, the density of address points was highest in large urban agglomerations. The number of businesses whose operations are linked with the tourist sector was highest in the voivodeships of Masovia, Silesia, Pomerania and Lower Silesia. The number of tourism enterprises registered in north-eastern Poland, i.e. in the voivodeships of Warmia-Masuria and Podlasie, was not high.

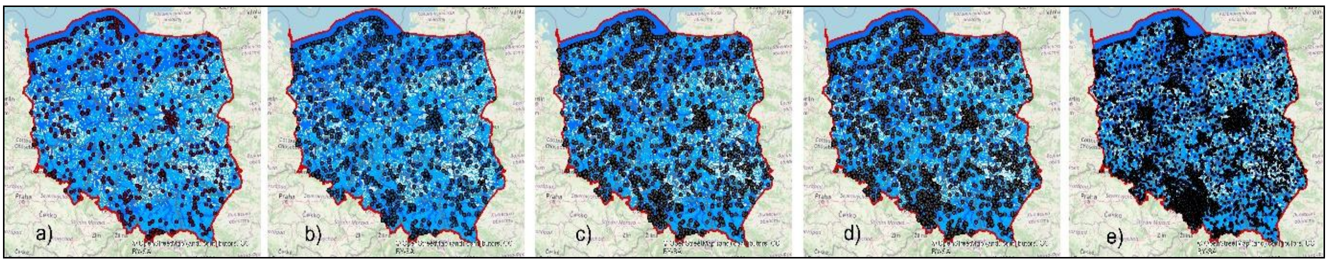

Figure 8. Location of businesses that rent and charter tourist equipment, including water sports equipment and kayaks: a) entrepreneurs operating under PKD code 7721Z only – 1160 entries; b) entrepreneurs declaring one and two types of business activity – 2585 entries; c) entrepreneurs declaring up to three types of business activity – 4163 entries; d) entrepreneurs declaring up to four types of business activity – 5842 entries; e) all entrepreneurs operating under PKD code 7721Z – 53,380 entries (Source: own study on selected data from data base CEIDG and used GIS tools)

The database acquired from CEIDG was modified for the purpose of detailed analysis. Entrepreneurs who had not terminated or suspended their business activity were selected, and entries with the same registered address were eliminated from the database (business activities conducted by family members were classified as a single enterprise). As a result, the analyzed database was reduced from 53,380 to 42,346 entries. The above difference represents the number of businesses that had been terminated or suspended in the last 46 years. The subset of 42,346 entries was subjected to further analysis.

The updated CEIDG data set was analyzed as time series data. The temporal distribution of CEIDG entries denoting businesses that were established in each year of the analyzed period (since 1976) and were active (as at 2020) is presented in Figure 9_1a. The number of businesses that were active in each year of the analyzed period is presented in Figure 9_1b. The analysis involved data for all of Poland (Figures 9a and 9b), and it was also performed separately for each Polish voivodeship (Figures 9_2-6a and 9_2-6b). The results of the analysis point to a gradual increase in the number of newly registered enterprises in the studied period. The greatest increase was observed between 2014 and 2018. The number of active businesses remains high, but the number of newly established businesses has decreased in recent years. Data for selected Polish voivodeships are presented in Figures 9_2-6a. The temporal distribution of newly established businesses is similar in Masovia and Pomerania, where the number of newly registered businesses peaked in 2015 (Figures 10 2a, 2b, 3a, 3b). West Pomerania and Warmia-Masuria (rys 10_5a, 6a) have a much smaller number of businesses operating under PKD code 7721Z, but the number of enterprises in this category has been increasing steadily since 2007. These voivodeships are characterized by low levels of entrepreneurship despite considerable geographic potential for tourism development.

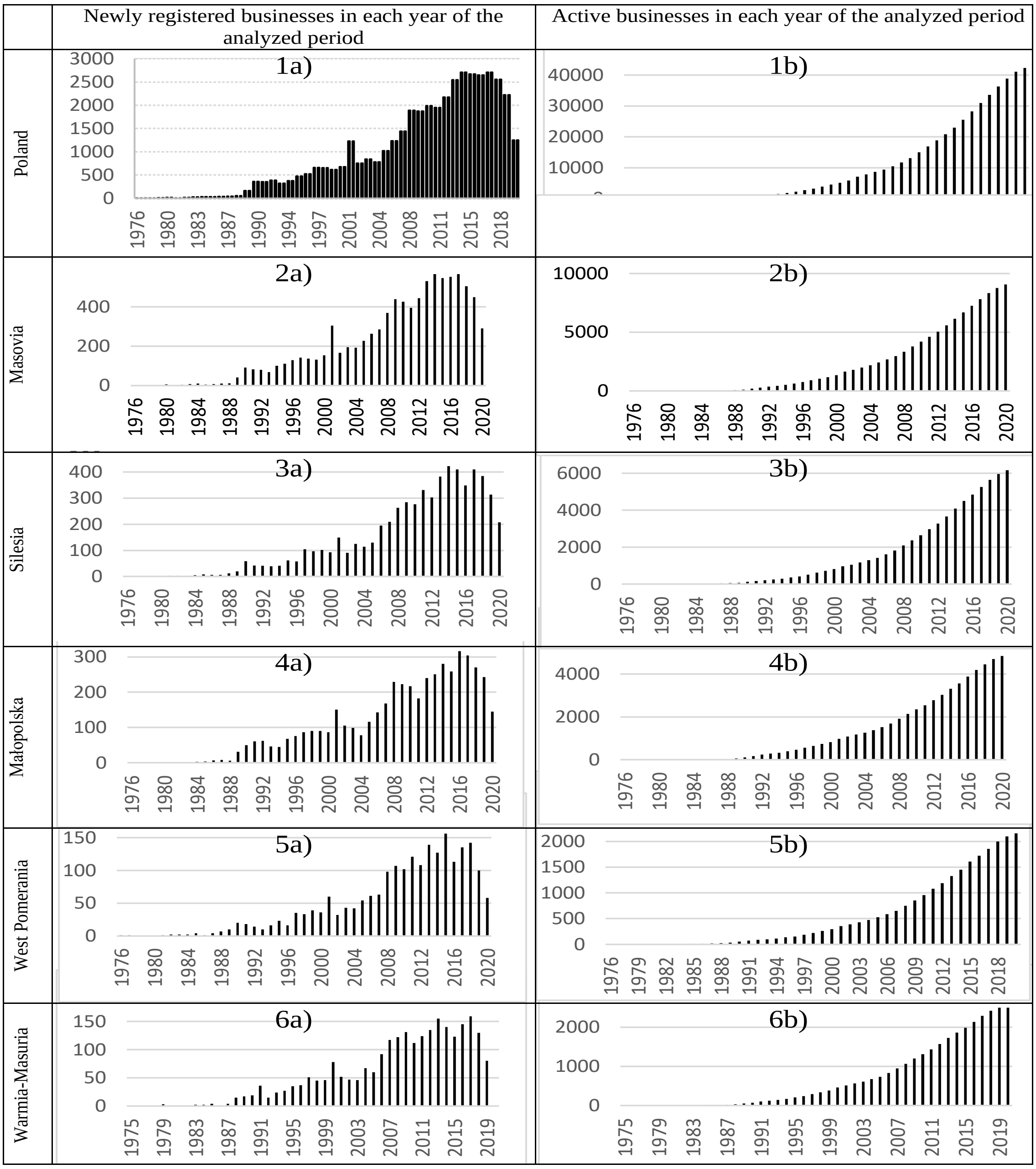

Figure 9. Selected data from the CEIDG database for all of Poland and selected voivodeships: Masovia, Silesia, Małopolska, West Pomerania, and Warmia-Masuria; a) temporal distribution of newly registered businesses; b) number of active businesses in each year of the analyzed period. (Source: own study on selected data from data base CEIDG and used Excel tools)

As previously noted, the analysis involved only CEIDG entries relating to businesses operating under PKD code 7721Z. In the Polish climate, tourist and recreational equipment rentals generally operate on a seasonal basis, and entrepreneurs registered in CEIDG also conducted other business activities represented by different PKD codes. Enterprises operating solely under PKD code 7721Z (Figure 10 1a) as well as businesses whose main economic activity was represented by PKD code 7721Z (Figure 10 1b) were selected from the CEIDG database for analysis. The resulting dataset of companies operating solely under PKD code 7721Z comprised 428 enterprises, and the dataset of companies whose main economic activity was represented by PKD code 7721Z comprised 1973 businesses (Figure 10 1a, 2a).

The analysis revealed that 1973 enterprises provided services mostly in the area of outdoor tourism. The distribution of these businesses across Polish voivodeships is presented in Table 4. The location of the above companies is presented on vector maps, raster maps and cartograms in Figures 10. The geographic location of the analyzed enterprises is presented on vector maps in Figure 10 1a, 1b. The density of the evaluated businesses across Polish voivodeships is presented on raster maps in Figure 10 2a, 2b. The density of the analyzed businesses in each Polish voivodeship, normalized relative to the reference unit area (per 100 km^2 of voivodeship area) is presented in cartograms in Figure 10 3a, 3b. The largest clusters of companies operating under PKD code 7721Z were observed in northern, central-eastern and southern Poland. The lowest entrepreneurship levels were noted in central and central-eastern Poland.

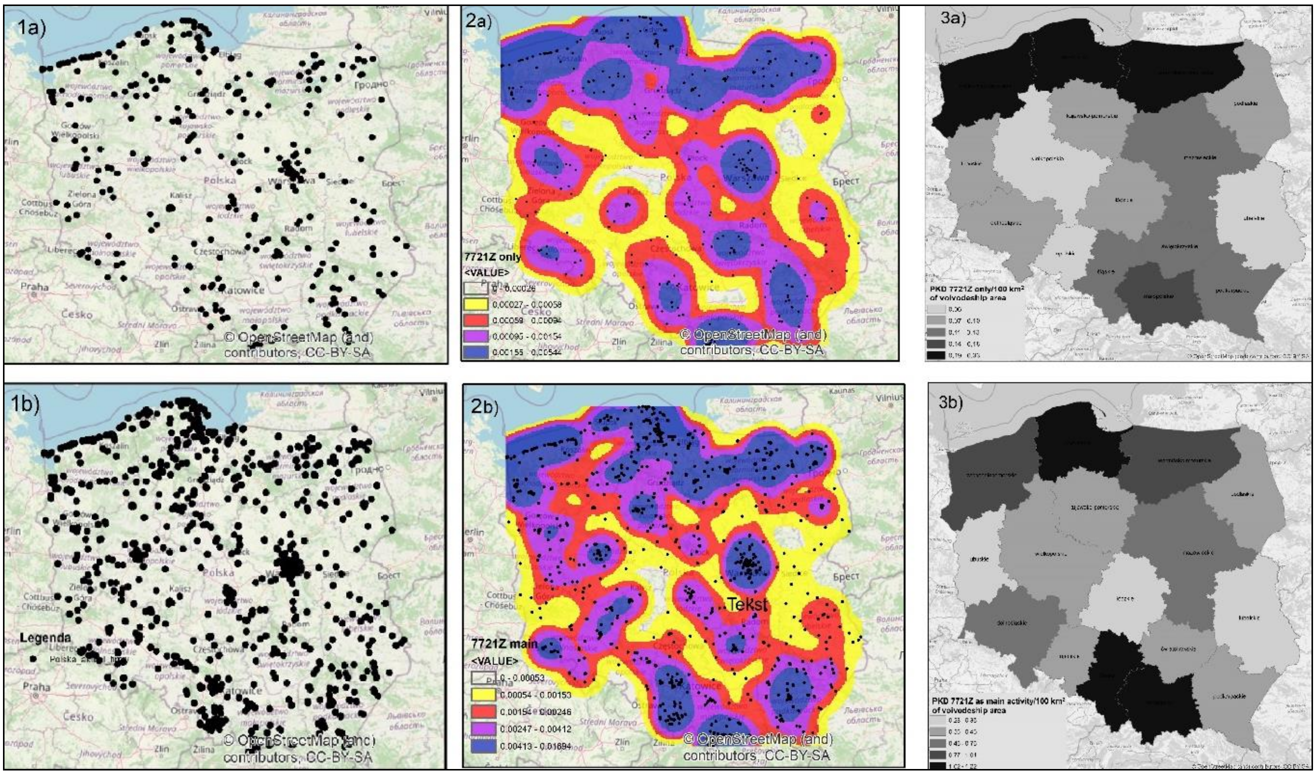

Figure 10. Location of active businesses after the modification of the dataset: 1a) businesses operating solely under PKD code 7721Z; 1 b) businesses whose main economic activity was represented by PKD code 7721Z. Raster map (cluster analysis) of the geographic location of active businesses (as at 2020): 2a) operating under PKD code 7721Z only; 2b) businesses whose main economic activity was represented by PKD code 7721Z. Location of active businesses (as at 2020) in Polish voivodeships: 3a) businesses operating under PKD code 7721Z only; 3b) businesses whose main economic activity was represented by PKD code 7721Z (Source: own study on selected data from data base CEIDG and used GIS tools)

Voivodeships in northern Poland were characterized by a high number of companies operating in the area of outdoor tourism (Figures 12 and 13) as well as considerable natural resources for the development of outdoor tourism (Figures 6 and 13). Voivodeships in southern Poland ranked second in this respect (Figures 6, 7 and 13).

Kayaking tour organizers registered in CEIDG

In the following stage of the study, an attempt was made to identify kayaking tour organizers registered in CEIDG. It was assumed that the main type of business activity would be reflected in the company's name. The database was searched for businesses whose name contained the word *kayak?*, where the question mark denoted all possible characters (*kayak/kayaks/kayaking*). The database was searched on 26 May 2021 before the beginning of the tourist season when Covid-19 restrictions had been in place. A total of 242 companies whose names contained the word *kayak?* were identified (*kayak* – 7, *canoe* – 5). Other keywords relating to outdoor tourism were also used in the search (*bicycle, skis*). The word *bicycle* was identified in the name of 14 companies, the word *skis* – in 45 companies. The location of businesses whose registered name contained the word *kayak* is presented in absolute values (Figure 14a) and in values normalized relative to the reference unit area in each Polish voivodeship (Figure 14b). Masovia and Pomerania were characterized by the highest number of registered businesses that organize kayaking tours (Figure 14a). The number of kayaking tour operators relative to the reference unit area in each voivodeship was highest in Pomerania, Masovia, West Pomerania, and Łódź. Two of these voivodeships, Masovia and Łódź, are located in central Poland which is generally deficient in rivers and lakes.

Table 4. Number of businesses operating in the area of outdoor tourism in Polish voivodeships (Source: own study on selected data from data base CEIDG)

	Voivodeship	Number of businesses operating solely under PKD code 7721Z	Number of businesses whose main economic activity was represented by PKD code 7721Z
1	Lower Silesia	19	152
2	Kuyavia-Pomerania	14	80
3	Lublin	15	58
4	Lubusz	12	49
5	Łódź	16	59
6	Małopolska	27	185
7	Masovia	41	204
8	Opole	6	40
9	Podkarpacie	24	78
10	Podlasie	15	87
11	Pomerania	61	217
12	Silesia	15	149
13	Swiętokrzyskie	15	50
14	Warmia-Masuria	63	243
15	Wielkopolska	17	122
16	West Pomerania	68	200

Similar observations were made in the analysis of KRS data (Figure 7). These results indicate that the availability of outdoor tourism services/kayaking tours is affected not only by natural resources, but also by other factors. The results presented in Figure 11 are somewhat simplified because not all businesses that organize kayaking tours have the root word *kayak* in their registered name. Some kayaking rentals known to the authors are registered under completely different names (*Pirat* (Pirate), *Szuwary* (Reeds), *Spływy* (Expeditions)). Despite the above, the results presented in Figure 11 b are quite surprising because the POT strategy for promoting kayaking tour organizers does not include the voivodeships of Masovia and Łódź. Further research is needed to explain these discrepancies.

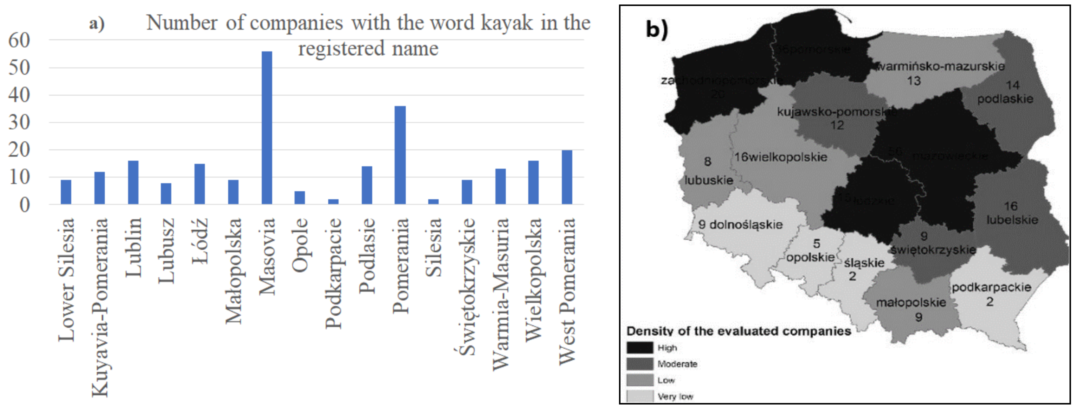

Figure 11. Number of companies whose registered name contains the word kayak: a) in absolute values; b) in values normalized relative to the reference unit area (cartogram) in each Polish voivodeship (Source: own study on selected data from data base CEIDG and used GIS tools)

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

An analysis of geospatial databases (Geoportal), business registers (KRS, CEIDG) and strategy documents developed by the PTO revealed that Polish voivodeships have considerable geographic potential for the development of outdoor tourism. The number of companies affiliated with the PTTK suggests that outdoor recreation is a highly popular form of active recreation in Poland. An analysis of business registers also demonstrated that outdoor tourism services, including kayaking tours, are offered by a large number of Polish companies and natural persons conducting business activity (self-employed). The results of this study point to high levels of local entrepreneurship associated with outdoor tourism. Sports equipment rentals are registered in all Polish voivodeships. These factors should drive the commercialization of the outdoor tourism sector, including kayaking tours. This segment of the tourist industry lacks comprehensive information, cohesive marketing and promotional strategies, and it requires further support.

The study also demonstrated that tourism development in Polish voivodeships is not proceeding in a sustainable manner. Regions with a high potential for tourism development are not promoted by the PTO. In this study, Masovia emerged as a hub of outdoor tourism activities (including kayaking), but its potential was disregarded in the PTO strategy. The PTO marketing strategy for Polish tourism for 2012-2020 listed regions that were most recommended for the promotion of outdoor tourism, including kayaking. However, tourists' preferences for participating in kayaking tours in different voivodeships do not match the recommendations of the PTO.

Further research is needed to identify other factors that contribute to the popularity of kayaking tours in Polish voivodeships, including logistic factors (accommodation, transport, local conditions) and the visitors' expectations. The popularity of outdoor tourism will continue to increase if the COVID-19 pandemic contributes to a further rise in nationalist and tightening borders. The growing demand for water sports equipment testifies to the above. Unlike in 2018 and 2019, water sports equipment had been reserved early in 2021, and it was in short supply during the tourist season.

Acknowledgement

The authors would like to thank public institutions (Main Office of Geodesy and Cartography, Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Development and Technology) for providing access to public databases. We thank also the Center for Scientific Geospatial Analyses and Satellite Computations (CENAGIS) for providing integrated geospatial database for the needs of this study.

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Article history: Received: 30.10.2021 Revised: 06.01.2022 Accepted: 03.02.2022 Available online: 01.03.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.242-252
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40129-825

EXAMINING RESIDENT'S PERCEPTION OF SUSTAINABILITY TOURISM PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT: THE CASE OF MALANG CITY, INDONESIA

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Citation: Kurniawan, A., Fanani, D., & SUPRIONO. (2022). EXAMINING RESIDENT'S PERCEPTION OF SUSTAINABILITY TOURISM PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT: THE CASE OF MALANG CITY, INDONESIA. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 242–252. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40129-825

Abstract: Tourism development includes many studies on how planning and community views view the impact of tourism. This study presents the concept of tourism development that focuses on local people's perceptions of the impact of tourism. This study explores and explains the role of applied planning that affects the impact generated by tourism. The variables used in this study are key factors in supporting tourism development. This study uses a quantitative approach through statistical analysis of PLS-SEM and the distribution of a questionnaire that has been designed to 200 local communities. The sampling technique of this study used purposive sampling on local communities in tourist sites in Malang City. The findings show that optimal planning will support institutional stability which also has an impact on the perceived impact. This study contributes to broadening knowledge about the perceived impact of tourism by adding planning and stability aspects that are used to assess support for tourism development.

Key words: Tourism Planning, Institutional Stability, Perceived Tourism Impact, Tourism Development

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INTRODUCTION

The tourism sustainability has been known as one of the most interesting topics to discuss. Developments related to this topic are very fast due to technological developments and changes in environmental conditions as well as various benefits generated. Lemy et al., (2019) identifies three main objectives of sustainable tourism (1) to meet the needs of local communities to improve their standard of living, both in the short and long term; (2) to meet tourist demand; and (3) protecting the natural environment to achieve the previous two objectives. Even so, every tourism must have an impact which is an interesting topic to discuss. The growing interest in this topic is because tourism is considered to have various positive effects (Zeng et al., 2020; Andereck and Nyaupane, 2011; Diedrich and Garcia, 2009; Andereck et al., 2005) and negative effects (Prayag et al., 2013; Nunkoo and Gursoy, 2012; Vargas-Sanchez et al, 2011). The impact is felt by all parties involved in tourism such as residents or communities (Almeida et al., 2016; Andereck and Nyaupane, 2010; Oviedo-Garcia et al., 2008; Yoon et al., 2001), government (Siakwah et al., 2019; Bichler, 2019; Jamal and Camargo, 2018) and tourists (Hayati et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019; Neuts and Nijkam, 2012; Petrosillo et al., 2006).

Various studies have discussed predictors or antecedents from various perspectives of the impacts caused by tourism, which include economic, environmental, and socio-cultural. The positive impacts of tourism, among others, are that tourism is able to create new jobs for local residents, improve the economic standard of the community and become one of the supporters of state income by strengthening business networks, improving the quality of life of residents, helping to preserve local culture and related sites. Even so, the negative impacts caused by tourism cannot be avoided. This makes the negative attitude of tourism stakeholders grow. However, proactive and positive behavior in terms of stakeholder attitudes towards sustainable tourism development is very influential in minimizing losses due to tourism. Therefore, a careful planning is needed to support sustainable tourism. The importance of planning is evidenced by the important role that planning aspects have which are considered as a tool for integrating tourism and other sectors, controlling development patterns, protecting and conserving resources and even providing a framework for further tourism development. Hall (2008) suggests that the key to the success of sustainable tourism development is optimal collaboration of all stakeholders in tourism. Although each stakeholder group has different responsibilities and reasons, cooperation between them is necessary for supply and demand balance, tourism impact management, and resource allocation (Bregoli, 2012).

Through collaborative planning, the goals and objectives of the tourism development management plan become more integrated (Jamal and Stronza, 2009). Policy decisions related to optimal sustainable tourism should reflect the views of each stakeholder as a reflection of their participation in sustainable tourism (Bramwell, 2010). In addition, several studies have

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shown that collaborative tourism planning is more effective than other types of tourism planning (Harril, 2004). Based on this, this study emphasizes that the planning function is very important in tourism development because it involves exchanges between stakeholders to be able to produce benefits. As in several similar studies discussing tourism planning to develop and review an integrated theoretical framework that has socially responsible goals (d'Angella and Go, 2009; Su et al., 2018; Su et al., 2016; Theodoulidis et al., 2017). Meanwhile, the tourism sector in Indonesia still needs to be developed further because it refers to T&T Indonesia had been declared the third largest economy after Thailand and the Philippines (Wilopo et al., 2020). Nevertheless, tourism development is still being encouraged to encourage national economic growth. Even so, tourism development planning is often seen as an action that is only carried out by the government so that input from the majority of the community or the non-tourism sector is not paid attention to (Moscardo, 2011). In line with this, several recent discussions show that the planning process in Malang City is also still centered on the local government so that it has not yet received optimal acceptance in practice. So there is still a need for further exploration of the practice and effectiveness of public participation in tourism planning. So far, the active participation of other parties is reflected in tourism development, such as participating in promoting and maintaining tourism objects in Malang City (Pramono et al., 2021). Discussions related to participatory planning to date have largely neglected to examine how participation and tourism planning affect the impact of tourism and the development of sustainable tourism. The current discussion requires a more critical understanding of how collaborative planning practices process. Therefore, the objectives of this study are threefold: (1) to provide a theoretical explanation of tourism planning and public participation in Malang City; (2) Assessing various impacts caused by tourism in Malang City; and (3) to discuss more broadly the factors that can influence tourism development in Malang City.

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Stakeholder Theory

A set of ideas or ideas that aim to control human activities over time is known as planning (Hall, 2008). Stakeholder theory has been adopted in several studies related to tourism policy and planning (Su et al., 2018; Theodoulidis et al., 2017; Lee and Hsieh, 2016; d'Angella and Go, 2009). Stakeholder theory actually discusses how from a "managerial" point of view to perform tasks, and is closely related to business practices, value creation and trade (Laplume et al., 2008). In addition, stakeholders through relevant policies can manage destinations that can provide social impacts to the surrounding community and sustainable development in the tourism sector (Byrd et al., 2009). In this context, stakeholders who have an important role in tourism development and planning can generate benefits. The benefits derived and the reduction in costs can lead to residents' satisfaction with tourism and community development (Vargas-Sa'nchezet al., 2009; Vargas-Sa'nchez et al., 2011). According to stakeholder theory, all stakeholder groups should be involved in the whole process of tourism development (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2009), and the sustainability of tourism development is determined by stakeholder perspectives, for example, by involving residents, tourism entrepreneurs, government, and tourists (Lynch et al., 2011; Hallak et al., 2012). Several studies state that tourism planning was born out of the need to grow new business opportunities (Bianchi, 2018; Lohmann and Netto, 2016). Sustainable tourism certainly requires awareness of tourism activities that have a relatively low impact so that effective planning is needed. With planning, stakeholders can maximize benefits and minimize losses due to tourism for the community, government, environment and tourists (Ampong, 2018).

In the view of tourism, planning can be used as a key process to maximize the long-term benefits of tourism (Bianchi, 2018). The strength of the tourism business can be built as a regional or national strength. Long-term regulation is important because market or environmental conditions are inherently unstable and require a planning basis to measure the success rate of tourism in a sustainable manner (Wang and Bramwell, 2012). Faced with this strong economic outlook, the role of government in encouraging the development of tourism planners is not short-lived (Telfer and Sharpley, 2015). Planning is carried out by considering all activities that affect the sustainability of all aspects of tourism in the long term. Lack of precise long-term planning is often associated with ineffective formulation processes carried out by government institutions. The government certainly needs to maintain political legitimacy in the context of social relations in the implementation of tourism because without this stability the government can fail to maintain the necessary authority to regulate the economy and maintain social order which of course affects tourism activities (Adinolfi, 2019).

H1: Long-term planning has a positive effect on institutional sustainability

According to stakeholder theory, many stakeholders are involved in tourism including planning activities such as governments, local residents, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), non-profit organizations, and other tourism-related businesses. The collaborative approach to tourism planning focuses on the role of each stakeholder in planning. According to stakeholder theory, all stakeholder groups should be involved in the entire tourism development process (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2009). Such as recommendation by Buhalis and Amaranggana (2013) had suggested that there are six measures that need to be achieved for the success of tourism development, such as attractions, accessibility, facilities, available services, available activities, and supporting services. Each stakeholder must participate actively in all stages of planning development and implementation. Thus, the community can help with proper planning by ensuring that all participants are involved in the planning process so that the government can consider the role of the community in tourism. However, the implementation of tourism planning is currently centralized to the government with a minimum level of involvement of other stakeholders. These pressures support the need to review the participation of all stakeholders in tourism planning (Forester, 2000). Studies reveal that self-interest and lack of trust among stakeholders can frustrate many tourism planning and collaborative efforts (Serravalle et al., 2019; Saito and Ruhanen, 2017; Waligo et al., 2013; Byrd et al., 2009). This certainly has an impact on institutional sustainability because the plans formulated by the local government are less effective.

H2: Political Participation has a positive effect on institutional sustainability

Tourism planning certainly needs to pay attention to all existing aspects so that planning is prepared based on these aspects. This is because the development of tourism potential aims to increase the resources owned by a tourist destination in the form of physical and non-physical elements. Tourism planning and development itself is part of the political process related to the formulation of policies or decisions to achieve certain goals (Veal, 2002). Thus, the formulation of tourism development policies and the preparation of optimal structural plans must be integrated so as to create an appropriate policy (Tkaczynski et al., 2009). Tourism policy in Indonesia refers to the relationship between industry and the implementation of organizational functions. These policies can be in the form of laws, regulations and appeals with the aim of influencing the tourism industry, either directly or indirectly. Policies that exist in one area and another are certainly different. Kaiser and Helber (1978) explain that the levels of tourism planning start from the development of regional tourism or regional tourism or local planning. Local level planning is needed because it relates to various efforts to empower, develop, and manage all aspects of tourism in the City. At the local level, various interests of local communities, operators, tourists, local government authorities meet to create interactions with each other. The relationship between the tourism industry is also shown by the linkage of tourism services with other sectors such as forestry, urban areas, education, and infrastructure (Pforr, 2006). Inability to communicate, coordinate or differ in understanding of tourism planning is usually found. This can lead to uncertainty about the limits of authority, rights and obligations. As a result, it often creates problems or conflicts. This situation can threaten the success of tourism planning. Therefore, local planning policy also plays a role in institutional sustainability.

H3: Local planning policy has a positive effect on institutional sustainability

2. Institutional Sustainability

In a general sense, governance refers to all patterns of power, authority and rules that can secure order, and it is relevant to situations where there is a hierarchical state, where the state is dependent on others, or where the state plays little or no role (Bramwell, 2011). Thus, one of the dimensions that influence tourism development is institutional sustainability (Ko, 2001). This dimension is the result of the interaction process inherent in the mode of governance (Lange et al., 2013). Ross and Wall (1999) also established a framework for sustainable tourism development that emphasizes the assessment of political and governance stability that can be affected by the relationship between local communities, tourism and resources. Given the many actors involved in tourism development, the concept of institutional strength in an area must be considered (Dabphet et al., 2012). Institutional agents are considered to play an important role in the creation and development of sustainable tourism. The number of initiatives and institutional policies developed affect the success of a tourism development. Several studies reveal that the key to implementing sustainable tourism lies in its practical application so that it depends on the skills of stakeholders governed by the government (Bianchi, 2004; Dodds, 2007; Waligo et al., 2013). Therefore, the institutional initiatives that emerge from development and tourism policies have a decisive role in the creation and acceptance of the concept of sustainable tourism. Sofield (2003) found that government stability such as decision-making processes, and optimal policy-making can affect tourism development. The successful implementation of sustainable tourism is highly dependent on the government's ability to coordinate and balance the roles and interests of stakeholder groups and to protect resources through appropriate development strategies. Institutional policies and initiatives have gradually evolved from the initial acceptance of sustainability in tourism as linked almost exclusively to environmental conservation, to a more global concept that takes into account the balance between people, the environment and the economy. Tourism itself is a multifaceted phenomenon that certainly has an impact on various aspects of the destination and its community. Therefore, institutional sustainability is one of the factors that influence the impact of tourism. Policies that are made can have a positive or negative impact on other stakeholders related to tourism activities. Scheyvens (2011) argues that it is the government that has the stable power to set policies that affect the utilization of economic benefits from local communities and the preservation of social, cultural and environmental resources.

H4: Institutional sustainability has a positive effect on the perceived economic impact
H5: Institutional sustainability has a positive effect on the perceived environmental impact
H6: Institutional sustainability has a positive effect on the perceived socio-cultural impact

3. Impact of Tourism

Understanding how stakeholders view tourism impacts helps to better understand how tourism currently benefits the many parties involved (Perskins et al., 2020; Wondirad et al., 2020). Thus, it is logical to examine their perceptions of the impact of tourism so that factors that contribute to positive attitudes related to tourism development can be found. Policy makers in the context of tourism often focus on stimulating tourism by providing the essential conditions for tourism growth (Minnaert, 2020), so tourism often has a significant impact on the economy, the environment, as well as social and cultural structures and dynamics (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2019). One of the easiest impacts to measure is the economy, studies conclude that the economic impact of tourism development is mostly viewed positively by the community (Gursoy et al., 2009). This is because tourism is an economic development tool because it provides employment opportunities so that it is considered able to improve the economy of the surrounding population (Choi and Sirakaya, 2005). The positive economic impact mainly comes from direct income, employment for the tourism industry, foreign exchange earnings, increased public and private investment and additional personal income. Meanwhile, the negative economic impact is reflected mainly in inflation and rising cost of living. The socio-cultural impact generated by tourism is considered less. Even so, the social impact of tourism development can be reflected in the improvement of the quality of life of the population (Adinolfi, 2019; Andereck and Vogt, 2000). Positively, tourism development can lead to improved community services so as to enhance local cultural identity and the welfare of the population as a whole. However, negatively tourism also causes an increase in crime rates, moral degradation, cultural exploitation, overcrowding and overuse of resources along with tourism development. Meanwhile, environmental impacts are complex and specific to the environment. While tourism revenues can enhance existing attractions, the adverse environmental impacts are mainly seen in tourist flows such as natural feel, pollution and congestion. Even so, the type and magnitude of the impact caused by tourism is not easy to measure. This is because the extent to which tourism has contributed to the economic, social or environmental problems of an area is often not known with certainty (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). Lastly, the fact that different destinations experience different impacts or even the same impacts but with different degrees/stages, adds to the difficulty in understanding the impacts brought about by tourism. In this study, social exchange theory is used as a basis for discussing the perceptions of residents about the impact of tourism and their support for tourism development in the region. This theory has been used in several studies related to population perceptions (Adongo et al., 2019; Kang and Lee, 2018; Nunkoo, 2016; Ward and Berno, 2011). According to this theory, by suggesting the positive impact of tourism, stakeholders will tend to support tourism development because it is considered profitable. However, tourism does not only have a beneficial impact, there are also negative effects that arise. This of course creates a negative perception of stakeholders such as local communities related to tourism. This is important to note because the positive attitude and perception of residents is very important to encourage visitor satisfaction. By using social exchange theory, residents' perceptions can be well identified as valuable or not for tourism development. Therefore, there is a need for a comprehensive study that concentrates on people's perceptions of tourism development.

H7: Perceived economic impact has a positive effect on tourism development
H8: Perceived environmental impact has a positive effect on tourism development
H9: Perceived social cultural impact has a positive effect on tourism development

4. Tourism Development

Social Exchange Theory is considered to have contributed a lot in understanding public perceptions of the impact of tourism (Fredline and Faulkner, 2000). It is important to understand people's perceptions of the impact of tourism. It is undeniable that the surrounding community also feels that tourism development produces various impacts. At the same time, social exchange theory states that two parties make exchanges based on benefits and costs, and exchange can be achieved only if both parties feel that they get more benefits from the exchange (Su et al., 2018). Thus, between the two (stakeholders and local residents) to get more benefits, involvement in the tourism development process is needed which in turn contributes to a sustainable destination (Cheng and Wu, 2015; Su and Swanson, 2017; Wilopo et al., 2020). This will certainly have an impact in terms of social and economic aspects and even the environment from the development of tourism (Yoon et al., 2001) which are felt by different groups in the local community. However, not all tourism impacts are always beneficial. There are negative effects that appear that are felt by the surrounding community.

As tourism activities progress, the impact is felt differently in various regions, where adverse activities will trigger residents to harbor hatred and have a negative attitude towards tourism (Akis et al., 1995). In principle, the impact of tourism can be positive or negative, and following three basic categories of benefits and costs, namely economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts (Brida et al., 2011). Unfortunately, the negative impact is sometimes ignored because the economic benefits provided are greater. As postulated by the Social Exchange Theory, local residents are more likely to support tourism development as long as they feel that the benefits of tourism development outweigh the associated development costs. Residents who perceive tourism development as having a positive impact on the environment tend to support the industry, while those who perceive tourism as an agent of environmental destruction tend to oppose its development (Hateftabar and Chapuis, 2020; Vargas et al., 2011; Butler, 1980). In general, various studies show that overall population support for tourism development is influenced by perceived environmental, socio-cultural, and economic benefits and costs (Lunberg, 2017; Almeida et al., 2016; Weaver and Lawton, 2013; Deery et al.,2012).

METHOD

This study empirically examines the influence of planning, the impact of tourism from the perspective of residents on tourism development. Quantitative techniques are used in this study through the distribution of online questionnaires during April 2021 to residents in the tourist area of Malang City with a sample of 200 people. The respondents of this study were local residents in the Colorful Village (Kampung Warna-Warni) and 3D Village (Kampung 3D) as a destination which choice in the strategic planning of Malang City. Therefore, the researchers used a quota sampling technique, in which each destination has a quota of 100 people. PLS-SEM was used in this study for statistical analysis and hypothesis testing. As recommended by Hair et al. (2014), PLS-SEM is a powerful statistical tool because it can be applied to all data scales, does not require many assumptions, and confirms relationships that do not yet have a strong theoretical basis. In relation to data processing, the PLS approach is used as a causal modeling approach and aims to maximize the explained variance of the dependent latent construct. In addition, PLS can also be used to develop hypotheses and predict complex situations. PLS differs from SEM in that it must meet theoretical evidence with clear parametric assumptions (Hair et al., 2014). Measurement of reliability in PLS-SEM uses Cronbach's and composite reliability with standard indicator loading of 0.70, while validity uses average variance extracted (AVE) with an acceptable value of more than 0.50, as recommended by Hair et al. (2014). The variables of this study were measured using a Linkert point scale of 1-5 (strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree, strongly agree). The indicators for each variable were obtained from various previous studies, Long-term Planning (Choi and Sirakaya, 2005), Political Participation and Local Planning Policy (Asmelash and Kumar, 2019), Institutional Sustainability (Cottrel and Vaske, 2006), Economic Impact (Dyer et al., 2007), Environmental Impact and Social-Cultural Impact (Almeida et al., 2016), Tourism development (Woosnam, 2010).

RESULT AND ANALYSIS

Malang City tourism development has been carried out in stages by relying on heritage tourism as a leading tourism. The tourism development program certainly needs to be supported by the local community which is the government's goal in the welfare of the community. Therefore, this study investigates the local community's perception of the tourism development launched by the government. This study has distributed questionnaires to local communities which are presented in Table 1 below regarding the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Tabel 1. Demographic Charactersitcs of Respondent

Demographic		Frequency (n)	Persentase (%)
Gender	Male	119	59.5
	Female	81	40.5
Age	20-25	34	17
	26-30	45	22.5
	31-35	52	26
	36-40	55	27.5
	≥41	14	7
Educa-tional Level	High school	67	33.5
	Undergraduate	108	54
	Master's degree	20	10
	Doctoral degree	5	2.5

Table 2. Reliability and Validity Construct

Variables	Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cron-bach's β	Composite Reliability	Average Vari-ance Extracted (AVE)
Long-Term Planning	LTP1	4.364	0.900			
	LTP2	4.013	0.780			
	LTP3	3.876	0.620			
				0.731	**0.849**	**0.653**
Political Participation	POP1	3.964	0.617			
	POP2	4.227	0.852			
	POP3	3.951	0.707			
				0.757	**0.859**	**0.670**
Local Planning Policy	LPP1	3.978	0.643			
	LPP2	4.204	0.824			
	LPP3	4.004	0.670			
				0.789	**0.876**	**0.701**
Institutional Sustainability	IS1	4.147	0.859			
	IS2	4.142	0.759			
	IS3	3.938	0.752			
	IS4	4.271	0.860			
	IS5	4.249	0.843			
	IS6	4.311	0.854			
				0.876	**0.906**	**0.618**
Perceived Economic Impact	Eco_I1	4.027	0.742			
	Eco_I2	3.973	0.666			
	Eco_I3	4.231	0.848			
	Eco_I4	4.013	0.696			
				0.835	**0.888**	**0.665**
Perceived Environment Impact	Env_I1	3.956	0.804			
	Env_I2	3.982	0.800			
	Env_I3	4.004	0.892			
	Env_I4	3.969	0.866			
				0.906	**0.934**	**0.780**
Perceived Social-Culture Impact	SC1	4.191	0.945			
	SC2	4.204	0.824			
	SC3	3.924	0.723			
	SC4	3.969	0.599			
	SC5	4.382	0.763			
	SC6	4.120	0.765			
	SC7	4.111	0.694			
	SC8	4.329	0.899			
	SC9	4.147	0.712			
	SC10	4.347	0.907			
				0.912	**0.926**	**0.558**
Tourism Development	TD1	4.156	0.888			
	TD2	4.204	0.891			
	TD3	3.858	0.710			
	TD4	3.867	0.680			
	TD5	4.076	0.928			
	TD6	3.889	0.767			
	TD7	4.089	0.890			
	TD8	3.973	0.827			
	TD9	3.911	0.755			
				0.944	**0.952**	**0.688**

The overall sample consisted of 119 men (59.5 percent) and 81 women (40.5 percent). Most respondents (27.5 percent, n=55) were 36-40 years old, 26 percent (n=52) were 31-35 years old, 22.5 percent (n=45) were 26-30 years old, 17 percent (n=34) aged 20-25 years, and 7 percent (n=14) aged 41 years. Meanwhile, the education level is as follows: 67 (33.5 percent) of the respondents are high school graduates, 108 (54 percent) of the respondents are undergraduate graduates, 20 (10 percent) are master's degrees, and 5 (2.5 percent) are doctoral graduates. Table 2 shows construct measurements for descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation) and measurements proposed for the study and explains the reliability and validity assumptions using PLS-SEM. Based on Hairet al. (2014) recommendations, composite reliability and Cronbach's determine reliability, so all items must be greater than 0.70. In this study all variables have a high composite reliability value, which is more than 0.8, among others, 0.849 (Long-Term Planning), 0.859 (Political Participation), 0.876 (Local Planning), 0.906 (Institutional Sustainability), 0.888 (Perceived Economic Impact), 0.934 (Perceived Environmental Impact), 0.926 (Perceived Sociql-Culture Impact) and 0.952 (Tousim Development). Furthermore, Cronbach's for all variables has a value of more than 0.7: 0.731 (Long-Term Planning), 0.757 (Political Participation), 0.789 (Local Planning), 0.876 (Institutional Sustainability), 0.835 (Perceived Economic Impact), 0.906 (Perceived Environment Impact), 0.912 (Perceived Social-Culture Impact), 0.944 (Tourism Development). All of these values are considered acceptable and confirmed quite reliably. To ensure validity, show that a set of indicators represent the same basic construct, which can be demonstrated through its unidimensionality. The validity of the discriminant variable is proven by calculating the extraction average value (AVE) and the value obtained between variables. That is, the AVE value for all variables is greater than 0.5, indicating that the variables of convergent validity are sufficient (Hair, 2019). Furthermore, each variable is measured and has a value of more than 0.5: for example 0.653 (Long-Term Planning), 0.670 (Political Participation), 0.701 (Local

Planning), 0.618 (Institutional Sustainability), 0.665 (Perceived Economic Impact), 0.780 (Perceived Environment Impact), 0.558 (Perceived Social-Culture Impact), 0.688 (Tourism Development). That AVE is a measure of communality for each latent variable (Hair et al., 2014) and shows adequate results because all variants show a value each exhibit above 0.50. Thus, the measurement of the construct of this research is indicated to be strong.

This study has nine relevant hypotheses tested using a statistical approach with PLS-SEM. It determines model-fit and path coefficients as quantities used in determining the overall relationship effect in the model. Regarding the sequential partial model was determined to run statistical analysis. Thus, the first hypothesis, the effect of long term planning is tested with institutional sustainability which shows a positive and significant effect (LTP = 0.170, p-value <0.05) and therefore H1 is accepted. The second hypothesis, Political Participation in institutional sustainability was tested and the results showed that it was not significant (POP=0.046, p-value>0.05) to conclude that it was rejected for H2. While the third hypothesis gives the results of the relationship between long term planning and institutional sustainability and shows a positive and significant effect (LPP = 0.650, p-value < 0.05), so H3 can be accepted. In addition, the fourth hypothesis shows that institutional sustainability on the perceived economic impact has a significant effect (IS = 0.776, p-value > 0.05), so H4 is accepted. The fifth hypothesis shows that the relationship between institutional sustainability and perceived environmental impact has a negative and significant effect (iS=-0.111, p-value <0.05), so H5 is rejected. While the results of testing the relationship between institutional sustainability and perceived socio-culture showed a positive and significant effect (IS = 0.761, p-value <0.05), then H6 was accepted. Table 3 also presents the mediating role of destination image from program content, quality of facilities, convenience, quality of information, and staff on revisit intentions, the implications of which will also be discussed. The seventh hypothesis, namely the effect of perceived economic impact, was tested with tourism development which showed a positive but not significant effect (Eco_I = 0.011, p-value <0.05) and therefore H7 was rejected. Then, the eighth hypothesis, namely testing the effect of perceived environmental impact on tourism development, was tested and showed significant and positive results (Env_I = 0.366, p-value> 0.05) so that H8 was accepted. While the ninth hypothesis gives an insignificant relationship between socio-culture and tourism development (SC=0.033, p-value <0.05), so H9 can be rejected. Table 3 also presents the mediating role of destination image from program content, quality of facilities, convenience, quality of information, and staff on revisit intentions, the implications of which will also be discussed.

Table 3. Hypothesis Testing

Reliationships	Direct Effect (β)	Indirect Effect (β)	T-Score	Probability	Conclusion
LTP □ IS	0.170		2.957	0.003	**Accepted**
POP □ IS	0.046		0.604	0.546	**Rejected**
LPP □ IS	0.650		8.558	0.000	**Accepted**
IS □ Eco_I	0.776		23.566	0.000	**Accepted**
IS □ Env_I	-0.112		2.856	0.004	**Accepted**
IS □ SC	0.761		18.723	0.000	**Accepted**
Eco_I □ TD	0.011		0.076	0.940	**Rejected**
Env_I □ TD	0.366		3.659	0.000	**Accepted**
SC □ TD	0.033		0.228	0.820	**Rejected**
LTP □ IS □ Eco_I	0.132	2.898		0.004	**Accepted**
POP □ IS □ Eco_I	0.036	0.599		0.549	**Rejected**
LPP □ IS □ Eco_I	0.505	7.522		0.000	**Accepted**
LTP □ IS □ Env_I	-0.019	2.070		0.039	**Accepted**
POP □ IS □ Env_I	-0.005	0.557		0.578	**Rejected**
LPP □ IS □ Env_I	-0.073	2.614		0.009	**Accepted**
LTP □ IS □ SC	0.130	2.786		0.006	**Accepted**
POP □ IS □ SC	0.035	0.594		0.553	**Rejected**
LPP □ IS □ SC	0.495	7.878		0.000	**Accepted**
N = 200; R^2 = IS (0.646); Eco_I (0.603); Env_I (0.013); SC (0.580); TD (0.133)					
***Sig. p-value < 0.10; **Sig. p-value<0.05; *** Sig. p-value<0.01**					

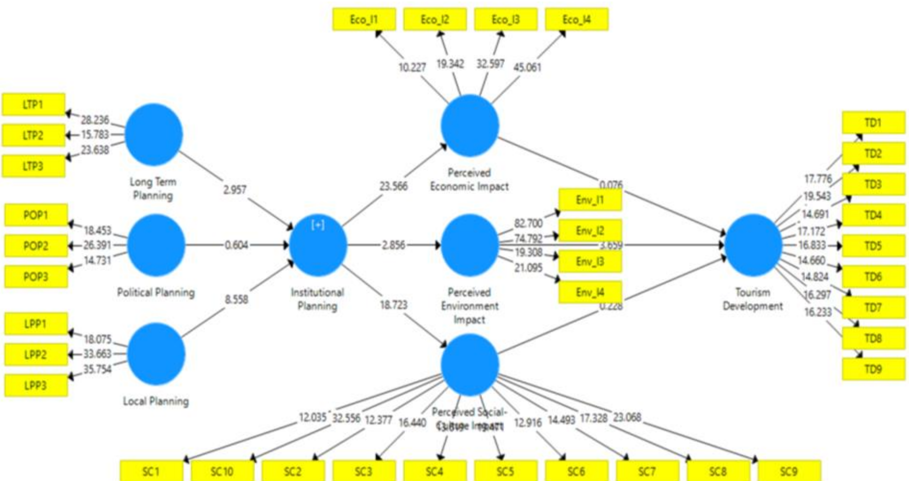

Figure 2. Structural Model Output

DISCUSSION

The findings in this study revolve around three main areas to give particular attention to tourism development in the context of local people's perceptions. First, tourism planning as defined earlier. Second, institutional stability was found to influence the success and subjective perception of tourism planning in tourist destinations in Malang City. Third, the results regarding the impacts of tourism that are felt by the community regarding tourism that have an impact on the main impetus for tourism development are summarized. Finally, a collaborative tourism planning process to improve subjective well-being at the local level (Hemmonsbey and Tichaawa, 2019). Optimal tourism planning is a must to achieve sustainability which is one of the most significant influences on how tourism develops which are closely interrelated in the context of tourism governance (Dredge and Jenkins, 2007). In this study, attention is directed to the point of view of tourism planning which has not been widely discussed. The results of this study are in line with previous research which reflects that good long-term tourism planning can promote good governance (Ampong, 2018; Gibson, 2009). Furthermore, effective tourism planning can help in dealing with the negative consequences of this sector, especially environmental and community impacts so that governance tends to be more stable (Almeida et al., 2017). Apart from that, as a framework for decision making, long-term planning is also a guide for all future development activities. With clear long-term planning, the government and local communities can identify the strengths and weaknesses of a tourism product, define a set of goals and objectives. An area that has the right long-term planning allows it to maximize all its potential so that it does not only focus on instantaneous profits. The long-term planning carried out by the City of Malang related to tourism has been contained in the Regional Tourism Development Master Plan (RIPPD) which was formulated to realize the leading tourism of Malang City.

Political participation is one of the recommended topics in tourism development. With the participation of the community in planning, it will bring up a shared view of tourism development (Ramukumba, 2019). This type of tourism planning process allows many tourism actors to consider tourism development and how their well-being will be affected by tourism growth (Jamal and Getz, 1995). An example of participation in planning is a public meeting with the actors involved with the opportunity to respond to a planning proposal (Buanes et al., 2005). In addition, recent research on planning models has shown that community-involved tourism plans are more successfully implemented and maintained than other types of tourism planning (Plummer et al., 2006). The tourism planning developed in Malang City has not involved the community much in its preparation. Meanwhile, the problem that may be faced by the government according to Forester (1982) is that when producing an effective plan, a public planner will experience confusion in his alignment with a decision. People's input comes from the point of view of ordinary people and may lack the technical background and knowledge needed later in decision making so they are not too much involved in planning. In addition to the aspect of involvement in planning, the focus of the policy planning taken also needs to be adjusted to certain regions. Therefore, regional policy planning is formed so that tourism development can optimize every advantage that exists in the region. This shows that the tourism sector certainly requires a tourism development plan that is specifically structured according to the potential of an area. Malang City itself has issued several regional regulations that regulate the tourism process so that Malang City's local policy is considered adequate. The results of this study support the opinion of several previous studies which state that tourism development can be influenced by local environmental, social and economic contexts which may require more attention to certain aspects than others (Lawton and Weaver, 2015; Harrill and Potts, 2003). In the tourism process, policy can be used to regulate stakeholders and as a tool to prevent potential conflicts (Beritelli and Laesser, 2011). With a strong link between local policies for development prevents inappropriate implementation at a local scale and helps find solutions that are shared by local communities and targeted at specific priorities.

Governments change over time as they adapt to evolving social circumstances, such as “shifts in the influence of influential actors or hegemonic values” (Dredge and Jenkins, 2007). Changes in extreme conditions such as environmental, economic and social conditions as well as inappropriate government activities can be factors that undermine institutional stability. Meanwhile, to support tourism development optimally, institutional stability is needed because it affects various aspects of tourism. The positive and significant influence is shown by the results of the study in Table 3 for institutional stability on the perceived economic impact of the local community. Stability in government is a political construction affecting the economy that involves the process of mobilizing and coordinating social action so that it affects economic conditions (Beaumont and Dredge, 2010). The economic impact of institutional stability has been widely applied in the social sciences, but rarely in tourism (Bramwell, 2010). A positive relationship shows that the government is considered to help regulate the community to reduce various economic crises with its stability in tourism development. Political legitimacy in the context of unstable social relations leads to the failure of the necessary authorities to regulate the economy. Then, this study also examines the indirect effect of long term planning, political participation and local planning policy through institutional sustainability. However, only long term planning and local planning policies were accepted, while political planning had no significant effect.

The current stability of the Malang City government which is considered not to have a positive environmental impact. The lack of environmental care activities with the existence of tourism carried out by the City of Malang is one of the causes. The difficulties experienced are expressed by Hall (2003) where ecotourism policies are more complicated because economic impacts tend to be prioritized. A very constructive role cannot be ignored in the process of economic growth and development, but at the same time the environmental aspect cannot be ruled out because it also affects social welfare (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2019). The results of the research by Xuchao et al. (2010) stated that energy consumption and CO_2 emissions are mainly caused by the hotel and tourism industry. Negative environmental impacts can certainly be minimized by making appropriate policies that require government stability as the executor. Institutional stability is seen as capable of providing tourism development that is compatible with the maintenance of vital ecological processes, diversity and biological resources (Katerina and Gabriela, 2012).

Furthermore, to examine the indirect effect, this study also measures the mediating role of institutional sustainability from long term planning, political participation and local planning policy through institutional sustainability. However, only long-term planning and local planning policies were accepted, while political planning had no significant effect. Perceptions related to the social impact of tourism in this study are related to positive or negative changes in social and cultural conditions (Park, 2007). Tourism itself is a social phenomenon that also plays a role in producing places and preserving culture and the development of social activities. Good institutional stability guarantees social welfare and the protection of local culture. It is very important for the government to understand how people perceive the benefits and disadvantages of tourism. Several studies state that institutional stability makes it easier for people to obtain better social welfare because it reflects better tourism planning and development (Deery et al., 2010). This welfare can be in the form of encouraging cultural activities, improving infrastructure and increasing security and living standards of local communities. Indirect influence is also measured which shows the results that long-term planning and local planning policies are accepted, while political planning does not have a significant influence. Community support related to tourism development is generally divided into two categories, namely economic and non-economic rationality.

The first category emphasizes residents' perceptions of the economic impact of tourism development and relies on calculating material benefits to explain supportive attitudes and behaviors (Nunkoo and Gursoy, 2012; Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2011). The results of this study are certainly contrary to the principle of the direction of tourism development in Malang City which focuses on increasing employment opportunities so that it can accelerate economic growth and alleviate poverty. According to social exchange theory, residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs incurred can determine support for tourism (McGehee and Anderek, 2004).

Low or even negative economic impact is a trigger for rejection of tourism development (Nunkoo and Gursoy, 2012). Then, when this research was conducted, the condition of tourism in Malang City experienced a drastic decline which also affected the local community's economy. In addition, the situation where the economic impact felt by tourism and institutional stability may be uneven and only focuses on a few major tourist destinations is also the cause. The most influential important factor in explaining tourism support is the personal economic benefits derived from tourism (Dyer et al., 2007; Gursoy et al., 2010), especially in areas where tourism is expected to alleviate poverty or become a pillar industry (Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004). So by ensuring a balanced exchange between the benefits expected by the whole society received from tourism it becomes a tool for driving tourism development.

There is no doubt that people's views on environmental impacts have changed over time. Every development activity leads to environmental change, tourism is one of them (Lee et al., 2013). Tourism often has the potential to contribute positively to local development but at the same time, its rapid and sometimes uncontrolled growth can be a major cause of environmental degradation and loss of local identity and traditional culture (Zhang and Gao, 2016). Errors in planning tourism activities due to government instability can intensify natural degradation and environmental damage. Various studies reveal negative environmental impacts of tourism (eg, Barros et al, 2013; Rashid and Romshoo, 2012). Malang city itself has great natural tourism potential. Nature-based tourism itself has long been recognized as an agent of ecological change in natural systems (Monz et al., 2010). However, the results of research showing a positive influence indicate that the development of natural environmental conditions due to tourism has a positive impact. One of the phenomena that occurs is the emergence of various new tourist attractions based on local wisdom which used to be slum housing. The tourist destinations here have the effect of increasing the environmental index significantly higher than the surrounding non-tourism areas. With this positive perception, it will increase local community support regarding tourism development (Ramukumba, 2019). The next focus is the social and cultural perceptions felt by the local community as a result of tourism activities on tourism development. Some researchers have argued that people's support for tourism is likely to depend on the emotions, affections, and beliefs that shape behavior (Lee et al., 2012; Boley et al., 2017). Similar to economic perceptions, tourism development support is also measured based on the perceived social impact (Adinolfi, 2019). The results of this study indicate that social and cultural perceptions are not the main predictors of tourism development. This is explained by Deery et al (2012) who state that the social impact of tourism cannot be overestimated. The perception of the social and cultural impact felt by the community from tourism is not too large due to a decline in tourism activity during Covid-19. The interactions that exist automatically also decrease so that the socio-cultural impact is not significant.

Implications, limitations, and future research

Local community planning and support is very important in tourism development. Experts have identified suitable planning models in tourism development, but few have taken into account the stability of the institution and the perceived impact on the community. Stakeholder theory is used to examine the most ideal tourism planning. Meanwhile, Social Exchange Theory is used to see the perception of the local community in supporting tourism development. The findings of this study can broaden the theoretical perspective regarding the complexity of planning and community support for tourism. Furthermore, this research provides important insights to the city government regarding tourism development planning. Based on this research, institutional stability is a key factor influencing people's perceptions of tourism development. Tourism planners should also emphasize citizen participation and pay attention to profit sharing in supporting the economic and social impacts of tourism development. Although tourism brings tremendous benefits, the positive impacts are not being felt evenly and the Covid-19 pandemic is making things worse. The government needs to pay attention to the comparison of benefits can create a sense of injustice, which can greatly weaken local community support for tourism. Tourism planners should also seek to identify the negative impacts of tourism activities. Planners should consider that the community is not a tourist attraction that is intended only to meet the needs of tourists. More attention needs to be paid to the daily comfort of residents and the safety of residents when planning tourism projects. Although this study made some important contributions, some limitations need to be considered to support future research. First, this study only measures tourism planning that focuses on the region and does not discuss it at a higher level. Future research can evaluate higher-level policies and their alignment with existing local policies. Furthermore, this study only examines the perception of the impact of tourism from local communities in tourist destinations; in fact, the impact of tourism development on other stakeholders such as restaurants, transportation bureaus and shopping centers is also felt. Future research should evaluate the perceptions of other tourism stakeholders in more detail.

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Article history: Received: 14.08.2021 Revised: 06.12.2021 Accepted: 04.02.2022 Available online: 01.03.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.253-258
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40130-826

BIOGEOGRAPHIC POTENTIAL OF THE NORTH KAZAKH PLAIN IN THE PERSPECTIVE OF HEALTH TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

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Citation: Makhanova, N., Berdenov, Z., Wendt, J.A., Sarsekova, D., Mursalimova, E., Sansyzbayeva, A., Nurtazina, N., & Safarov, R. (2022). BIOGEOGRAPHIC POTENTIAL OF THE NORTH KAZAKH PLAIN IN THE PERSPECTIVE OF HEALTH TOURISM DEVELOPMENT. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 253–258. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40130-826

Abstract: Abstract: The article presents the prospects for the development of natural and recreational activities in the field of medical and health tourism within the ribbon pine forest, located in the southern outskirts of the West Siberian dry steppe lowland. The purpose of the study is to assess the biological and geographical potential of the forest landscape for the development of recreational areas. This is especially true for the Northern region of Kazakhstan, since industry is developed on the territory, it is characterized by technogenesis. Research methods include field reconnaissance, cartographic modeling using GIS technologies, and laboratory experiments to determine the phytoncide activity of the biological material of trees – Scots pine – collected at different intervals of the day. The results of the study are statistical data on laboratory research. For convenience, they are presented in the form of cartographic material, built based on spatial data of the territory. The paper considers and addresses the ecosystem’s natural potential and the recreational infrastructure of the studied object.

Key words: potential, recreation, tourism, rest landscape, phytoncide activity, forest bathing

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INTRODUCTION

Landscape components, that have balneological significance in human life and are formed in special landscape-forming factors, contain a huge potential for medical and health tourism development (Tokpanov et al., 2021; Nakonechnykh et al., 2021; Akhmedenov, 2021). One of such fundamental components is plants. During their life activity, plants produce volatile organic compounds, phytoncides, protecting themselves from diseases. Phytoncides are bactericidal, protistocidal, and fungicidal substances produced by higher and lower plant organisms for protection and healing purposes (Tokin, 1951; Li, 2006). Nature-based tourism accounts for 7% of all international travel worldwide (Li et al., 2010; Herman et al., 2019). The current trend will direct priorities in the search for medical and wellness trips of people. The impact of the Covid-19 pandemic has fundamentally transformed the concept of tourism appearance (Rogerson, 2021; Munne et al., 2021). The possibility of using the phytoncide activity of the landscapes to prevent the consequences of the virus is a promising direction of biogeography (Berdenov et al., 2021; Dunets et al., 2019). A special role in the choice of the territory of Northern Kazakhstan is played by the developed industry of the region, the influence of technogenesis (Shomanova, 2019; Safarov and Berdenov, 2021), as well as the transboundary nature of the region (Ilies and Grama, 2010; Dunets et al., 2020; Shumkina, 2015). It is here that the development of recreational recreation, domestic and border tourism is necessary.

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The main role of phytoncidal activity in medical geography, since technogenesis zones are characterized by a predominance of diseases of the upper respiratory tract, and the identification of areas with the highest phytocidal activity makes it possible to scientifically substantiate the placement of health resorts and hiking trails (Akhmedenov, 2021; Dunets et al., 2019). Objects of the natural reserve fund play a key role in the development of cross-border tourism. These objects represent the landscape diversity of the tourist area. However, tourism activity is extremely poorly developed. Most of the tourist routes exist only in projects; infrastructure facilities are concentrated in visitor centers and field hospitals. A search for a compromise between organized tourism activities and the optimal conservation regime is often being conducted. Natural and recreational resources can serve as a solid foundation for further deepening of integration processes between regions only in the case of competent and balanced nature management and coordination of common efforts (Indrie et al., 2020; Ilies et al., 2017; Sansyzbayeva et al., 2020). Less well known as recreational areas, the northern boreal forests have become important for hiking and adventure tourism, which are now becoming increasingly popular as tourist destinations (Kremenetski et al., 1997; Volodarets et al., 2018). The geographical location of sanatoriums and health resorts in ribbon pine forests should be balanced with the indicators of phytoncide activity given in the results of the study.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The research was carried out in the forest ecosystem of the North Kazakh Plain, represented by a ribbon pine forest within the boundaries of the Semey Ormany State Forest Natural Reserve (Figure 1). The object has a sub-meridian cone shape, 100 km long from north to south. The northernmost part, 5-8 km wide, begins at 81° 08' 27' E and 51° 13' 17' N and widens to approximately 51° 22' with a base along the Irtysh River. The area of the object is 2500 km2. The absolute height ranges from 250 to 330 m. The study proceeded for 2 weeks and was conducted from May 30 to June 12 in 2021.

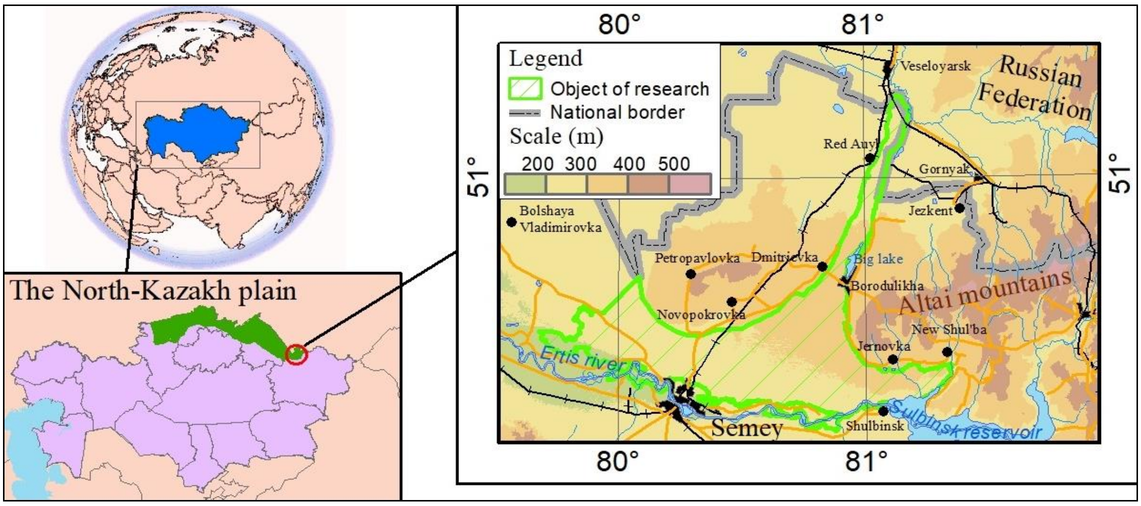

Figure 1. Location of the study area (compiled by the authors in the ArcGIS program)

According to the physical-geographical zoning, the studied area is located in the southern steppe subzone of the dry steppe zone, relative to the lowered accumulative plains. The climate of the territory is continental due to the far distance from the oceans and seas. The coldest month is January, with an average temperature of -15.1°C. In summer, the average temperature reaches +21.7°C. The average annual rainfall is 275 mm. Aeolian sands, formed in the Pleistocene as a result of the re-deposition of ancient alluvium along the now buried valley, with a thickness of up to 20 meters, are an intrazonal landscape component. It determined the growth of a kind of tree and shrub cover in this area. The predominant tree species is Scots Pine (*Pinus Sylvestris L.*), which spread in these places in the Post-glacial period. Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris L.*) was chosen as the studied component of the landscape due to a naturally high phytoncide activity in the dry steppe zone of Inner Asia. It is the dominant tree species covering the relict ribbon pine forest on the eastern edge of the North Kazakh plain. This unique natural object with an intrazonal soil genesis extends latitudinally (sub-meridianally). The boundaries of the landscape are very clear and are caused by quaternary geology, soil, and vegetation cover. According to radiocarbon analysis of tree pollen in sediments, the age of the landscape covers 12000-9500 years to the present day.

The theoretical and methodological approaches are based on the methods and results of research by Soviet and post-Soviet scientists in the field of phytoncide activity of plants. The phenomenon of phytoncides was discovered empirically in 1928-1929 during the testing of the hypothesis of mitogenetic radiations conducted by the research school of A. G. Gurvich. B. Tokin carried out the experiments in the laboratory of Leningrad University, regarding the effect of volatile substances of onion gruel on yeast, and failed. However, it served as an impetus in those years for extensive research in the USSR (Beloussov et al., 1997). From the 30s to the 70s of the XX century, the USSR had a leading position in the field of studying phytoncides. Danini E. M. developed a methodology for studying the antibacterial properties of phytoncides of higher plants, then widely used phytoncides in medicine. Grodzinsky A.M. founded the direction of phytodesign and, while studying plant physiology, introduced the formula for calculating phytoncide activity. Since the 1960s, Germany expressed wide interest in. J. Jung discovered that the bark of the balsam poplar, Populus candicans, contains substances with fungistatic activity and that these substances can be isolated from the bark by boiling. Muller-Dietz H. developed phytoncide therapy (Li, 2010).

Since the beginning of the 2000s, the effect of phytoncides on the biochemical processes of animals and humans has been widely studied in East Asian countries (Abe, 2008) investigated antioxidant effects and antimicrobial activity. S. Zhang, J.H. Jung, H.S. Kim reviewed the effect of phytoncides on growth rates, nutrient absorption, blood counts, diarrhea rates, and excretion of fecal microflora in pigs. B. Sin, D. Im, K.K. Lee compared hormonal changes in cortisol when visiting forest ecosystems (Park et al., 2011). Taiwan, Japan, and South Korea have developed a therapeutic technique known as "forest bathing," in which people actively inhale phytoncides produced by trees and plants to improve physical health, including blood pressure, autonomic nervous system, and various hormones. There have been many studies on aerotherapy or forest bathing. The objectives of the study were the psychological impact of the forest environment on healthy adults as a potential method of stress reduction (Miyazaki, 2011; Park et al., 2010). During their life cycle, plant organisms emit biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs), phytoncides, of various concentrations into the air. BVOCs in the natural environment affect the vital activity of microorganisms of the host ecosystem and ensure the balance of its pathogenic microflora. Phytoncide activity (PA) is the ability of BVOCs to inhibit the growth and development of bacteria, protozoa, and fungi (Volatile activity VA). PA in the natural environment depends on meteorological conditions, the flowering phase of the studied plant, and the ontogeny of the plant itself. The main methods of this study are comparative geographic analysis, processing of statistical and laboratory data, and the cartographic method.

The desktop GIS Arc GIS v. 10.5 application carried out the construction of maps and diagrams, spatial analysis. We reviewed SRTM models of the study area and local topographic maps for the presence of high-slope landforms. The slope is an important factor in choosing a route. Based on a digital elevation model, we searched the paths with the lowest costs for the tourist route (Beketova et al., 2019; Berdenov et al., 2016). The subject of the study. At the laboratory stage, pathogenic microorganisms were cultivated in an artificial environment in Petri dishes via in vitro. Fungi of the genus *Fusarium* were chosen as indicators of the phytoncide activity of the forest landscape (Figure 2). The nutrient medium was a semi-synthetic meat-peptone agar of a semi-liquid consistency. Fungi grew in a slightly alkaline medium with pH = 7.3 ± 0.1.

Table 1. Geographic coordinates of sampling areas

№	Name of sampling plots (name of settlements)	Coordinates: northern latitude	Coordinates: eastern longitude	Coordinate system
1	Tarsk	51° 08' 44.594"	81° 06' 09.010"	WGS-84
2	Aul	51° 01' 28.566"	81° 04' 02.329"	
3	Berezovka	50° 51' 17.767"	80° 59' 35.880"	
4	Borodulikha	50° 44' 12.716"	80° 54' 15.767"	
5	Mikhailoskiye lakes	50° 36' 52.664"	80° 42' 12.795"	
6	Zhernovka	50° 26' 18.786"	81° 04' 59.971"	
7	Ozerki	50° 25' 46.155"	80° 34' 36.843"	
8	Semey	50° 29' 23.170"	80° 16' 55.963"	

Figure 2. Fungi of the *Fusarium* genus in Petri dish (Source: author's)

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

In fieldwork, the needles of trees were selected on sampling plots located inside the studied object and delivered to the place with laboratory conditions and equipment. A total of eight sample plots were established (Table 1) and located at a distance of 15-20 km from each other. The sample plots were stations with an approximate area of 1000 m^3, where 5 to 7 trees were selected. Trees were chosen to meet the requirements to be healthy in appearance, without damage, and to be young trees – aged 30-40 years old. The needles from the trees were selected without damage, signs of disease, and chlorosis, and from different exposures of the lower tier (Figure 3). The time of transportation of materials to the laboratory did not exceed two astronomical hours. In the second stage, work was carried out on the preparation of plant material and observation. Using the hanging drop method in laboratory work, borrowed from Professor Tokin (Tokin, 1980), the crushed material brought close to the pathogenic fungus. The observation recorded the time when the vital signs of fungus stopped. The used equipment was a Motic microscope SFC-100FL model. The names of eight sampling plots were assigned according to nearby settlements and natural objects; the coordinates are given in Table 1.

Phytoncide activity was calculated by the formula (Grodzinskiy, 1973): $A = 100/T$ (min^{-1}),

A – is the phytoncide activity; T – is the time of death, stopping the growth of 50% mycelium of the *Fusarium spp*.

In the border regions of Kazakhstan and Russia, a large number of unique natural and recreational sites are concentrated, as well as a unique network of specially protected natural areas. This is due to the low population density and poor economic development of border areas. Habitats of many rare species of living organisms, unique ecosystems, and landscapes are concentrated along the borders. According to the analysis of the SRTM model, the relief does not have sharp fluctuations in relative heights and is represented by a slightly sloping plain. Only in some parts, there are hilly places, with a relative elevation of 20-25 m. The analysis of the relief and the existing infrastructure of the area were taken into account in choosing tourist routes for hiking Laboratory research results show the distribution of phytoncide activity in the forest ecosystem. Concerning the time factor, there is a correlation of indicators with the solar phase.

The data on graph (Figure 4.) demonstrate the highest activity of phytoncide activity in the morning, then its significant decline in the afternoon – the hottest time section in the day. Deviations in the area of plot № 5 Mikhailovskie lakes are caused by high humidity from a stagnant reservoir. Presumably, the factor of atmospheric humidity and temperature accelerates the physiological processes in trees. The volatile activity of coniferous trees (Pinus sylvestris L.) gradually fades after the morning phase. For the best healing effect, a person should be on foot between 6 am – 12 pm.

Figure 3. Place of collection of Scots pine (*Pinus Sylvestris L.*) needles:
a - Plot № 1 sample of young cones; b - Plot № 2; c - Plot № 7; d - Plot № 8 (photo of the author at sampling sites)

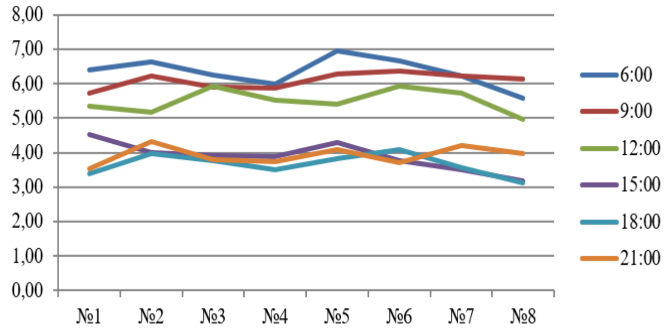

Figure 4. Graph of volatile activity by daily phase

Table 2. Statistical characteristics of PA according to daily chronology

Stats	6 a.m.	9 a.m.	12 p.m.	3 p.m.	6 p.m.	9 p.m.
Minimum:	5.59	5.71	4.98	3.19	3.13	3.52
Maximum:	6.94	6.37	5.92	4.52	4.08	4.31
Sum:	50.68	48.72	43.99	31.12	29.23	31.34
Mean:	6.34	6.09	5.49	3.89	3.65	3.92
Stan. Deviation:	0.397	0.214	0.316	0.395	0.295	0.256

Table 3. Indicators of phytoncide activity (min^{-1})

№	Daily sampling time						Mean
	6 a.m.	9 a.m.	12 p.m.	3 p.m.	6 p.m.	9 p.m.	
1	6.41	5.71	5.35	4.52	3.39	3.52	4.82
2	6.62	6.21	5.18	4.02	3.97	4.31	5.05
3	6.25	5.92	5.92	3.92	3.76	3.80	4.93
4	5.99	5.88	5.52	3.89	3.51	3.73	4.75
5	6.94	6.29	5.41	4.31	3.83	4.10	5.15
6	6.67	6.37	5.92	3.77	4.08	3.70	5.09
7	6.21	6.21	5.71	3.50	3.56	4.20	4.90
8	5.59	6.13	4.98	3.19	3.13	3.98	4.50

Samples collected in the evening produced a minimal impact on fungi. However, in the daily interval of 9 pm, the average value of the activity of BVOCs increases relative to the previous selection at 6 pm (Table 2). In the course of studying the potential of phytoncide activity of the study area, a summary table of the main natural and recreational resources of the territories was compiled. These areas form the tourist attractiveness of the regions and can become links of cross-border cooperation in the field of tourism (Table 3).Based on this data, using the cartographic method and the Thiessen polygons in the Coverage toolset, we modeled a map with potentially higher phytoncide activity (Figure 5) plotted by the route of our study.

The geographical distribution of phytoncide activity is not even. The northern part at latitude 50°50′ n. shows the weakening of the effect of the volatile compounds. The same similar observations are shown in the southwestern part of the forest landscape. The cartographic material (Figure 5) depicts territories with three gradations. Low phytoncide activity is typical for plots № 1, 2, and 8, where the arboreal pine consists of young trees. Sampling plots, with the observation of average values of phytoncide activity, have a relatively developed infrastructure. The dispensary "Berezovka" (№. 3) and the administrative district is the village of Borodulikha (№ 4) are located there. However, the sanatorium is used exclusively for medical purposes for tuberculosis patients. Identified territories with high values of phytoncide activity are plots № 5 and № 6. Near plot № 5, there are about four children's health-improving camps. Given the current urbanization, the existing recreational infrastructure is not sufficient for a wide range of people. It is very important for urban residents to organize such types of tourism as hiking, horseback riding, exercises with a qualified instructor for the respiratory organs, etc. in places with high phytoncide activity.

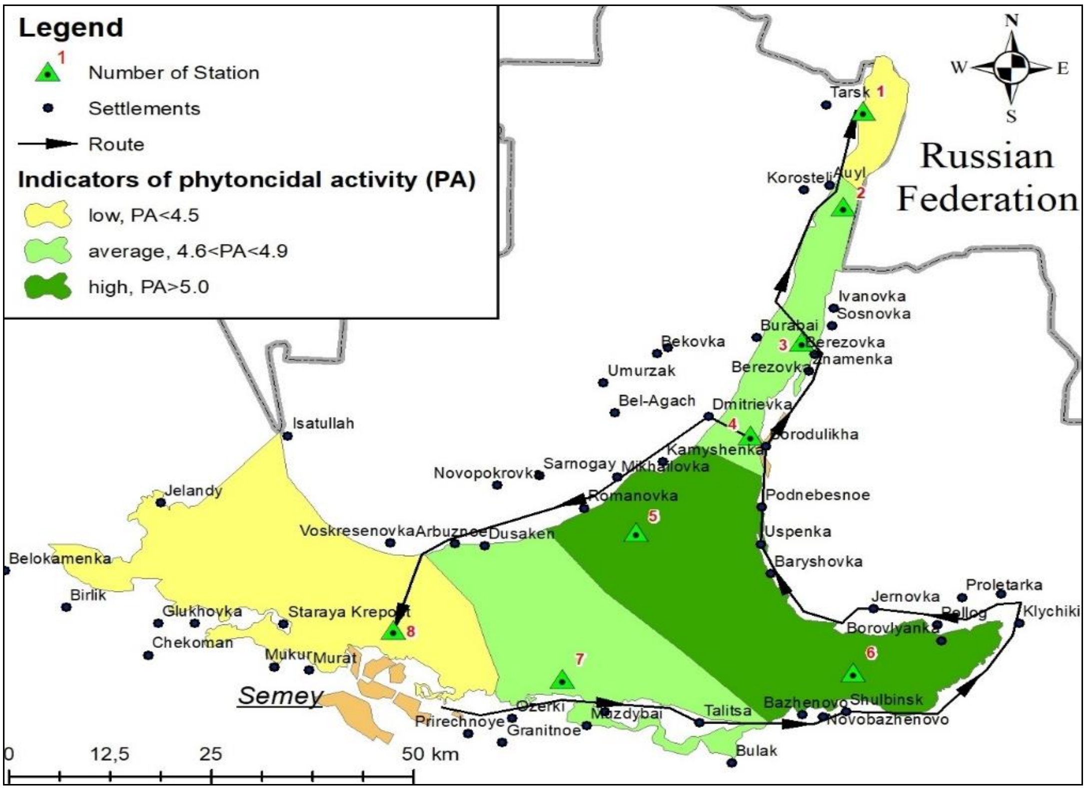

Figure 5. Map of territories with potentially higher phytoncide activity (compiled by the author in the ArcGIS program)

CONCLUSION

The results show that the southeastern part of the North Kazakh Plain is a natural reservoir of antibiotics (phytoncides) in high concentrations in relict pines (Figure 4). The selected methodology for studying the effect of phytoncides on pathogenic fungi made it possible to experimentally show the distribution of volatile activity in ecosystems. There are two places in the world with similar ribbon forests. The first one is in Canada, and the second is in the West Siberian territory of Russia and Kazakhstan. The use of such unique natural objects for health purposes can bring an effective result for people. Today, the proposed method of health tourism refers to aerotherapy or taking forest baths. The proximity of the studied landscape to the cross-border territory raises prospects and trends for the development of tourism. Cooperation in the tourism field and the involvement of integration partners in joint innovative projects for the development of communications and the use of the natural resource potential of the participating countries is possible only with mutually beneficial cooperation and the interest of both sides.

Research and development of balneological resources are closely linked to the health care system. Thanks to properly organized recreation and health improvement of the population, it is included in the complex of organizing a healthy lifestyle and preventing many diseases. The development of these resources is important for the local population, since it is excessive to spend money and time on long trips to places of rest and treatment abroad. It is also important that the population will have the opportunity to relax and be treated in their usual climatic conditions, without wasting vacation time acclimatizing at resorts, and then re-acclimatizing after returning. It is especially important for the population working in the zones of technogenic impact of the Northern region of the country. The article reflects an attempt to assess the forest ecosystem for health tourism based on the therapeutic effect of phytoncides. The foregoing research on the subject requires the necessary study in the future and disclosure in a wider chronological framework.

Acknowledgments

We express our gratitude to the Kazakh Research Institute of Forestry and Agroforestry Reclamation, Shchuchinsk, Kirov st 58 for their intellectual contribution to this work and for providing us with samples of Fusarium spp.

Funding: The given research was carried out within the framework of a project funded by the Science Committee of the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan (Grant No. AP08856347).

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Article history: Received: 07.11.2021 Revised: 06.01.2022 Accepted: 09.02.2022 Available online: 09.03.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.259-266
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40131-827

REGIONAL TOURISM RESILIENCE AND RECOVERY IN TIMES OF CRISES

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Citation: Gaki, E., & Koufodontis, N.I. (2022). REGIONAL TOURISM RESILIENCE AND RECOVERY IN TIMES OF CRISES. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 259–266. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40131-827

Abstract: Regional resilience is typically described as the ability of a region to withstand shocks and recuperate from various crises. This paper examines the quantitative aspect of tourism resilience and focuses on tourism employment. The aim is to highlight the distinct potential of each Greek region to recover from the ongoing pandemic, based on its calculated tourism resilience. This empirical research uses secondary data and calculated indices developed for evaluating regional resilience. Statistical data from official sources provides information regarding regional employment with focus on tourism. Preliminary findings show that important differences are evident between regions regarding their resilience and their subsequent ability to recover from ongoing crises. Estimated resiliency is not always accompanied by a corresponding recovery, especially on the tourism sector. Regions with a strong tourism industry seem to have a stronger resilience than regions that base their development on other industries and this is an indication but at the same time shows the potential of tourism for the development of a region.

Key words: tourism, resilience, crisis, resistance, recovery, NUTS-2 (European Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics at level 2)

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INTRODUCTION

Economic crisis, natural disasters, terrorism and most recently the pandemic have affected regions' development. Regions, however, do not respond in the same way to these shocks. Some of them seem to be prepared and deal with the shocks in a successful way (Cirer-Costa, 2020), while others seem to be unprepared and fail to cope with the consequences of these shocks. It is therefore accurate to say that some regions seem to be more resilient than others. In addition to that, this resilience is correlated, among other things, to the regions' prominent industry, often affected by strengths and weaknesses of individual firms (Kaczmarek et al., 2021). Resilience is a concept that was initially used in engineering and ecology. Holling (1973) was the first to introduce resilience as the notion that "determines the persistence of relationships within a system and is a measure of the ability of these systems to absorb changes of state variables, driving variables, and parameters, and still persist" (Holling, 1973:17). Over the last decades the concept has been embraced and refined by economists and regional scientists. Regional resilience measures the ability of a region to withstand shocks and recover from various crises. According to Walker and Lee (2004) resilience is "the capacity of a system to absorb disturbance and reorganize while undergoing change so as to still retain essentially the same function, structure, identity, and feedbacks" (Walker and Lee, 2004:2). Folke et al. (2010) on the other hand, defined resilience as "the capacity of a system to absorb disturbance and reorganize while undergoing change so as to still retain essentially the same function, structure and feedbacks, and therefore identity, that is, the capacity to change in order to maintain the same identity" (Folke et al., 2010:3). According to Martin et al (2016) the notion of resilience describes how a region or a system reacts and recovers from a shock (Martin et al., 2016:564), while Di Pietro et al. (2021) are seeing resilience as the economic system's ability to recover from an external disturbance (Di Pietro et al., 2021:287).

The concept of resilience can be used by researchers in order to study and analyze the effect of shocks on regions and the consequent behavior of the regions. The question that still remains to be answered is what are the key elements that make regions react differently to shocks and what are the factors of a successful reaction. This research focuses on the impact of several crises at the regional level. More specifically the emphasis is placed on tourism activity as the most dynamic sector of the Greek economy. The aim of this paper is to highlight the distinct potential of each Greek region to recover from an economic crisis or the ongoing pandemic, based on its calculated tourism resilience. It is examined whether regions, based on the level of participation in the tourism industry, have different levels of resilience.

Reaction and recovery of a region after a crisis appears to be influenced by the characteristics of the region and each region has a distinct resilience. If the relationship between regional attributes and resilience proves to be a solid and measurable dependency, then it can be strategically utilized not only to predict the potential outcome but also to take measures that could improve the chances and speed of the recovery. The importance of this research lies to the fact that regions seem to react differently to various crises and shocks. The regions' characteristics determine that reaction and if the reaction can be predicted, then it can change or even improve. The paper is structured as follows: in Section 2 we present

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the relevant literature review that frames our study, regarding regional resilience and development, the impact of tourism and the importance of tourism in the Greek economy. Section 3 includes the methodology of the research and Section 4 presents the main findings. Finally, Sections 5 and 6 contain the discussion and conclusions, respectively.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Resilience is a concept that was initially used in engineering and ecology. After the first use of the term by Holling (1973) regional economists used it to identify the reaction of a region to various shocks and crisis. According to Foster (2007) resilience "is the ability of an economy to anticipate, to prepare, to respond and to recover form a shock". Martin and Sunley (2007) in their work defined resilience as "the capacity of a regional or local economy to withstand or recover from market, competitive and environmental shocks to its developmental growth path, if necessary, by undergoing adaptive changes to its economic structures and its social and institutional arrangements, so as to maintain or restore its previous developmental path, or transit to a new sustainable path characterized by a fuller and more productive use of its physical, human and environmental resources". Later on, Briguglio et al. (2009) reported that resilience "has been used in at least three ways in relation to its ability to: recover quickly from adversity, to withstand the effect of adversity, and to avoid adversity altogether" (Briguglio et al., 2009:233). On the other hand, Kallioras (2011) stated that "resilience of a region is measured based on the evaluation of its ability to maintain a successful path of development after a disturbance, whether success is perceived in terms of traditional indicators such as growth or change of employment, or in terms of a synthetic index". The economic crisis of the previous years enhanced the meaning of resilience as it can also reveal how different regions can deal with shocks (Martin, 2018). Towards this end, Bishop (2019) revealed that regions with a strong and diverse knowledge stock show higher regional resilience. In addition, Giannakis and Bruggeman, (2020) in their research indicated that resilience is different among urban, intermediate and rural regions, while Brown et al. (2020) highlighted the connection between firm resilience to regional resilience. These definitions and many more have a common ground, considering resilience as the region's ability to react to shocks. For example, Martin (2012:6) presented a region's development path, using a line that shows a region's path which is interrupted by a shock. A shock moves a region's economy outside of the path followed, but the economy has the ability to return to its pre-shock growth trend. But this is not always the case.

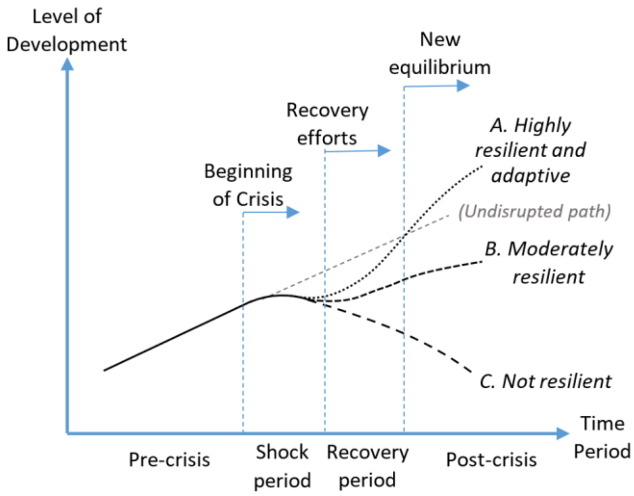

Figure 1. Types of resilience for a region under shock (Source: authors)

Region's show different levels of resilience, or even have no resilience. Figure 1 represents the different ways that a region can respond to a crisis. If high resilience is supplemented by capability for adaptation and innovation, a successful recovery can not only re-establish the previous rate of progress but it can also result in a higher rate; leading eventually to an improved development path. This could happen, if the region manages to respond successfully, building upon its resiliency, while taking advantage of the new conditions and turning the threat into an opportunity (case "A" in Figure 1). In a more typical case, a moderately resilient region will eventually recover from the crisis, albeit not necessarily fully, resulting in lower levels and rate of development (case "B" in Figure 1).

Finally, a non-resilient region might lose all development momentum as result of the crisis, entering a challenging period of decline (case "C" in Figure 1). The concept of resilience in tourism has been approached from a variety of paths. Tyrrell and Johnston (2008) define resilience as "the ability of social, economic or ecological systems to recover from tourism-induced stress" and consider it a part of the broader tourism sustainability issue". Other researchers, such as Espiner et al (2017) further support this unbreakable relationship between sustainability and resilience. In connection with crises, resilience is often examined in conjunction with specific catastrophes such as natural disasters (Kim and Marcouiller, 2015; Bhati et al., 2016) or terrorism (Mansfeld, 1999). Research examining disasters often evolves around the concept of crisis management (Filimonau and De Coteau, 2020). Prayag (2018) argues that relevant research should be shifted towards resilience instead of crisis management. According to Cochrane (2010) resilience can often explain the deviations from the typical linear tourism destination life cycle described by Butler (1980).

Further, complexity and chaos theories combined with geography aspects shape the intricate equations of sustainability and resilience as argued by Calgaro et al. (2014). Tourism resilience has a deeper social, political, and economic basis, as described by Cheer and Lew (2018) and it can be affected by a multitude of crises at various levels and scales. Alebaki and Ioannides (2017) describe a range of local, national, and global influences in their paper about the resilience of Greece's wine tourism. Individual societal factors such as wellbeing and behavior competencies also constitute an integral part of the resilience framework, as suggested by Sheppard and Williams (2016).

Dependency of a region is often a factor that results in lower resiliency as Watson and Deller (2021) argue. Further, they note that even within regions there are pockets where the opposite is true i.e. "where greater dependency enhanced economic resiliency". This suggests that as part of a regional science-oriented analysis, the spatial dimension is not always easy to measure and identify correctly, without the risk of false generalizations.

Holder (1980) argues that tourism is more flexible and adaptive than other activities and therefore economies based on tourism are in general more resilient. The findings of Cellini and Cuccia (2015) examining resilience in Italy after the recent financial crisis, support this view. This is one of the main aspects examined in this paper. Tourism resilience of Greek regions has been assessed before in the view of recovery from a single calamity, the financial crisis of the early 2010s (Karoulia et al., 2015). However, this is one of the few studies that examines the role of consecutive crises for specific destinations. More specifically, the aim of this paper is to highlight the distinct potential of each Greek region to recover from the ongoing pandemic, based on its calculated tourism resilience.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Several methods have been developed to measure regional resilience (Martin and Sunley, 2015; Psycharis et al., 2014; Proag, 2014; Lagravinese, 2015; Giannakis and Bruggeman, 2015; Radulescu and Meleca, 2020). This paper uses the approaches proposed by Martin (2012), Martin and Sunley (2015) and Lagravinese (2015) and measures the effect of a shock on an economy while identifying 2 separate phases:

- The first phase takes place when the shock occurs and
- The second takes place during the period where a region is recovering from the shock.

This empirical research uses secondary data. Statistical data from official sources (Greek Statistical Authority, 2021; INSETE, 2021) provides information regarding GDP, GVA and regional employment with focus on tourism. Specialized tourism resilience and recovery indices are calculated for each one of the 13 Greek regions, for different time periods covering the past decades. More specifically, the periods covered are:

- During (2009-2015) and just after the economic crisis (2016-1019)
- During (2019-2020) the pandemic.

Two indices are calculated, Resistance Index and Recovery Index (Lagravinese, 2015). Resistance index (βres) is calculated by using the following formula (Martin, 2012; Lagravinese, 2015). This formula is applied to Regional Employment and Regional Employment in Tourism Sector based on data from datasets retrieved from Hellenic Statistical Authority.

$$\beta_{res} = \frac{\Delta E_i - \Delta E_N}{|\Delta E_N|} \quad (1) \quad \beta_{rec} = \frac{\Delta E_i}{\Delta E_N} \quad (2)$$

Where ΔE_i is the percentage change of the value of the variable in region i and ΔE_N is the percentage change of the value of the variable in the country. Positive values of βres indicate that the region exhibits greater 'resistance' to an adverse shock compared with the rest of the country. Negative values of βres indicate that the region is less resistant than the country as a whole. Finally, values equal to zero indicate that there is no difference to the national effect. Recovery index (βrec) is calculated by using the following formula (Martin, 2012; Lagravinese, 2015).

This formula is applied to Regional Employment and Regional Employment in Tourism Sector based on data from datasets retrieved from Hellenic Statistical Authority. Positive values of βrec indicate that the region exhibits a stronger (relative to the country) performance after the recession period. Negative values of βrec indicate that the region exhibits a weaker (relative to the country) performance after the recession period.

Finally, values equal to zero indicate that there is no difference to the national effect. The values of these indices indicate whether and to what extent a region has a tourism industry that is resistant and secondly if and to what extent a region has a strong tourism industry that is able to withstand the crisis and recover from it.

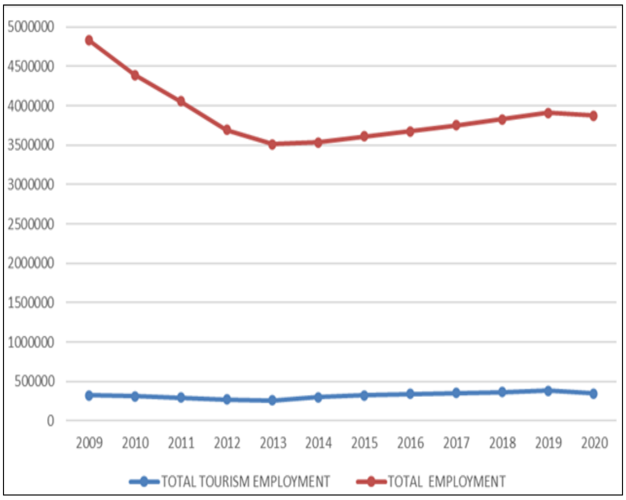

Figure 2. Employment and Employment in Tourism, 2009-2020 (Source: Hellenic Statistical Authority (2021). Regional Indicators: Employment by NUTS-2 Regions for the years 2009 to 2020. Data last updated on May 2021. INSETE (2021). Regional Indicators: Employment in Tourism by NUTS-2 Regions for the years 2009 to 2020. Data last updated on May 2021)

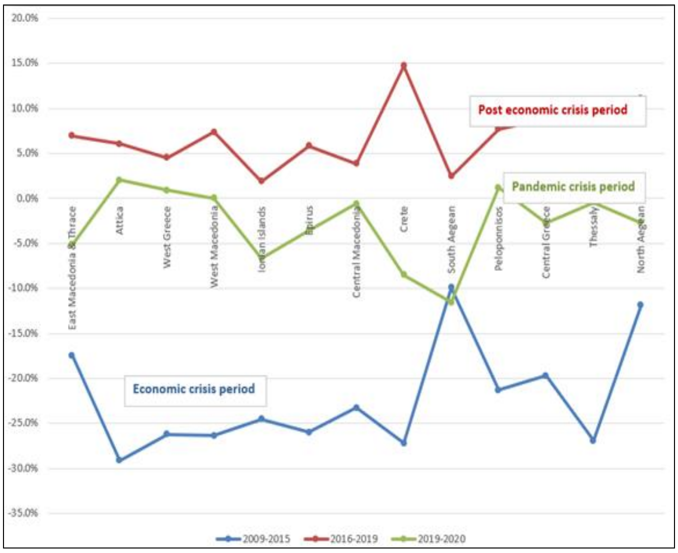

Figure 3. % Change of Total Employment, per region (Source: Hellenic Statistical Authority (2021). Regional Indicators: Employment by NUTS-2 Regions for the years 2009, 2015, 2016, 2019, 2020. Data last updated on May 2021)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This paper is constructed around a specific major indicator of regional tourism development, namely the employment in the tourism sector. Several other factors and variables were also analyzed, although not presented or described herein. These include regional tourism attributes and data from both the supply side (attributes and resources) as well as the demand side (tourist demographics and flows). These additional factors and the conclusions from the related findings are briefly referenced in the discussion section of the paper, in conjunction with relevant findings of other researchers.

Figure 2 represents employment and employment in the tourism sector for the period 2009-2020. Total employment declines when the economic crisis starts and then starts to grow again at the end of it. A slight decrease is also seen when the pandemic starts. On the other hand, regarding employment in tourism, no major fluctuations are present.

Figures 3 and 4 show the percentage change of employment and employment in the tourism sector. Regarding total employment, there is an extreme decline in all regions during the economic crisis, although some of them, such as the island regions of South and North Aegean, seem to have experienced a smaller decline. Employment in tourism, on the other hand, recorded an increase during the economic crisis in specific island regions such as the Ionian islands, the South Aegean and Crete. But regarding the covid period there is a decline, mostly on island regions.

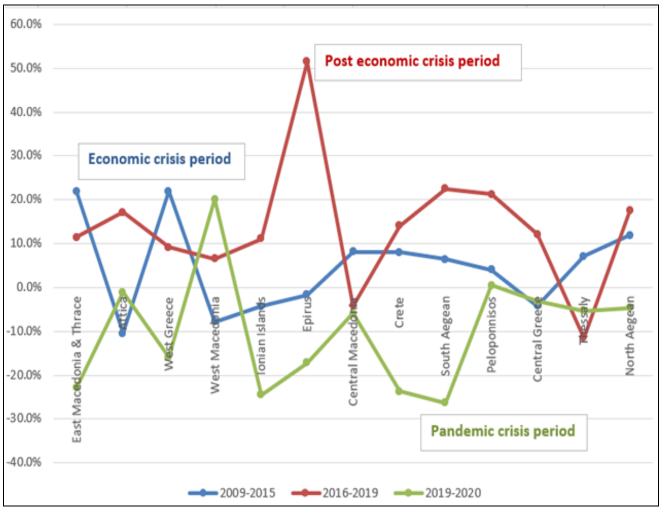

Figure 4. % Change of Employment in Tourism, per region (Source: INSETE (2021). Regional Indicators: Employment in Tourism by NUTS-2 Regions for the years 2009, 2015, 2016, 2019, 2020. Data last updated on May 2021)

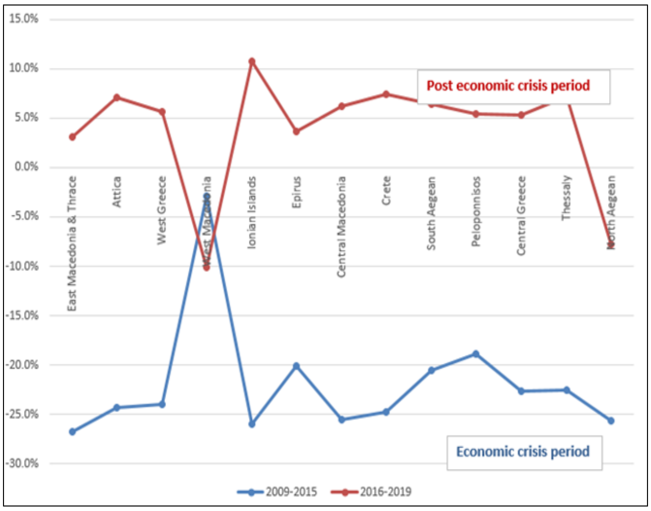

Figure 5. Change of Per Capita GDP (Source: Hellenic Statistical Authority (2021). Regional Indicators: GDP per Capita by NUTS-2 Regions for the years 2009, 2015, 2016, 2019. Data last updated on May 2021)

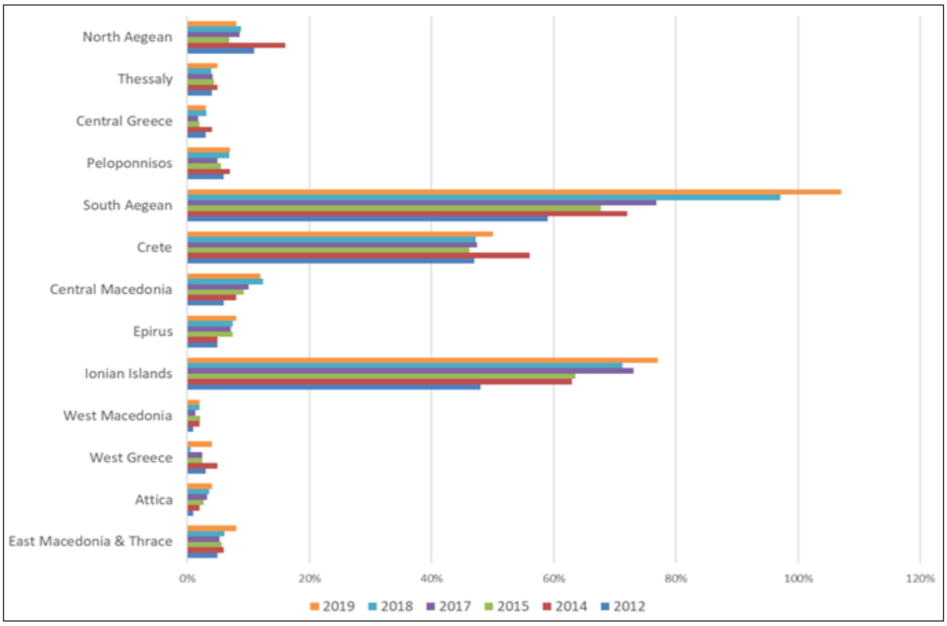

Figure 6. Regional Per Capita GDP (Source: Hellenic Statistical Authority (2021). Regional Indicators: GDP per Capita by NUTS-2 Regions for the years 2012, 2014, 2015, 2017, 2018, 2019. Data last updated on May 2021)

Figure 5 presents the percentage change of per capita GDP in every region. It is noticed that, during the economic crisis, every region experienced a significant decline, except West Macedonia. On the other hand, post crisis results show an increase in every region, except West Macedonia and North Aegean. Regarding the contribution of tourism on GDP (Figure 6) we notice - as was expected - that the greatest contribution is on well-established tourism destinations, such as South Aegean, Crete, Ionian Islands, and that there is a notable increase from 2012 to 2019. Table 1 presents the values of Resistance and Recovery Index as calculated for total employment and employment on tourism, for two shock periods. The first period is referring to the economic crisis, i.e. 2009-2012 and the second one to the pandemic,i.e. 2019-2020. As we have seen, negative values in both indices suggest that a region is less resistant or has a weaker (relative to the nation) performance after the recession period, in comparison to the whole country. In the case of the economic crisis, there is no region with negative values in both indices, although there are urban and rural regions such as Attica, West Macedonia, Epirus that experience negative values in Resistance Index, indicating a small resistance to economic crisis. This finding is in agreement with previous researchers who stated that the economic crisis affected sectors such as manufacture and not tourism (Psycharis et al., 2014). In the case of the pandemic, as already explained, Recovery Index cannot be calculated. Nevertheless, Resistance Index has negative values in all island regions and regions whose dominant sector is tourism. Figures 7 and 8 plot the relationship, across the 13 Greek regions, between resistance index (for the recession period) and the recovery index (for the post-recession period). Furthermore, by splitting the relationship into quadrants we can see which regions have been both the most resistant to the recession and have experienced the fastest post-recession employment growth. Regarding total resilience, Central Greece, Peloponnisos, North Aegean, East Macedonia & Thrace, and South Aegean appear to be the most resilient regions.

Regions	1st shock period				2nd shock period	
	Economic crisis period (2009-2015) βres		Post economic crisis period (2016-2019) βrec		Pandemic crisis period (2019-2020) βres	
	Employment					
	Total	in Tourism	Total	in Tourism	Total	in Tourism
East Macedonia & Thrace	0.31	14.34	1.08	0.96	-4.66	-1.28
Attica	-0.15	-8.31	0.32	1.44	3.24	0.89
West Greece	-0.04	14.27	1.48	0.77	1.99	-0.59
West Macedonia	-0.04	-6.43	1.51	0.55	1.04	3.00
Ionian Islands	0.03	-3.98	0.78	0.93	-6.29	-1.45
Epirus	-0.03	-2.16	0.53	4.32	-2.90	-0.71
Central Macedonia	0.08	4.67	0.89	-0.35	0.34	0.41
Crete	-0.08	4.56	2.88	1.18	-8.34	-1.37
South Aegean	0.61	3.46	0.33	1.89	-11.69	-1.63
Peloponnisos	0.16	1.80	1.44	1.78	2.30	1.05
Central Greece	0.22	-3.95	1.72	1.02	-2.01	0.69
Thessaly	-0.07	3.97	2.11	-0.97	0.49	0.47
North Aegean	0.53	7.29	1.26	1.46	-1.95	0.53

Table 1. Resistance (βres) and Recovery Index (βrec) (Source: Hellenic Statistical Authority (2021). Regional Indicators: Employment by NUTS-2 Regions for the years 2009, 2015, 2016, 2019, 2020. Data last updated on May 2021. INSETE (2021). Regional Indicators: Employment in Tourism by NUTS-2 Regions for the years 2009, 2015, 2016, 2019, 2020. Data last updated on May 2021. Computed by the authors)

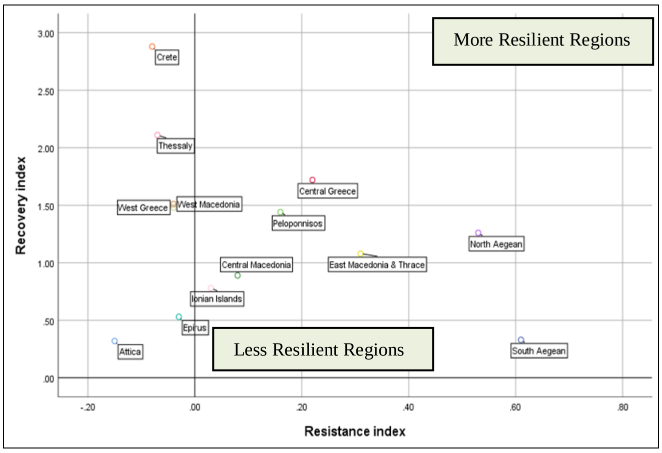

Figure 7. Resistance and Recovery Index for Total Employment during and after the economic crisis period (Source: Hellenic Statistical Authority (2021). Regional Indicators: Employment by NUTS-2 Regions for the years 2009, 2015, 2016, 2019. Data last updated on May 2021. Computed by the authors)

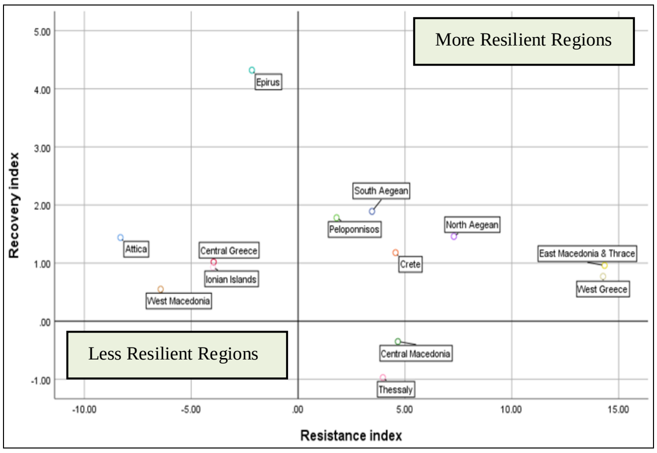

Figure 8. Resistance and Recovery Index for Employment in Tourism during and after the economic crisis period (Source: INSETE (2021). Regional Indicators: Employment in Tourism by NUTS-2 Regions for the years 2009, 2015, 2016, 2019. Data last updated on May 2021. Computed by the authors)

Those are rural and island regions which base their economy on agriculture and tourism. What is worth noticing is that Crete is experiencing a small Resistance Index but has a significant Recovery Index which means that although the island was affected by the crisis, it did have an economy that was able to successfully recover from the crisis; possibly due to its sectoral/production structure. It has been argued that certain economic activities suffer relatively more from economic or other shocks, such as manufacturing or the tourism sector (Giannakis and Bruggeman, 2015). This varies depending on the type of shock and it could explain to some extent the spatial differences in resistance. Different types of crises (natural, financial, refugee, pandemics etc.) dictate different suitable responses (Boin and Lodge, 2016) as each type of crisis has unique characteristics and consequences (Lalonde, 2007). Past research has shown how the tourism industry has reacted or how it should react appropriately at any level of activity; from individuals and leaders (Bhaduri, 2019), to businesses (Dahles and Susilowati, 2015), and regions (Kakderi and Tasopoulou, 2017). Regarding the 2nd period of shock, data present only preliminary results since the pandemic is still ongoing. Therefore, Figure 9 presents only the resistance index for the first years of the pandemic. The evidence suggests that at the beginning of the pandemic, the least resilient regions where Attica, West Greece, West Macedonia Central Macedonia, Peloponnisos and Thessaly. Since we have not yet entered the post-pandemic era and several support measures are still in place, there is no concrete evidence to argue which regions have been affected the most. More data is needed in order to have a clearer picture.

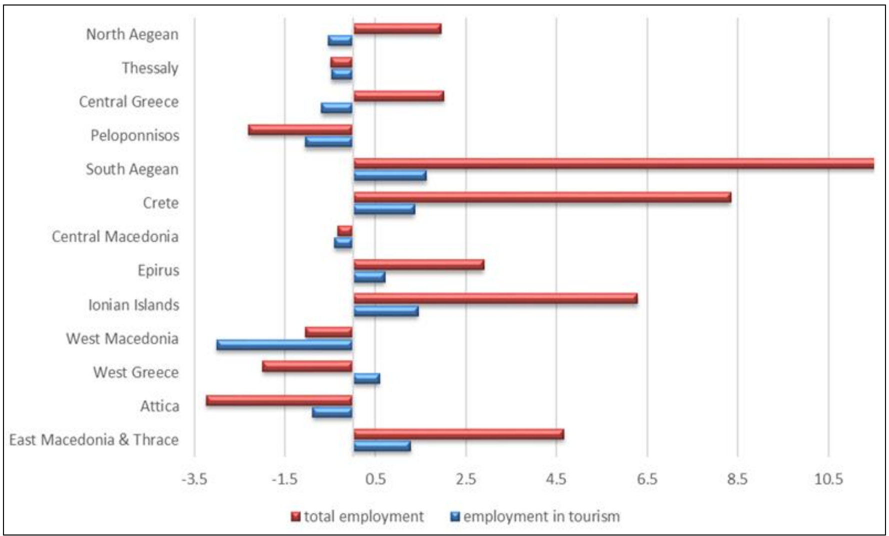

Figure 9. Resistance Index during the pandemic (Source: Hellenic Statistical Authority (2021). Regional Indicators: Employment by NUTS-2 Regions for the years 2019, 2020. Data last updated on May 2021. INSETE (2021). Regional Indicators: Employment in Tourism by NUTS-2 Regions for the years 2019, 2020. Data last updated on May 2021. Computed by the authors)

DISCUSSION

The various shocks such as the economic crisis and the pandemic, have affected and still affect the performance of the regions and consequently the countries as well. This paper focused on the study of the impact of economic crisis and the pandemic on the resilience and especially the tourism resilience of the Greek regions. The analysis of the data revealed some interesting results. The first finding shows that, whether it was the economic crisis, or the pandemic, regions reacted differently to these shocks and showed a different level of resilience and recovery. This is in accordance with the findings of Cellini and Cuccia (2015) who concluded that providers of tourism have differing abilities to change their orientation and specialization in front of a negative shock, and as a result different Italian regions have shown markedly different degrees of economic resilience. It is also shown that the resistance and the effects of a crisis vary depending on the geography of the region (island or mainland) in a way similar to that proposed by Cellini and Gucia (2015) who conclude that regions in which the sea-side tourism was more relevant have faced deeper adverse shock.

Another finding supports that island regions and regions that have significant contribution to tourism seem to have better resilience than urban regions. Benítez-Aurioles (2020) in his study for the Mediterranean countries such as Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain also concluded that the competitive advantage or specialization demonstrated by each country define the resilience patterns in tourism. At a more localized level or at a smaller scale such as the case of islands, there appear to be other factors impacting the resilience such as the industry's management deficiencies, inadequate cohesion among stakeholders, and lack of innovation (Bangwayo-Skeete and Skeete, 2020). Finally, although some regions show poor resistance to shocks, they seem to show a better performance in recovery from the shocks. This is probably due to various reasons such as the uneven development of specific sectors of their local economies, their adaptability, or even the intra-sectoral industry mix, as suggested by Mandal and Saravanan (2019) who argued that the composition, the strategic orientation, the coordination, the agility, and the utilization of information technology (Mandal, 2019) of the tourism supply chains (mainly hotels, tour operators and restaurants) affect the tourism resilience. Cirer-Costa (2020) in his study examined the case of Ibiza, and concluded that accumulated physical, human and social capital and the capacity of the local business community to reinvent their product and adapt to new circumstances, resulted in enhanced resilience, allowing for recovery after consecutive crises. The statistical data analyzed (Elstat, 2021; INSETE, 2021) shows that different Greek regions are favored by different target groups or countries of tourists' origins.

These findings are in accordance with Weaver et al (2019) who suggested that not only market diversification but also destination loyalty can affect island destination resilience. This can be further assessed in conjunction with relevant factors such as the origin of the tourists that appears to affect the tourism resilience (Tangvitoontham and Sattayanuwat, 2018). Benítez-Aurioles (2020) in his study shows that when comparing Mediterranean countries such as Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain, competitive advantage or specialization demonstrated by each country defines the resilience patterns in tourism. The findings in our research show that what arguably happens at country level also extends to the regional level as well. Regions such as Crete or other island regions, that show significant differences in resilience and recovery compared to other regions and the national average, are probably supported by a combination of factors, ranging from productive basis and geography (island) to tourism specialization. In the case of individual Greek islands, approaches similar to the adoption of the Cittàslow philosophy (slow food, slow tourism, aiming on improving the quality of local life) can have a positive effect on tourism sustainability and resilience, as described by Walker and Lee (2019).

CONCLUSION

This paper examined the degree of resilience of the Greek regions by analyzing tourism development and related critical factors such as the employment in the tourism sector. An established methodology was utilized to measure both the resistance as well as the ability for recovery following a crisis. By using the calculation of the Resistance Index and the Recovery Index as main methodological tools, the analysis has led us to the following conclusions:

- Economic crisis revealed the country's vulnerabilities, including vulnerabilities at the regional level.
- There is a measurable difference in resilience between regions.
- Mainland regions including large urban destinations are not necessarily the most resilient ones.

- Regions depending on tourism seem to be more resilient.

Tourism industry appears to have the potential to act as a catalyst factor supporting the recovery of the Greek economy following the latest crisis of the COVID-19 pandemic. Despite the positive outlook, one should not overlook the importance of planning and proactiveness. Even though it has been reasoned that tourism in combination with specific local characteristics can assist a region through extensive and consecutive crises (Cirer-Costa, 2020) a better outcome can arguably be expected when all stakeholders develop contingency plans (Filimonau and De Coteau, 2020). The necessary preparedness ranges from entrepreneur to destination-wide level and includes the whole range of crises and threats, from minor or slow developing to major or acute disasters (Lew, 2014).

The pandemic is still ongoing, and this constitutes a significant limitation of this research as it is necessary to analyze post-crisis data in order to make more meaningful comparisons between different crises. The same is true for the refugee crisis as well, which is far from over for many Greek regions, with significant implications for several of the regions examined herein (Ivanov and Stavrinoudis, 2018). Another limitation is that the research did not focus on the specific tourism orientation of the regions. A more detailed supply-side analysis based on specific tourism activities and employment structures in each region, combined with demand side data such as tourist demographics and behavior could reveal the tourism strategies and patterns that can potentially enhance tourism resilience. Thus, further research that would measure the resilience by using a combination of additional variables supplementing the main factors such as sectoral employment, could capture more accurately regions' recession and recovery dynamics. In addition, analysis by sector would reveal the resilience of each sector and the effect to the resilience of the region as a whole.

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Article history: Received: 19.11.2021 Revised: 22.01.2022 Accepted: 10.02.2022 Available online: 09.03.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.267-273
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40132-828

OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF INNOVATION AMONG HOTELS IN NORTHERN HUNGARY

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Citation: Benkő, B., Dávid, L., & Farkas, T. (2022). OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF INNOVATION AMONG HOTELS IN NORTHERN HUNGARY. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 267–273. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40132-828

Abstract: The aim of the study is to analyse the various infrastructural developments of the tourism sector in Northern Hungary. The study examines the innovation potential and it's obstacles of hotels in the region. The research is based on a survey of hotel managers, using Kruskal – Wallis tests as the main statistical method. The well-developed infrastructure and the effective adaptation and application of innovations are essential for the creation of complex tourism packages based on the tourist attractions of the region and thus contribute to the development of the region. The research confirms that tenders for development are more common in larger and more capital-intensive hotels. The smaller ones are excluded from the tender system partly due to the lack of qualified labour. There is progress in innovation; most people are currently implementing product / service innovation.

Key words: Northern Hungary Region Hotel industry, innovation, tourism development, infrastructure

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INTRODUCTION

The tourist attraction of a given area is determined by its endowments. In addition to natural and cultural values, the existence of quality accommodation can also be a motivating factor in choosing a destination. The infrastructural capacity of the host area and all other factors that affect the economic operation can be crucial. The accommodation is complemented by other services, as the goal is to ensure that guests should not be short of anything, away from home, which is provided by appropriate management, service staff and suppliers. The present research deals with the innovation potential and background of the hotel industry developments within the Northern Hungary region.

Tourism is an important sector embedded in the social environment, as it has an intensive impact on the environment. In addition to the people who serve them, the users of the service are also in daily contact with local social groups, so they also include everyday life. Tourism also has social and environmental consequences as well. However, we have to state that the developments can be started with the help of a capital-strong and innovative person or company, but in order to start development of the given area or destination cooperation is also needed. The most important research question of our study is the extent to which hotels in Northern Hungary can take advantage of the potential of innovation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

After the change of regime, the hotels became privately owned. Units that were previously established along a poorly reasoned strategy sooner or later dropped out of competition and ceased operation. At the same time, new hotels appeared on the market that previously served other functions (resorts, workers' hostels). The beginning of the period was marked by a rapid increase in supply and a lack of quality accommodation. However, since the 2000s, this trend has changed and the focus has shifted from quantity to quality. The expansion of accommodation services and their quality has become increasingly important in order for the units to operate as efficiently as possible, so efforts have been made to increase the average length of stay and to target more solvent guests. As a result, specialization of accommodation has begun and special services have been created, where accommodation or services have already become an attraction in themselves (spa and wellness hotels, wine hotels, golf hotels, etc.), but also units specializing in business tourism must be mentioned as well. The first benefit of the regime change in the field of tourism was that the accommodations were removed from state ownership and replaced by investors. This, in turn, brought the change that certain decisions were based solely on economic interests, so that most of the accommodations that survived and were able to develop, which were in the right location and had some attraction and tourist

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infrastructure nearby. An important change is the increased popularity of wellness hotels. As a result of increasing demand, the number of these units tripled in the first few years of the millennium. They provided an experience-rich range of services, even for a stay of 2-3 days, which was quite attractive for guests (Boros et al., 2012). The appearance of Hungaricums also provides additional attractions to the existing offer. Their utilization is possible at the regional level (Kassai - Káposzta et al., 2016).

As Puczkó and Rátz stated, the attraction in the area to be visited is the biggest factor in making a given travel decision (Puczkó and Rátz, 2001). It takes time to experience the attraction when the journey takes place. If this amount of time and the return time required to visit the given place together exceed one day, the need for accommodation arises immediately (Kátay, 2016). However, for an area to be desirable to potential visitors, the mere presence of various attractions is not enough, it must have the infrastructure to meet the needs of their daily lives, especially with regard to basic hygiene and safety. Together, they create a calm background that allows the experience (Michalkó, 1999). From the above, it can be concluded that in order for an area to become a potential target area, tourism infrastructure is required (Kaspar, 1992). According to Tasnádi, the tourist infrastructure is nothing more than a suprastructure based on an existing foundation, which creates the conditions for temporary residence (Tasnádi, 2002). Providers of various accommodation services are connected to this tourist superstructure. Taking into consideration the above stated, it can be said that a hotel operation should only be started with great care, and due to the volume of investment, it will only pay off over a longer period of time, so efficient and effective operation is essential. This is based on choosing the right location. There are a number of external factors to consider here, starting with tourist attractions, but accessibility, the economic environment, geographical location and other characteristics of the destination, such as economic level, level of security, possible political and / or religious tensions, etc., are also important (Bártfai, 2006). Economical operation is facilitated by the design of a hotel of the right size, as the number of staff required for operation and other operating costs (e.g. overheads) and the variety of services available do not increase in proportion to the number of rooms available, which generates revenue beyond room costs, on the other hand, it can increase the average length of stay, which also means extra income (Bártfai, 2006).

In a developed economy, innovation is necessary for competitiveness. In this area, the economy should be significantly improved. A significant number of authors have dealt with innovation and innovation management, analyzing in detail (Iványi and Hoffer, 1999; Jarjabka and Lóránd, 2010; Holló and Marselek, 2017) and (Vajda, 2020). Orfila-Sintes and Mattsson (2006) drew some important conclusions about hotel innovation behavior. Innovation has been associated with service provider and customer competencies, market incentives, and the impact of innovation on performance. According to the authors, decisions about innovation are determined by the extent to which additional (online) services are offered, whether the hotel is part of a hotel chain, and whether the hotel is run by the hotel owner. Besides certain types of innovations governments and tourism industry stakeholders need to consider the costs, risks and impacts of global environmental dangers on travel and tourism. In the twenty-first century, two immense drivers of change to the tourism industry are climate change and global health emergencies (Jamal and Budke, 2020). These two drivers can also lead to the promotion of domestic tourism as a tool by some governments to reduce leakage from the national economy and to bolster regional centres and rural economies. Such a policy focus may have the unintended outcome of creating new sustainable tourism trajectories with positive implications for lower emissions, place-based economic development and travel and tourism practices (Hall et al., 2020).

Hotels in the Northern Hungary Region

Before conducting the research on innovation, it is worth examining the development of accommodation capacity in Northern Hungary. Recent data are most relevant to my research, so I have only focused roughly on the last ten years.

Table 1. Changes in the number of beds in Northern Hungary 2008-2019, (beds) (Source: http://statinfo.ksh.hu/ own editing)

	Nógrád County		Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén County		Heves country		Region	
Year	Number of beds	Number of rooms	Number of beds	Number of rooms	Number of beds	Number of rooms	Total beds	Room number Total
2008	2 624	786	14 969	4 362	11 276	3 608	28 869	8 755
2009	2 423	806	14 419	4 467	11 293	3 543	28 135	8 816
2010	2 462	758	15 495	4 769	12 372	3 952	30 330	9 479
2011	3 388	964	19 716	5 981	13 250	4 311	36 355	11 256
2012	3 438	968	18 080	5 403	15 380	4 604	36 898	10 975
2013	3 113	879	18 282	5 655	15 533	5 146	36 928	11 680
2014	2 912	917	18 731	5 695	15 323	4 951	36 967	11 563
2015	3 005	942	18 611	5 768	16 396	5 599	38 012	12 309
2016	3 103	984	17 486	5 242	16 437	5 308	37 025	11 533
2017	3 652	1 154	17 235	5 461	14 811	5 015	35 697	11 630
2018	3 822	1 220	17 285	5 005	14 765	4 981	35 872	11 205
2019	3 457	1 136	16 101	4 694	14 487	4 973	34 044	10 803

I collected the data from the KSH website (Table 1). Examining the data of the region, we can state that a significant increase in capacity can be observed from 2010 onwards, and from 2015 onwards there is a decreasing trend in terms of both beds and number of rooms. The region of Northern Hungary consists of three counties. Heves, Nógrád and Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén counties. In the case of Nógrád County, apart from minor fluctuations, there is a continuous increase in both the number of beds and the number of rooms. Numerically, in 12 years, the number of seats led to an increase of approximately 30%, which in itself is an encouraging result, but it should also be borne in mind that the base number was very low. What is much more encouraging is the change in the number of rooms, where an increase of almost 45% can be observed, suggesting that several lower-quality accommodation units (e.g. tourist hostels with multi-bed rooms) have been converted into higher-quality double or triple bed bedrooms. The numbers in Heves County also developed positively, until 2016 there was a continuous increase, but then there was a decrease of 12-13%, both in terms of the number of beds and the number of rooms. Thus, the former increased by 28% and the latter by 35% during the period considered. It is also worth noting here that the initial value was also relatively high, so growth is clearly a step forward.

In the case of Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén County, we can observe an interesting trend: in 2011 there was a bigger jump in the number of beds compared to 2008, while the number of rooms increased by 37%, which is a significant change in three years. However, this positive trend could not be maintained, so that by 2019 both the number of beds and the number of rooms decreased compared to the situation in 2011, however, compared to the starting numbers, both increased by approx. 7.5%. Summarizing the accommodation capacity, it can be said that Heves County is well ahead of the other two counties in terms of both the most developed quantities and the quality of services, while Nógrád County lags far behind in both factors, but Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén County also has something to catch up with. Based on the data of the CSO, we can state that in 12 years the number of guest nights in Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén County increased by 35%, in Nógrád by 43%, and in Heves County by more than 50% (Table 2). With this in mind, the increase in accommodation capacity in all counties is understandable. It is interesting that most guest nights were registered in Heves County in 2008, but the capacity was the highest in Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén County, from which we can conclude that the capacity utilization rate is higher in Heves County. This is also confirmed by the fact that the number of places available in Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén County is significantly higher. The capacity of Heves County was only 73% of Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén County's in 2008. The more efficient performance is due to the better quality of the accommodation and the performance of the destinations. In the latter case, Eger and its region represent a huge tourism potential for Heves County, which generates not only national but also cross-border tourism. For this reason, Heves County clearly generates the most efficient tourism in the target area.

Compared to each other, Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén and Heves Counties have almost the same numbers, which is seven times the numbers of Nógrád County. If we remember, the accommodation capacity of Nógrád County in 2008 was approx. 1/6 of Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén County. There I pointed out that the amount of accommodation supply in Nógrád County was very low, but these figures show that the demand was even lower. In terms of the economic strength and potential of Nógrád County, it is one of the most disadvantaged areas of the country, the signs of which can also be observed in the supply of basic tourism infrastructure. At the same time, the growing demand for recreational rural areas can be predicted, the sending area of which is mainly the capital and its agglomeration environment. For this reason, the proximity of Nógrád County to the capital may be exploited in terms of tourism, for example with improved transport geography. Recently, the expressway of Route 21 has clearly improved these conditions and has a good chance of playing a significant role in boosting tourism in the area. If we look at 2019, we can see that 25% more guest nights were spent in Heves County than in Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén County, which is a huge change compared to the previous, almost same numbers.

In Nógrád County, the number of guest nights is slightly less than 1/6 compared to Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén County, which is an improvement compared to the previous 1/7, but the volume is still very low. Summarizing the supply, it can be stated in one sentence that a steady increase can be observed in all three counties, and in most cases the demand has also increased. Heves County is an example to follow in front of the other two counties in the region, it has undergone spectacular development in the last 12 years, which can be copied by Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén County and Nógrád County. However, it is not enough to expand the supply of accommodation, it is also necessary to stimulate demand, for which the development of traditional and tourist infrastructure and innovation is also essential.

MATERIAL AND METHOD

Pre-tested questionnaires were used during the survey. During the questionnaire survey we searched almost all hotels in Northern Hungary. It was mainly the hotels above three stars that were authoritative for us. I used the database of Szállás.hu as a starting point. We asked for permission in advance by phone so that I could send them a questionnaire, so we finally got back 64 completed questionnaires. The main analyzed topics were: hotel size, turnover, resources, environmental factors, factors facilitating and hindering innovation activity, funding opportunities, needs, planned investments, hotel development opportunities, economic impact, labor supply opportunities, workforce qualifications, regional infrastructure situation. The questions were mainly closed questions, the use of which was justified by the need for information that could be easily assessed and generalized.

Table 2. Number of hotel guest nights in Northern Hungary (thousand) Source: http://statinfo.ksh.hu/ own editing

Year	Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén	Heves	Nógrád	Total
2008	452	564	77	1 094
2009	433	509	74	1 016
2010	440	536	86	1 062
2011	468	649	75	1 192
2012	463	769	61	1 293
2013	509	866	75	1 449
2014	592	956	77	1 625
2015	613	1 095	77	1 785
2016	700	1 138	81	1 918
2017	729	1 218	104	2 051
2018	788	1 214	127	2 129
2019	764	1 278	128	2 169

The data recorded in the questionnaires were evaluated during statistical calculations based on scientific methods. The data of the questionnaire were evaluated by statistical analysis in order to support the hypotheses. After data entry, statistical processing was performed using SPSS. The figures and diagrams were created using Microsoft Excel programs.

The Kruskal – Wallis test was used in the study. This belongs to the ranking-based methods, it is a special group of non-parametric tests. These methods proved to be the most suitable for testing my hypotheses. In my studies, I analyze the relationship between variables measured on an ordinal scale using rank correlation. This can be used if the specific values of the given variables are not known, only their order according to some aspect. Such as e.g. the Kruskal - Wallis test, which has no prerequisites. "If the group-forming criterion is a bivariate Mann-Whitney, if a multivariate Kruskal – Wallis test can be used, it informs the acceptance or rejection of the hypothesis after the rank transformation" (Bácsné, 2006; Bácsné, 2009). The test is a non-parametric statistical procedure. The test is practically an analysis of the variance of the data measured on the ordinal scale, to compare the average of more than two independent samples. The test is suitable for testing three or more independent samples in the studies (Kruskal and Wallis, 1952). It does not require a normal distribution of variables, however, the number of items in each sample must be at least five. Additional conditions are random sampling, which ensures an even distribution of each variable in the presence of H0, for independent samples and variables that can be measured at least on an ordinal scale. It is also called the rank transformation procedure because after the samples are pooled, the rankings have to be determined. During the test, the independent samples are combined, so that the combined, common sample is formed, which is arranged in series (Fidy and Makara, 2005). Sample items are assigned by ranks, and then the ranks of each sample are added and averaged per group (per column). If the sample size is appropriate, i.e. the number of items in each sample is at least five, the value of the test statistic marked H may be calculated.

$$H = \Sigma (T_x^{\,2} \frac{12}{N(N+1)} / n_x) - 3(N+1)$$

where: n_x = the size of the x^{th} sample, N = n_1 and n_2 +… n_x, i.e. the number of all groups examined, T = the sum of the rank data.

$$H = \frac{12}{N(N+1)}\left(\frac{R_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{R_2^2}{n_2} + _{...} + \frac{R_k^2}{n_k}\right) - 3(N+1),$$

where n_x = element number of the x^{th} sample, Rx is the sum of the rankings of the x^{th} sample, N = sum of the number of elements of the samples, i.e. N = Σnx (Vincze and Varbanova, 1993). In addition to statistical analyzes, we also conducted interviews in 2020.

The interview can be used in the initial phase of the research to refine the research questions, but can also be used in the final phase of the research when the results can be verified.

RESULTS

The questionnaire survey focused on the region of Northern Hungary. Each County was included in the responses according to their importance to tourism. More than third of the hotels surveyed in our research fall into the 114-500 space category. Among enterprises, the employee group of 10-49 people is the most populous. Taking into consideration the number of employees previously examined regarding hotel size, we can conclude that hotels fill the required positions rationally. Heves County has the most serious hotel and tourism capacity; in other Counties the weaker infrastructure limits the use of opportunities. In the most important positions, they work with a specialized degree, but which can be considered as background work, degree is not necessary (bellboy, kitchen assistant, sales clerk, maid, gardener). Education is less important in these areas. Labor turnover is only significant in certain positions (chef, kitchen assistant, waitress, and maid). This is probably due to hard work and low wages. In order to maintain the standard of the hotel, wages should be reconsidered and mechanization in problem areas should be increased. In many cases, it is problematic that it is not possible to employ local / regional labor. Such areas are e.g. sales manager, chef, waitress, and maid. Hiring a local / regional staff means expanding the hotel's opportunities. It is advisable to look for employees who are suitable for the given position and are also willing to take a job. External environmental factors affect the operation of hotels. Here comes the creation of technological or new organizational system for better adaptation. Examined on a scale of 1 to 5, the answer "operating is routine" received an average of 2.9 points. Nowadays, innovation is playing an increasingly important role. Hotels make moderate use of different forms of innovation. Technological innovation, product / service innovation, which requires people with the right qualifications (Figure 1). When judging the different changes, the standard deviations are between 1.2 and 1.4, which is not significant difference.

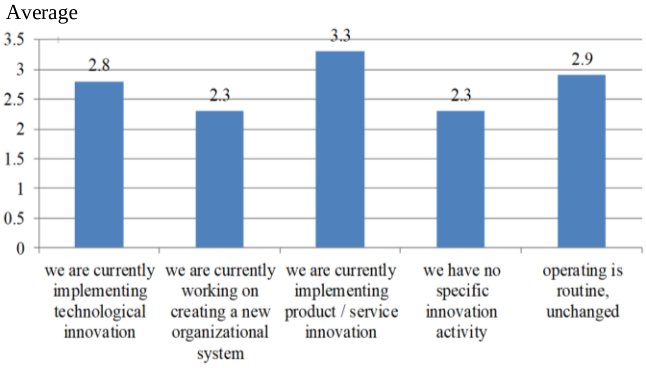

Figure 1. Problems of adapting to external environmental factors (average)(Source: own calculation, 2021)
(1 = not characteristic, 2 = less characteristic, 3 = moderately characteristic, 4 = characteristic, 5 very characteristic)

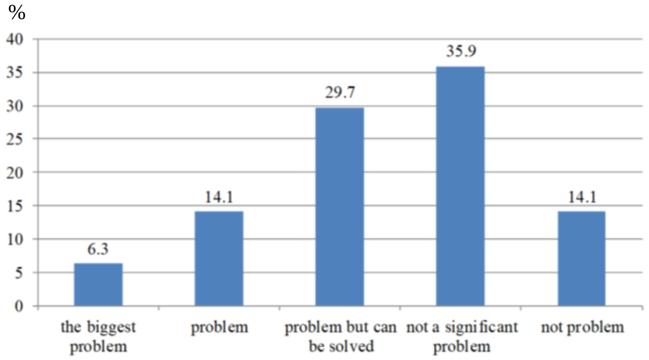

Figure 2. Technological environment (innovation, development (%)(Source: own calculation, 2021)

The development of the technological environment and innovation is less problematic according to the respondents.

Only 6.3% of respondents consider it a problem area. Respondents do not consider the technological environment to be a problem area, which may be due to the fact that hotels generally perform poorly in terms of innovation (Figure 2).

Innovation activities, forms and barriers

Product / service innovation is still considered feasible by the majority of respondents. This form of innovation is considered by many to be the most promising. At present, the implementation of technological innovation has been considered by few. The obstacles of the implementation of the innovation activity were partly due to financial problems and partly to the risk of return on investment. It should also be added that innovation can only be carried out by suitably qualified people. In the case of inhibitory activity, the variance is quite different. Factors hindering marketing innovation include scarcity of resources, outdated resources and inadequate human resources. If progress could be made in this area, it would be a significant for the hotel industry in the region. The Kruskal - Wallis test examines rank data and can be classified into non - parametric statistical procedures. In fact, analysis of variance of data measured on an ordinal scale. I used the Kruskal - Wallis test to present the possibilities of innovation activity and innovation activity (Table 3). The ranking is presented from 1 to 5, so a higher average value indicates a very characteristic activity for the given V12 responses. It would be ideal if the "worsened" had a low average, the "unchanged" had a higher average, and the "improved" had the highest average.

It can be seen that a significance value of 0.101 is the most favorable for the relationship (i.e., between changes in innovation opportunities and innovation activity). What does value of 0.101 mean (Table 4)? Expressed as a percentage, this means that the probability of the null hypothesis is 10.1%, i.e. there is no relationship between the change in opportunities and the ongoing innovation activity. Below 5 %, we reject the null hypothesis, i.e., there is a relationship, but strictly speaking, 10 %is also remarkable. In the case of other innovation activities, the proof of the connection is even worse, i.e. there is no connection. The probability of the null hypothesis for "no specific innovation activity" - no difference - is 37.2%, which is well above the 5% margin of error, so there is no significance. The respondents are experts from Heves, Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén and Nógrád Counties (Table 5). There is a significant value of "return on investment risk" exceeding 5% with 6.8 %, but the correlation is still significant (Table 6).

Table 3. Changing the innovation potential of an organization and comparing innovation activity (Source: own calculation)

V11. How have the organization's innovation opportunities changed in the last 5 years?		**N**	**Ranking averages**
V 12.1. we are currently implementing technological innovation	The situation has improved	28	38.86
	The situation has worsened	5	27.60
	Unchanged	22	26.95
	I cannot judge	9	29.00
	Total	64	
V 12.2. we are currently working on creating a new organizational system	The situation has improved	28	34.73
	The situation has worsened	5	40.30
	Unchanged	22	27.68
	I cannot judge	9	33.00
	Total	64	
V 12.3. we are currently implementing product / service innovation	The situation has improved	28	37.34
	The situation has worsened	5	33.70
	Unchanged	22	26.05
	I cannot judge	9	32,56
	Total	64	
V 12.4. we have no specific innovation activity	The situation has improved	28	30.18
	The situation has worsened	5	23.90
	Unchanged	22	34.95
	I cannot judge	9	38.50
	Total	64	
V 12.5. operating is routine, unchanged	The situation has improved	28	31.73
	The situation has worsened	5	23,20
	Unchanged	22	33.32
	I cannot judge	9	38.06
	Total	64	

Table 4. Significance values * (Source: own calculation)

Test Statistics^{a,b}					
	V 12.1. we are currently implementing technological innovation	**V 12.2. we are currently working on creating a new organizational system**	**V 12.3. we are currently implementing product / service innovation**	**V 12.4. we have no specific innovation activity**	**V 12.5. operating is routine, unchanged**
Kruskal-Wallis H	6.219	2.986	4.776	3.127	2.268
df	3	3	3	3	3
Asymp. Sig.	0.101	0.394	0.189	0.372	0.519

a. Kruskal Wallis Test
b. Grouping Variable: V11. How have the organization's innovation opportunities changed in the last 5 years? df: degree of freedom; Asymp. Sig: significance level; Grouping Variable: grouping variable; Mean Rank: Rank averages

Table 5. Barriers to innovation and the role of the County Source: own calculation

V2. For which County do you provide your answers?		**N**	**Ranking averages**
V 13.1. financial problems	Heves	34	32.26
	Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén	21	32.45
	Nógrád	9	33.50
	Total	64	
V 13.2. tax environment - state	Heves	34	31.59
	Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén	21	31.07
	Nógrád	9	39.28
	Total	64	
V 13.3. tax environment - local government	Heves	34	32.26
	Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén	21	34.60
	Nógrád	9	28.50
	Total	64	
V 13.4. lack of grants and tender opportunities	Heves	34	30.81
	Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén	21	35.17
	Nógrád	9	32.67
	Total	64	
V 13.5. return on investment risk	Heves	34	28.22
	Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén	21	34.95
	Nógrád	9	42.94
	Total	64	

Table 6. Significance table (Source: own calculation)

Test Statistics^{a,b}					
	V 13.1. financial problems	**V 13.2. tax environment - state**	**V 13.3. tax environment - local government**	**V 13.4. lack of grants and tender opportunities**	**V 13.5. return on investment risk**
Kruskal-Wallis H	0.033	1.498	0.746	0.748	5.371
df	2	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	0.983	0.473	0.689	0.688	0.068

a. Kruskal - Wallis Test;
b. b. Grouping Variable: V2. For which County do you provide your answers

The other deterrents are not significant. Regarding the ranking values, it can be considered that the situation has improved, the deterioration can only be registered during the production of the promotional film. The study focused on whether there is a significant difference between innovation opportunities in terms of influencing factors. In three cases, there area significant difference i.e. "introduction and renewal of a website", "preparation of a brochure" and "organization of events, participation in an exhibition" (Table 7).

Table 7. Relationship between innovation opportunities and influencing factors (Source: own calculation)

V11. How have the organization's innovation opportunities changed in the last 5 years?		**N**	**Ranking averages**
V 15.1. introduction and renewal of a website	The situation has improved	28	39.45
	The situation has worsened	5	21.60
	Unchanged	22	29.02
	I cannot judge	9	25.44
	Total	64	
V 15.2. creating a blog	The situation has improved	28	32.32
	The situation has worsened	5	38.20
	Unchanged	22	32.59
	I cannot judge	9	29.67
	Total	64	
V 15.3. advertising (newspaper, radio, tv)	The situation has improved	28	32.05
	The situation has worsened	5	22.90
	Unchanged	22	34.41
	I cannot judge	9	34.56
	Total	64	
V 15.4. preparation of a brochure	The situation has improved	28	36.25
	The situation has worsened	5	16.70
	Unchanged	22	26.73
	I cannot judge	9	43.72
	Total	64	
V 15.5. organization of events, participation in an exhibition	The situation has improved	28	35.21
	The situation has worsened	5	21,90
	Unchanged	22	27.02
	I cannot judge	9	43.33
	Total	64	
V 15.6. making a promotional film	The situation has improved	28	35.14
	The situation has worsened	5	36.20
	Unchanged	22	27.36
	I cannot judge	9	34.78
	Total	64	
V 15.7. professional meetings, conferences	The situation has improved	28	34.07
	The situation has worsened	5	22.50
	Unchanged	22	30.39
	I cannot judge	9	38.33
	Total	64	
V 15.8. Pr articles, press releases	The situation has improved	28	36.04
	The situation has worsened	5	19.10
	Unchanged	22	29.66
	I cannot judge	9	35.89
	Total	64	

Table 8. Significance values (Source: own calculation)

Test Statistics[a,b]								
	V 15.1. introduction and renewal of a website	**V 15.2. creating a blog**	**V 15.3. advertising (newspaper, radio, tv)**	**V 15.4. preparation of a brochure**	**V 15.5. organization of events, participation in an exhibition**	**V 15.6. making a promotional film**	**V 15.7. professional meetings, conferences**	**V 15.8. Pr articles news releases**
Kruskal-Wallis H	11.424	0.849	1.770	10.653	7.526	2.780	2.934	4.640
df	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Asymp. Sig.	0.010	0.838	0.622	0.014	0.057	0.427	0.402	0.200

a. Kruskal Wallis Test;
b. Grouping Variable: V11. How have the organization's innovation opportunities changed in the last 5 years?

CONCLUSION

Questionnaire surveys, the results of secondary research, and in-depth interviews also confirm that tenders for development are more common in larger and more capital-intensive hotels. The smaller ones are excluded from the tender system partly due to the lack of qualified labor. There is progress in innovation; most people are currently implementing product / service innovation. More than half of the respondents who completed the questionnaire considered this to be typical. However, the obstacles to innovation activity are significant, e.g. financial problems, lack of grants, renders, risk of return on investment, etc. this needs to be changed.

Recognizing the need for change is also a result (Table 8). The region of Northern Hungary belongs to the less developed regions in terms of its position in the regional ranking. Relatively poor conditions pose dangers, e.g. qualified catering professionals are migrating, efficient businesses cannot find their calculation, the existing network of institutions and infrastructure is becoming unsustainable. The economic effects of the hotel developments implemented in the Northern Hungary region are positive and significant, their impact on the long-term economic development of the settlement is decisive, and it also greatly improves the opportunities for local employment.

Due to the serious positive effects, the use of central resources can also be expected to a greater extent than at present. Central support can generate profitable development, which can also foster innovation.

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Article history: Received: 04.12.2021 Revised: 26.01.2022 Accepted: 11.02.2022 Available online: 09.03.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.274-282
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40133-829

HOW GREEN HOTEL PRACTICES STIMULATES CUSTOMER CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR? EXAMINING THE ROLE OF GREEN HOTEL MAGE AND CUSTOMER SATISFACTION IN VIETNAM

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Citation: Thai, P.K., & Nguyen, Q.H. (2022). HOW GREEN HOTEL PRACTICES STIMULATES CUSTOMER CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR? EXAMINING THE ROLE OF GREEN HOTEL IMAGE AND CUSTOMER SATISFACTION IN VIETNAM. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 274–282. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40133-829

Abstract: The main purpose of this research is to propose and empirical test a conceptual model that clarifies the relationship between green hotel practices and customer citizenship behavior (CCB) with the mediating role is green hotel image and satisfaction in the perspective of customers. To test the hypothesis this research utilizes the data collected from a questionnaire survey from tourists who have visited the Moc Chau national tourist area, Son La – a mountainous province situated in the North West of Vietnam. Finally, the authors collected 212 valid questionnaires to test the hypothesis. The testing results indicated that green hotel practices positively influence customer citizenship behavior. Moreover, green hotel image and customer satisfaction contribute as the mediating effects in the relationship between green hotel practice and customer citizenship behavior. In contrast, green hotel image and customer satisfaction do not act as the serial mediation in this relationship.

Key words: customer citizenship behavior, green hotel, green practices, green hotel image, customer satisfactio

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INTRODUCTION

Recently, environmental pollution has been at an alarming level for our world, so protecting the habitat becomes the top concern. Because the environment is the living space of people and creatures. The environment provides natural materials to help people maintain life. However, global warming, deforestation and pollution (land, water, air) increased, people's awareness of "greening" the environment is not really right. According to the WHO report (2016), more than 80% of people living in urban areas suffer from air pollution with dust quality levels in the air exceeding the permitted limits of WHO. According to information from the United Nations, in 2018, more than 80% of the world's wastewater flows into the natural environment without treatment. And, in Vietnam, environmental pollution is a hot issue. So it is absolutely right for governments and environmental organizations to immediately carry out sanctions and activities to improve the environment.

The methods in turn are given such as: waste treatment, reuse of waste, use of green fuel sources instead of gas, planting forest trees. Environmental protection is not only the work of the government or professional organizations in particular, but this is the work of the whole society from individuals to all businesses and organizations. Towards nature and protecting nature for future generations becomes our living motto. In Vietnam, the change in leadership thinking, production, management, in industries and organizations that are constantly taking place. In particular, especially the hospitality industry with a series of remarkable "greening" activities. Typically, in the period of 2008-2018, Vietnam had 37 hotels of 11 provinces/cities awarded the title "ASEAN Green Hotel". The "ASEAN Green Hotel" standard has been developed by ASEAN member countries, agreed on how to, assessment process on the basis of for hotels to self-evaluate, apply and research. There will be 11 sections, including environmental management plans, green procurement, human resources management and environmental management activities. Assessment criteria include: 11 groups of criteria, 30 items, 80 specific criteria. These "green" activities contribute strongly to improving the image status of Vietnam's hospitality industry. From there, increase satisfaction in establishing the citizen behavior of customers for each green activity the hotel organizes.

There are a lot of research on this issue such as: Water conservation and waste reduction management to increasing guest loyalty and green hotel practice (Han et al., 2018b). Predicting green hotel behavioral intentions using a theory of environmental commitment and sacrifice for the environment (Rahman and Reynolds, 2016). Reward-winning attitude to customers' green hotel practice. The effect of environmental friendliness on green trust: The considerable impact of green satisfaction and the quality of feeling green (Chen et al., 2015). The relationship between green image, sensory quality, satisfaction, trust and loyalty in hotels (Assaker et al., 2020b). The authors explained that the green practice activities of the hotel are really effective, activities that indirectly affect satisfaction, loyalty and the value of guest perception (customer

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citizen behavior - CCB) through different perceptions of green hotel images or sustainable hotel practices, satisfaction level and guest's intention to return (Berezan et al., 2013). Various regulatory methods are applied to increase the efficiency of promoting green images and the oral intention of consumers in the thriving green hospitality industry (Wang et al., 2018). However, the depth of the research is still limited.

Because, green loyalty is also affected by "risks" of green awareness, green image, green trust and green satisfaction (Chrisjatmiko, 2018). So that this research aims to fill this gap by proposing and empirical testing the relationship between green hotel practices and customer citizen behavior (CCB). In addition, this research also clarifies the role of green hotel image and satisfaction in the minds of customers. Verify and unravel relationships in direct and indirect links of variables. Finally, this research is based on the theory of trust - commitment and selection of the green hotel context in Vietnam. That means the main goal of this study is to link the hotel's green activities on the environment and customer satisfaction, loyalty and sensory value (CCB). Because, green hotels are now growing strongly, are accepted by a large social class, recognized as environmental activities. The roadmap for future expansion is easily visible. To evaluate the efficiency and contribute to the literature and practice, this research attempts to answer research questions followed:

- Firstly, how does green hotel practice affect the citizen behavior of customers (CCB)?
- Secondly, how does green hotel image affect the citizen behavior of customers (CCB)?
- Thirdly, how does customer satisfaction on green hotel affect the citizen behavior of customers (CCB)?

The remaining of this paper is arranged as follow: After the introduction section is the background theories and hypothesis development. The third section is the data collection which is continued with data analysis section. This paper finishes with the conclusion and discussion section.

Background theory and hypothesis development

1. Green hotel

According to the reports of Informa Markets (Vietnam) and Outbox Consulting, green practice and environmentally friendly trends become a benchmark in investment and development of the hotel industry. The trend of “green hotels” will open a new era for the hospitality industry in Vietnam. Green Hotel is an environmentally friendly hotel and applies energy-saving measures. An accommodation facility that wants to apply sustainable measures to the system should focus on three important foundational factors: energy, water and waste. However, there are two green practice trends in Vietnam green hotels: green building and green operation (Traveler Magazine, 2020). In particular, the trend of “green hotels” offers analysis of changes in the choices, attitudes and behaviors of tourists (Millar et al., 2012) ongoing "greening" trends in the hospitality industry have changed managers' perceptions of this new trend (Yu and Liu, 2021), from which we take appropriate and effective approaches. In addition, green synchronized regulation and certification not only minimize the risk of unfair competition and increase customer trust but also motivated the hotels to seriously carry out these activities.

The green operation of the hotels is a competitive advantage, the green products provided by the hotel affect the satisfaction of customers through the main factors such as facilities, green space, many beautiful and shaded plants, fresher and cleaner hotel atmosphere (Supriadi et al., 2017). Green image of the hotel affects the customer's behavioral intention. First, the awareness of controlling the green training behavior of the hotel, environmental commitments and citizen behavior of the organization. Secondly, guests' awareness and feedback about green hotel practice methods (Lee et al., 2016) along with the impact on guest satisfaction and guest's intention to return (Berezan et al., 2013).

2. Green hotel practices and green hotel satisfaction

Research shows that green practices in the hospitality industry have a significant effect on customer satisfaction and behavior. Customer satisfaction mediates the relationship between green practice and loyalty. Hotel owners, in both green and non-green practice states, need to show concern and participate in environmental conservation in order to survive in a competitive environment (Yusof et al., 2017). In line with global trends, customers are also increasingly interested in sustainability. While customers of green organization rarely share their opinion on green practices that focus on the environment, they mentioned green restaurant practices that focus on food they have experienced. Furthermore, those who mention green practices tend to have positive reviews about the restaurant or hotel.

Highlighting green practices without ignoring common restaurant or hotel attributes increases the identity of that organizational unit (Park et al., 2020). Choi and Parsa’s green restaurant framework proposes three perspectives in green restaurant practice: health, the environment and society (Choi and Parsa, 2007). This point of view is completely applicable to the hotel model. Ham and Lee (2011) outlined eight types of green practices (e.g., water saving, waste reduction and recycling, sustainable furniture, building materials or resources, sustainable food use, energy, disposable appliances, pollution and chemical mitigation, and organized green practices) to evaluate sustainable practices (Ham and Lee, 2011). Kwok et al., 2016 proposed an alternative framework for green restaurants to include green practices focusing on food, environment and management, based on health and environmental perspectives and management (Kwok et al., 2016). The governance-focused practice in this framework measures restaurant owners' efforts to train their employees (Amrutha and Geetha, 2021). The implementation of a restaurant's green practices is expected to create a competitive advantage by adding value to the company's products and services, when compared to others (Lee et al., 2010a; Han et al., 2009). Green practices can provide clients with mental benefits by satisfying their altruistic or socially conscious tendencies such as a sense to contribute to a cleaner environment (Hartmann and Apaolaza-Ibáñez, 2012).

Recognized green practices can provide ancillary benefits to customers by responding to their emotional needs for sustainability concerns and can drive positive customer attitudes (Chen, 2010). With the implementation of two aspects of green practice, focusing on food and environment, it affects customer perception of green brand image and CCB, while the impact of real green onions in perceived quality are negligible (Namkung and Jang, 2013). The relative effect of the green practice, relative to other restaurant attributes, should be considered together with the perceived greenness of the green practice to evaluate the value of the green practice (Park et al., 2020). For casual diners, the impact of green practices with an environmental focus has been more convincing of improving a restaurant "green brand image" and CCB than initiatives of food. With regard to self-awareness, the results indicated that guests have a high sense of health and the environment responded more positively to the green practices of an entity or organization than those whose health awareness and environmental awareness are not high (Namkung and Jang, 2013).

Consumers, who use hotel services with a eco-friendly-practices sense of in India have sponsored hotels, have adopted appropriate green practices without compromising service quality (Manaktola and Jauhari, 2007). Green practices can only inspire positive customer attitudes when the customer realizes the restaurant's effort on implement them (Jeong et al., 2014). Consumers prefer using accommodations that follow these practices but they are not willing to pay extra for these services. Indian hotels have a competitive advantage over similar products if they follow green practices (Manaktola and Jauhari, 2007). Green practices don't tend to show up to customers like other marketing efforts which are difficult to determine whether these attributes are fully communicated to the customer or green attributes are created positive results. Visibility of green practices must precede any effect on customer attitudes (DiPietro et al., 2013; Namkung and Jang, 2013; Kassinis and Soteriou, 2003).The positive effects of implementing green practices on customer attitudes are based on social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1986), whereby individuals tend to define themselves by using social categories and people choose or favor businesses that match their personal identities. This theory suggests that customers who identify themselves to have environmentally conscious or health conscious and may be attracted to green restaurants, which creates a positive attitude towards businesses (Chan and Hawkins, 2010). Previous studies have shown that green practices can increase customer satisfaction by satisfying their own personal values with personal value sustainability (Gao and Mattila, 2014; Gao et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2013). From these evidence, this research hypothesis that:

H1: Green hotel practices are positively related to CCB

3. Green hotel images

Green, environmentally friendly activities are increasingly applied by hotels. First, the external context is greened from form to hotel service can not only provide, improve the ability to manage successfully but can also enrich the customer experience at the hotel. Next, not only stopping at external greening activities, the practice of green human resource management is also an activity that improves performance (Pham et al., 2019). From there, managers can come up with green branding strategies for the hotel (Bashir et al., 2020). Image is a collection of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person holds in relation to an object, according to Philip Kotler. Brand image is considered a synthesis of trust, ideas and impressions that customers hold. It will be developed over time, interaction and customer experience. Hotels with social responsibility can indirectly increase consumer loyalty to the hotel's image through green marketing (Chung and Management, 2020). After that, recycling and disposal programs are organized to give green century tourists the proactive and passive, expectations of green interactions, green certification, and positive green advertising. Feelings, feelings, perceptions, relationships, and customer brand experience behaviors positively influence experience aspects - intermediaries affecting brand image innovation and green image for brand satisfaction in the minds of customers (Nysveen et al., 2018). However, in the future it is advisable to identify the problems and consequences of the hotel brand experience (Khan and Rahman, 2017) help build a green century brand image quickly and efficiently. Thereby, the awareness of green practice activities of hotels plays an important role in building the green hotel brand image. So this research proposes that:

H2: Green hotel practices has positive impact on green hotel brand image

4. Green hotel satisfaction

Green marketing is an example of environmental management practice, intended to reduce or prevent negative impacts on the environment and is ideally directed at providing a (green) product (or service) at a price suitability, location and time, regardless of the market (González-Benito and González-Benito, 2005). Companies have adopted a green marketing strategy as 'a set of marketing tools' and elements that allows companies to serve their target market without harming the natural environment (Eneizan, 2016). Sustainability has become a business imperative, not a matter of choice (Ghosh, 2019). New strategies are needed to stay competitive in the marketplace and achieve business sustainability (Suki, 2016). Companies can tailor their strategy by using green marketing elements to target customers' environmental needs and wants (Cheema et al., 2015). The quality of life of future generations will depend on current generations' efforts to conserve the environment. Many recent studies have reported empirical evidence of the positive effects of environmental practices on business performance and corporate image (Hang et al., 2019; Mukonza and Swarts, 2020; Zubeltzu-Jaka et al., 2018). Concerning about the environment has become the main issue, companies need to integrate sustainability into their (strategic) business activities (Dwyer et al., 2009). Today's global environmental problems (e.g. environmental degradation, global warming, resource depletion, air and water pollution and habitat destruction) lead to both consumers and professional buyers that consider green alternatives in their buying behavior (Hsieh, 2012; Martínez, 2015). Therefore, society has steadily raised awareness of environmental problems, due to the high level of environmental pollution caused by mass industrial production largely (Chen, 2011).

Professional buyers are expected to purchase environmentally friendly green products to contribute to a sustainable world and also to gain a green competitive edge (Konuk et al., 2015). Although individual customer needs may be vary, green practices can work to meet the internal needs of the customer and ultimately improve customer satisfaction (Jeong et al., 2014). Furthermore, the customer tends to rate products against a certain set of limiting attributes and the effect of some attributes is more important on customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction than on other attributes (Gwin and Gwin, 2003). Sustainable foods can satisfy customers' individual needs such as personal health and trigger positive responses (Jeong et al., 2014; Lu and Gursoy, 2017). Many studies have investigated the precursors and outcomes of customer satisfaction and customer loyalty, satisfaction is considered extremely important concept for practical and theoretical purposes (Jamal, 2004). Intent to buy back from a CCB, while basically satisfaction emphasizes a strong emotional relationship and affinity for a certain brand or product (Uncles et al., 2003; Mohd Suki, 2017) have studied product quality, company image, store image and price as the premise for satisfaction and CCB.

Green customer satisfaction is the overall satisfaction of customers' needs, goals, and desires with regard to environmental or green concerns (Chang and Fong, 2010). Knowledge about the quality of green products influences on CCB (Mayer, 2013; Suki, 2013). Satisfied customers enough buy a product or service back than dissatisfied or less satisfied customers (Gelderman et al., 2021). Many customers are willing to pay a higher price for green products, as long as this additional sacrifice is justified by sufficient additional value (Chen, 2010; Laroche et al., 2001; Ranaei Kordshouli et al., 2015). Obviously, not all customers are willing or able to pay more for green or eco-friendly products (Agyeman, 2014; Cheema et al., 2015). Professional buyers often communicate and negotiate with sales representatives (Chen, 2010).

Many studies have investigated and confirmed a positive relationship between customer satisfaction and customer behavior in industrial markets (Gountas and Gountas, 2007). From these evidence, this research hypothesis that:

H3: Green hotel practices are positively related to green hotel satisfaction
H4: Hotel satisfaction are positively related to CCB.

5. Green hotel images and customer citizenship behavior (CCB)

Develop the image and brand of a green hotel using concepts of perception, affection and overall image to promote the influence (i.e. the intention to visit again, the intention to make positive proposals for others and the willingness to pay a premium) of customer behavioral (Lee et al., 2010b). The different green attributes (from green image, practice green) in the hotel have an impact on the environmental attitude of customers to business and entertainment activities, green behavior (Millar et al., 2012). The quality of products and services significantly affects the brand image and consumer satisfaction (Nawi et al., 2019). Increases the positive impact of brand value on customer satisfaction (Moise et al., 2019). Besides, from the information and feelings about the business from the external environment also significantly affect customer citizenship behavior in providing feedback to the company ty. According to another research, the image of the business has a relationship to the citizen behavior of customers – CCB, help them make recommendations, help other consumers, and provide feedback (Kim et al., 2020). Specifically, building an image will help businesses maintain and strengthen strong relationships with customers in the future. From that, practice well green activities can improve the reputation of the company which in turns stimulate customer citizenship behavior (Van et al., 2016).

According to a research, customer satisfaction in different ways is influenced by the "green" elements of the hotel (Yu et al., 2017). Green hotel image / the hotel's environmental friendliness positively affects the perception of the hotel's products and services, increasing the satisfaction of the quality of perception of customer (Assaker et al., 2020b). The quality of the green experience is felt to significantly affect green fairness and green hotel image, thereby leading to satisfaction of the green experience in the minds of customers (Wu et al., 2016).

In particular, consumer behavior plans to expand in combination with important structures in consumer behavior (i.e. service quality, customer satisfaction, overall image and frequency of past behavior) a more comprehensive explanation of the formation of the intention to visit the green hotel of customers (Han and Kim, 2010). Since then, comments on the image of green hotels and satisfaction in the minds of customers are increasingly close relationships. CCB acts as an important intermediary for the impact on brand value, including many types (Raza et al., 2020), especially service brands provided by employees (Park, 2020). While the logic framework governs the service, the values offered by the business increase the willingness to participate in CCB to gain benefits such as customer feedback, advocacy, customer support, and tolerance in less satisfactory future services (Assiouras et al., 2019b).

The image of "green hotel" is successfully built through the implementation of corporate social responsibility (CSR) such as economic liability, liability, ethical responsibility and charitable liability of hotels (Ahn and Park, 2019). Thereby accurately seeing CSR positively affects the image of the hotel. CSR is also an important strategy to improve customer response from which trust medias the relationship between CSR and CCB, the CSR-CCB link deeper (Aljarah, 2020). Through a multi-dimensional perspective, linking studies together, the relationship between brand image and citizen behavior of customers is more visible. From these evidence, this research propose that:

H5: The image of a green hotel positively affects green hotel satisfaction in the minds of customers.
H6: The image of a green hotel positively affects customers' citizenship behavior (CCB)

RESEARCH METHOD

1. Questionnaire design

To examine the research hypothesis, this study applies the questionnaire survey to collect the data. Respondents are tourists who have visited Moc Chau NTA and stayed in the hotels here. Moreover, they are interested in and have knowledge about the green activities. The authors selected this type of respondents because they experienced already the hotel services and they can perceive to which extent that hotel has practiced and performed the green activities in the reality which can lead them form positive behaviors towards the hotels such as CCB. The current research adapted items from previous studies and modified them to fit the new context of green hotel in Vietnam – an emerging country with some differences in comparison with other countries. All observed variables are expressed in the form of Likert-5 which range from 1 representing totally disagree to 5 representing totally agree. In which, hotel green practices include of 8 items adopted from (Yusof et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2018); hotel green image composes of 3 items applied from (Kubickova et al., 2014), green hotel satisfaction with 3 items adapted from (Assaker et al., 2020a); and tourist citizenship behavior with 3 items modified from (Kim and Kim, 2018). To assure the consistence of the questionnaire, the authors utilized the back – translation technique by specialists in English and in business management field. This method indicated that the original items in English were translated into Vietnamese and then translated back into English, the specialists in English and business management compared these versions and unified to have a draft version. This draft version was assessed and checked with 20 tourists through a pilot test. From that the authors formed the final version of the questionnaire.

2. Data collection

The main objective of this research is to evaluate the citizenship behavior of tourists who have stayed in a green hotel that means the ability of revisit and recommend the hotels to other potential tourists. So the population for this research is all the tourists who have visited Moc Chau national tourist area. Moc Chau NTA, belonging to Moc Chau district, Son La province, 180 km from Hanoi, and 120 km from Son La city, is approved by the Prime Minister on the Planning as a national tourist area in May. 11/2014. These are 2 mountainous districts located on the limestone plateau of the Northwest region with an average altitude of more than 1,000 m above sea level.

There are 12 minority ethnics live together in Moc Chau district with abundant cultures such as clothes, specialties, foods as well as house on stilts. So that Moc Chau NTA has both natural tourism resources and humanity resources which is the basement to develop sustainable tourist industry. The authors applied a simple random sampling method using questionnaires at the hotels in Moc Chau NTA. The questionnaire consisted of 14 main questions, so according to (Hair et al., 1998) the minimum sample size would be 120 questionnaires. To collect the most appropriate responses, the research team selected 12 hotels at Moc Chau NTA and 20 respondents for each hotel. The current research was deployed during one month. Finally, the result has a total of 212 valid questionnaires collected after the survey, means the rate about 88.3%. The demographics of the respondents is presented in the Table 1 as follows:

Table 1. Demographic information of respondents*
Notes: The per capita income in Vietnam (2020) is 2750 USD (General Statistics Office of Vietnam)

Factors	Component	Amount	%
Gender	Male	100	47.2
	Female	112	52.8
Age	Under 25	33	15.6
	25 – 35	77	35.8
	36 - 45	76	36.3
	Over 45	27	12.3
Yearly income* (USD)	Under 2000	18	8.5
	2000 – 3000	122	57.5
	3000 – 5000	55	25.9
	Over 5000	17	8.1
Education	High school	30	14.1
	College	48	22.6
	University	126	59.4
	Other	8	3.9

Table 4. Variance inflation factors

Items	VIF	Items	VIF
HGI1	1.31	CCB1	1.71
HGI2	1.41	CCB2	2.02
HGI3	1.26	CCB3	2.09
HGP2	1.94	SAT1	1.75
HGP3	1.81	SAT2	1.45
HGP4	2.05	SAT3	1.56
HGP5	2.23	HGP1	2.12
HGP6	1.59		
HGP7	1.70		
HGP8	1.49		

Table 2. Measurement model evaluation

Variables	AVE	CR	Cα	Rho_A
Hotel green practice	0.513	0.822	0.863	0.866
Hotel green image	0.606	0.893	0.675	0.678
Satisfaction	0.679	0.864	0.764	0.772
Customer citizenship behavior	0.745	0.898	0.829	0.832

Table 3. Construct AVE correlation

	HGP	HGI	SAT	CCI
HGP	0.863			
HGI	0.377	0.779		
SAT	0.458	0.41	0.716	
CCI	0.242	0.152	0.27	0.824

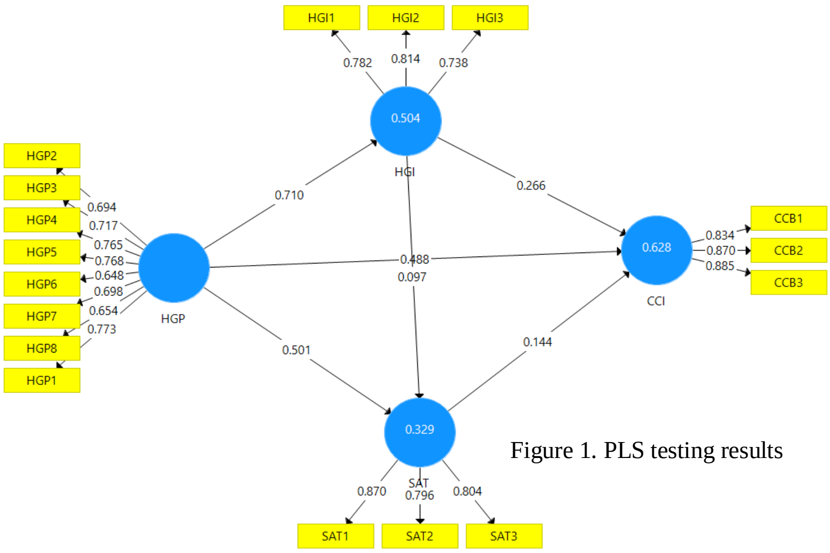

Figure 1. PLS testing results

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study applied the partial least square regression (PLS-SEM) path model to test hypotheses through Smart PLS 3.0 software (Ringle et al., 2015). Compared with other empirical analytical methods, the proposed research model is the most suitable for this research because it focuses on predicting and explaining the complex relationship between the variables in the model and consistent with the small research sample (n = 212). Furthermore, it can explain a relationship of reflective construct and formative construct. In the proposed model, there are many complex relationships not only direct but also mediation and serial mediation. Specifically, this research proposes that green hotel image and customer satisfaction as the mediating variables between green hotel practices and CCB. These two variables are also proposed as the serial moderation in the relationship between HGP and CCB.

1. Scales measurement evaluation

To evaluate the scales, the current research used Cronbach's alpha (Cα), composite reliability (CR) and average extracted variance (AVE). In which, the minimum loading factor is 0.65 and the highest is 0.88, satisfying the cut-off value 0.5. Besides, values of Cα ranging from 0.68 to 0.87 and values of CR ranging from 0.82 to 0.90 are both greater than the level 0.7 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). These evidence confirm the reliability of the scales satisfying the requirements. In addition, AVE values from 0.50 to 0.69 both satisfy cut – off value of 0.5 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981), indicating that the convergence value is satisfactory (Table 2). To test discriminant validity, this research first used the AVE value of each variable in the correlation to other variables (the Fornell - Larcker criteria). Then, the analytical results showed that the square root of AVE is greater than the correlation coefficient with other variables, demonstrating that the scales ensure discriminant validity (Table 3). Because this research using self-assessment questionnaire, the authors also tested the potential multicollinearity by using variance inflation factors (VIF). As proposed by (Hair, 2009), if VIF value is more than 4 that means there exist the multicollinearity. The VIF testing results presented in Table 4 showed that VIF values of all scales are less than 2.3 that means the multicollinearity do not exist in this research.

2. Evaluation of structural model

After evaluating the scales by testing reliability, convergence, discriminant validity, and potential multicollinearity, the authors applied the PLS-SEM model to test the relationship of variables using SmartPLS software. The results of the relationships are shown in Figure 1. The results of data analysis show is seen detail in the Table 5 as follow:

Table 5. Testing results of path coefficients

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
HGP -> CCI	0.488	0.485	0.074	6.592	0.000
HGP -> HGI	0.710	0.713	0.037	19.211	0.000
HGP -> SAT	0.501	0.507	0.071	7.085	0.000
HGI -> CCI	0.266	0.266	0.065	4.094	0.000
HGI -> SAT	0.097	0.096	0.083	1.160	0.247
SAT -> CCI	0.144	0.146	0.058	2.478	0.014

The results showed that HGP has a significant effect on CCB (β = 0.49; p <0.001, t-value = 6.59). In the same vein, HGP has a significant influence on HGI (β = 0.71; p <0.001, t-value = 19.211), on SAT (β = 0.50; p <0.001, t-value = 7.805). These evidences indicated that hypothesis H1, H2 and H3 are supported. Besides, HGI has a significant influence on CCI (β = 0.27; p <0.001, t-value = 4.094), but do not have effect on customer satisfaction on SAT (β = 0.09; p = 0.247> 0.05, t-value = 1.16). Moreover, SAT has positive impact on CCI (β = 0.14; p <0.05, t-value = 2.48). These evidence showed that hypotheses H4 are supported. This research also tested the mediating effects and the results are showed in the Table 6.

Table 6. Testing results of specific indirect effects

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	TStatistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
HGP -> HGI -> SAT_ -> CCI	0.010	0.011	0.012	0.858	0.391
HGI -> SAT_ -> CCI	0.014	0.016	0.016	0.857	0.392
HGP -> HGI -> SAT_	0.069	0.068	0.060	1.150	0.251
HGP -> SAT_ -> CCI	0.072	0.073	0.029	2.476	0.014
HGP -> HGI -> CCI	0.189	0.190	0.049	3.869	0.000

The results showed that SAT and HGI contribute as the mediating variables in the relationship HGP and CCB with (β = 0.07; p <0.05, t-value = 2.48) and (β = 0.19; p <0.01, t-value = 3.87) respectively. In contrast, SAT do not act as mediating effects in the relationship between HGI and CCI (β = 0.014; p > 0.05, t-value = 0.857). In the same vein, HGI do not act as mediating effects in the relationship between HGP and CCI (β = 0.07; p > 0.05, t-value = 1.15).

Moreover, we also test the serial mediating effect of both HGI and SAT in the relationship between HGP and CCI but the results showed that HGI and SAT do not act as the serial mediation between HGP and CCI (β = 0.01; p > 0.05, t-value = 0.86). These results are the new contribution of the current research.

CONCLUSION

Nowadays, tourism is becoming one of the most important industries for all the countries in the world because of its "green" characteristics or "non – smoke industry" but not like that tourism has also caused some consequences for the environment because of the tourists and the people working in this industry. In the context of better living condition, human needs are more and more increasing and tourists require the green tourism. Specifically, tourists want to stay in the green hotels, that means the hotels perform well environmental protection activities, use environmentally friendly products, and do not harm the environment. There have been many studies on green hotels, but there are few studies analyzing the relationship between green hotel practices and tourist citizenship behavior, especially in developing countries such as Vietnam. Furthermore, to our knowledge, to date, there have been no studies that have explored the mediating roles of green hotel image and tourist satisfaction in this relationship. This research aims to discover the tourists' perceptions of hotel green practice performances in the correlation with their tourist citizenship behavior. Research shows that tourists have a very strict requirement on green performance for hotels including 8 items related to all services in the hotel. This fact becomes a criterion that plays a crucial role in stimulating tourist citizenship behavior to that hotel. The results indicated that the higher level of perception of green practice performance, the higher the level of tourist citizenship behavior ($\beta = 0.49$; $p < 0.001$, t-value = 6.59). This research contributes the new knowledge to the literature in the hospitality and tourist industry. The current study also confirmed the relationship between hotel green practices in stimulating positive behavior of tourists (such as citizenship behavior) (Yusof et al., 2017; Merli et al., 2019). But this research is also complementary for previous research that concluded that hotel green practices do not have influence on tourist citizenship behavior (Assiouras et al., 2019a).

Moreover, this research also shed light on the relationship between hotel green practices and the green hotel image, as well as customer satisfaction. Results showed that hotel green practice stimulate the hotel green image with ($\beta = 0.71$; $p < 0.001$, t-value = 19.211). This evidence indicated that hotel green practice contributes as an important factor for building the hotel image. This is among the first research that has discovered this relationship. In the same vein, hotel green practice has a positive effect on customer satisfaction with the hotel ($\beta = 0.50$; $p < 0.001$, t-value = 7.805). This result confirmed the finding from the research of (Lee et al., 2010a) but this research also give more insight of other research in term of determinant factors of green hotel image (Han, 2020). Furthermore, the current research showed the mediating effect of green hotel image and customer satisfaction in the relationship between green hotel practice and tourist citizenship behavior. In which, green hotel image has a stronger effect on this relationship with ($\beta = 0.07$; $p < 0.05$, t-value = 2.48) in comparison with ($\beta = 0.19$; $p < 0.01$, t-value = 3.87) of customer satisfaction.

This result is new in the field as our knowledge, there are only some research that focused on the relationship of green hotel practice and other customer behavior such as loyalty (Robinot and Giannelloni, 2010; Merli et al., 2019; Han et al., 2018a).. This research also discovered the mediating role of green hotel image in the relationship between green hotel practice and tourist satisfaction, mediating role of tourist satisfaction in the relationship between green hotel image and tourist citizenship behavior, as well as the serial mediation of both green hotel image and tourist satisfaction in the relationship between green hotel practice and tourist citizenship behavior. But these mediating effects are not supported. Beside theoretical contribution, this research also give some practical contribution as follow.

Firstly, this research proposes that hotel managers need to understand the importance of the "green" factor by performing green practice actions in the hospitality and tourist industry. Because well performance of green hotel has a lot of advantages that has a direct effect on customer behavior, such as customer citizenship behavior. Moreover, as we all know, tourist citizenship behavior transform customer into loyalty ones and take a lot of good points to the hotel. Scholars pointed out that the cost of acquiring new customers is much higher than maintaining loyal ones (Curry and Gao, 2012). Previous research pointed out that customer citizenship behavior has some dimensions and have a lot of advantages: making recommendations and positive word-of-mouth, providing feedback to the organization, voluntarily assisting other customers with product/ service usage, display of relationship affiliation and participation in the firm's activities. So that, reach the customer citizenship behavior can be considered as among the most important policies of all the organization. Secondly, this research indicates the important role of green hotel image to customer citizenship. This research suggests to managers of hotels the necessary to build good image of hotel with customers. Moreover, customer can perceive a good image of hotel in case of the hotels perform well the green activities in the reality. Moreover, green hotel image can contribute as the mediating effect between hotel green practice and tourist citizenship behavior. So that through this relationship, managers can understand how to stimulate customer citizenship behavior in the correlation with the hotel green performance. Thirdly, this research asserted that customer satisfaction contributes as the partial mediator between hotel green practice and tourist citizenship behavior. This finding helps managers deeper understand about the mechanism of customer citizenship behavior in correlation with green practice performance.

That means, hotel green activities not only directly stimulate customer citizenship behavior and also indirect effect via the customer satisfaction. So that, managers can have appropriate strategies and marketing policies to promote customer citizenship behavior by practice well green activities which in turn stimulates customer satisfaction. Even having a lot of theoretical and practical contributions, this research also exists some limitations. Firstly, this research only collected the data from tourists who visited and stayed in hotels in Moc Chau national tourism area, which may lead to incomplete and unrepresentative Vietnamese tourists. So that, future research could expand the investigated area to have a more complete and comprehensive research sample. Secondly, this research did not indicate some of the variables that could moderate these relationships, such as gender, income, age, and education level. This limitation suggests for further research clarifying a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship between green performance and customer citizenship. Last but not least, future research could propose new variables to give a deeper knowledge to this topic, as well as other hot topics in the practice of developing countries.

Acknowledgement

This research is supported by University of Economics Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam

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Article history: Received: 14.10.2021 Revised: 24.01.2022 Accepted: 14.02.2022 Available online: 14.03.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.283-291
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40134-830

COMMUNITY PERCEPTIONS OF LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT THROUGH TOURISM IN PORT ST JOHNS – SOUTH AFRICA

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Citation: Acha-Anyi, P.N., & Ndolose, L. (2022). COMMUNITY PERCEPTIONS OF LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT THROUGH TOURISM IN PORT ST JOHNS – SOUTH AFRICA. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 283–291. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40134-830

Abstract: The purpose of this study was to investigate community perceptions of opportunities for local economic development (LED) in the town of Port St Johns (PSJ), using tourism as a conduit. PSJ is situated at the mouth of the Umzimvubu River along the Wild Coast region in the Eastern Cape of South Africa. A sample of 307 residents of PSJ responded to a questionnaire on the effects of tourism in their community. Overall, the findings reveal a tourism policy gap regarding the LED strategy and implementing a tourism development plan for PSJ. Therefore, the recommendation is to initiate a stakeholder consultative process, culminating in developing a strategic tourism plan for PSJ. This study contributes to the literature on including tourism in the general development plan of communities such as PSJ. At the same time, it provides strategic direction on how community livelihoods can be improved using the natural and cultural resources in PSJ.

Key words: Community involvement, host community, Port St. Johns, LED, rural tourism

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INTRODUCTION

In the 21st century, tourism has gained worldwide recognition as a leading growth industry (Astina et al., 2021; Safarov and Janzakov, 2021). Before the general economic meltdown orchestrated by the Covid-19 pandemic, the tourism sector accounted for R130,1 billion (3%) of direct contribution to gross domestic product (GDP) and contributed 4,5% of total employment in South Africa (Stats SA, 2020). Acha-Anyi (2020) asserts that tourism is seen progressively as an attractive growth preference for several tourist regions in emerging economies such as Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa.

In the light of this, it comes as no surprise that countless tourist destinations and host communities have adopted the industry as a one-stop panacea to meet their economic challenges (Iorio and Wall, 2012). Nevertheless, Canh and Thanh (2020) point out that the misconception of tourism as a panacea for improving the economic profile of destinations has never survived the scrutiny of its benefits. Furthermore, tourism leans towards aggravating the problems of host communities by degrading the environment, promoting illicit monetary transfers and exposing their internal problems (Dieke, 2009). Atzori et al. (2019) support this view by saying that instead of yielding the expected outcomes, more pressure is exerted on the existing scarce resources. There is even a possibility that conflicts could be triggered due to inadequate forecasting and maladministration of tourism growth in certain instances, such as tourist arrivals in a tourism destination and acceptable limits of environmental responsibility. Hence, tourism awareness programmes in the local community are essential to ensure that host communities benefit from their assets, such as indigenous resources, characteristics and uniqueness. Host communities must be encouraged to take part in decision-making platforms.

Arintoko et al. (2020) explain that rural areas already have an abundance of national botanical gardens, adventure areas, highlands, lakes, and cultural attractions, mostly found in the outlying towns and cities that remain leading tourist destinations. Hence, the rural economy in these areas is already strategically positioned as a critical feature because of tourism. Xu et al. (2019) also highlight that natural and cultural resources create a competitive advantage in South Africa, which has led to tourism's economic potential and development, now a significant contributor to growth and development.

BACKGROUND

Port St. John is one of the leading tourism destinations on the Wild Coast of the Eastern Cape Province, particularly for adventure tourists and nature lovers (Apleni and Henama, 2020). The area has many natural resources, such as the healing sulphur springs (Figure 1) and the eco-friendly Indian Ocean coastal activities (Figure 2).

Over the past two decades, the area has experienced an upsurge in tourism activities with several private entities introducing shark-diving activities, a zipline, mountain climbing, and aircraft air shows on the airstrip. Tourist souvenir

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stalls run by the host community mushroomed in and around the small coastal town (Dicken, 2010). As a result, PSJ contributed 0.71% to the GDP of the Eastern Cape and 0.06% to the GDP of South Africa in 2013 (Eastern Cape Province (ECP), 2014). Adversely, triple social ills (poverty, inequality and unemployment) prevail simultaneously with the upsurge in tourism, which raises the question of the effectiveness of tourism as the driver of LED. In contrast, the community services sector in 2016 was the largest in PSJ, accounting for R862 million or 40.6% of the total Gross Value Added in the local municipality's economy. Both the agriculture and mining sectors are generally characterised by volatility (Eastern Cape Socio-Economic Consultative Council (ECSECC, 2021). The host community is not directly involved in the tourism programmes throughout the area, such as accommodating tourists and providing recreational activities. In time, tourism could generate income for the host community. In contrast, the town no longer hosts the abovementioned activities that used to be on offer, such as the aircraft air shows. Furthermore, PSJ is among the top three most impoverished Eastern Cape towns (ECSECC, 2021). Many opportunities exist, especially when recipient individuals participate in the policymaking forum and when the economic empowerment of the host community is encouraged and investigated to find solutions to problems. There are opportunities to create a conducive environment for small- to medium-tourist enterprises (SMTEs) to grow, thrive, and promote an environment for private-public partnerships in sub-Saharan Africa to develop.

Figure 1. Bubbling healing sulphur spring in Port St. Johns (Authors primary data, 2021)

Figure 2. Mainly unspoilt coastal landscape of Port St. Johns (Authors primary data, 2021)

Previous studies (Apleni and Henama, 2020; Mukwada and Sekhele, 2017) reveal strategic issues of tourism destination management and marketing in Port St. Johns. Such challenges are evident in the absence of a coordinated stakeholder approach and a focused market driven tourism product development in the community of Port St. Johns. Hence, questions have been asked about the market readiness of PSJ as a tourists' destination (Dicken, 2010). The reason for this is the slow development taking place relative to tourism. First, natural and man-made attractions are abundant, such as deep-sea shark diving and sardine run migration tours during the winter season. Second, because tourism is seasonal, there seems to be limited input from private-public partnership investments. Hence, the town remains overcrowded, overbooked and tourists stay for shorter periods (Mtshokotshe and Mxunyelwa, 2020). Moreover, there is limited marketing coverage of the existing tourist products, so the outside world is unaware of the available resources (Dicken, 2010).

According to the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT, 1996), many communities, especially among previously disadvantaged groups in rural areas, have not actively participated in the tourist industry, yet they possess significant tourism resources. The DEAT (1996) further laments the absence of adequate transport services because this limits the participation of rural communities in the industry. Acha-Anyi (2020) asserts that the cornerstone of the tourist industry is the conservation of community cultural and natural heritage and that host communities should be the prime beneficiaries of tourism development. Similarly, Arintoko et al. (2020) reiterate that tourism cannot be sustainable as a tool for development if the host community does not have a vision of self-development. However, PSJ as a host community is not benefitting from tourism and has developed apathy towards tourism, particularly the individuals who perceive tourism as no benefit to them (Mtshokotshe and Mxunyelwa, 2020). While studies on community-based tourism are readily available, the same cannot be said of research on the involvement, benefits and perceptions of local people concerning tourism development in their communities Lee et al. 2018; Swart et al. 2018; Woosnam and Aleshinloye, 2018). This study aims to yield content that deals explicitly with the perceptions of marginalised host communities on opportunities of LED through tourism. Secondly, the study uses empirical evidence from the community of PSJ to illustrate the level of involvement of host communities and tourism stakeholders and how this can be improved in the future.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Rogerson (2019) affirms that tourism can serve as a tool with which communities can generate income and, in turn, can improve the lives of residents for the better. Similarly, Kauppila et al. (2009) posit that tourism is often considered a vehicle for regional development due to the positive economic impacts of the industry. Mukwada and Sekhele, (2017) emphasized that the travel industry is a potent tool for the promotion of LED as it creates employment particularly in rural communities. There is ample empirical evidence from the Southern African Development Community (SADC) to illustrate that economic benefits from tourism actually accrue to local communities (Rogerson, 2019; Apleni and Henama, 2020). Látková and Vogt (2012) pointed out that many host communities have experienced the benefits of tourism as a new way to improve the country's economic outlook. Mtshokotshe and Mxunyelwa, (2020) argue that the tourism industry could play a significant part in the Transkei Wild Coast LED programme.

Giampiccoli et al. (2014) bring to light the possible gap between policies and practices that must be closed to facilitate community-based tourism development for the benefit of communities. It is pertinent that the impact of tourism on LED as an approach for poverty mitigation is analysed to understand better the extent of alleged and expected benefits thereof (Mbaiwa and Hambira, 2020) Municipalities have broadly recognised the importance of tourism as an economic panacea in South Africa through which success can be achieved by bringing benefits to the recipient communities (Rogerson, 2019). Woosnam and Aleshinloye (2018) believe that rural tourism is another source of income that protects host communities from social ills. Therefore, a community like PSJ could benefit from tourism development that the host community can share. The researcher believes that the potential of tourism in areas such as PSJ requires particular attention. It has also been discovered that the major constraint to tourism development in PSJ is the limited involvement of host communities.

Mbaiwa and Hambira (2020) indicate that tourism could contribute immeasurably to LED and poverty mitigation. The representation of the new dispensation for municipal functions summarises the progressive responsibilities of a municipality in subdivision 153 of the law of South Africa (DEAT, 1996). Additionally, the municipality must structure and manage its administration and budgeting and planning processes to prioritise the community's basic needs and promote social and economic development. Acha-Anyi (2020) contends that the link between tourism and LED in the municipal tourism policy still upholds various assumptions. In the case of the Eastern Cape, the promotion of sustainable economic growth and the contribution of LED does not introduce new thinking that is likely to produce an environment that will enable tourism to exploit its potential. Furthermore, Khumalo (2014) maintained that rural tourism in the Eastern Cape has remained unexploited despite the potential and contributions towards LED. According to Dicken (2010) PSJ has received much attention as a possible hub for tourism improvement in the Wild Coast region in the preceding years. Such motivation has arisen because PSJ is part of the most biodiverse tourism routes in the Eastern Cape and perhaps in the whole of South Africa (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012). Mtshokotshe and Mxunyelwa (2020) add that deep gorges, mangrove swamps and impenetrable forests are found mainly in PSJ on the Wild Coast Route. Thus, the PSJ municipality was adopted as a case study to examine the prospects for LED through tourism in the Oliver Reginald Tambo District Municipality. Swart et al., (2018) point out that more than one-third of rural areas are in arid and semi-arid regions, and up to 75% of the world's disadvantaged people live in this environment. Látková and Vogt (2012) asserted that rural tourism in this development context could be adopted as a conduit for revitalising rural areas. Marginalised areas need to develop an alternative approach to help foster a viable means of support by using LED initiatives (Rogerson, 2019).

The absence of infrastructure, such as roads, and the lack of host community awareness are among the factors that are stifling the growth of tourism in PSJ (Apleni and Henama, 2020). The potential of natural resources to attract more tourists could become a significant contributor to the local economy of PSJ. With its unspoilt, underdeveloped but naturally beautiful terrain PSJ has the potential to attract much-needed tourist traffic. It is in this light that natural areas require the necessary attention from relevant stakeholders. Failure to attend to this will lead to sustainable tourism in the area being compromised (Pandy and Rogerson, 2021). The decline in South Africa's tourist arrivals from all regions could be related to the Covid-19 pandemic (Stats SA, 2020). The level of growth is estimated to last, particularly as a consequence of globally falling oil prices. Therefore, from an international perspective, the economic sector of tourism has proved to be critical in generating decent employment in all sectors, formal and informal, improving the quality of life, and attracting foreign exchange earnings (Meyer and Meyer, 2015; Ap, 1992). The contribution of tourism in growing the economy, creation of jobs and revenue generation is widely acknowledged (Reddy et al., 2014). In this light, tourism plays an integral part in improving the financial strength of numerous developing and developed countries. The Organization for Economic Coordination and Development (OECD) (2010) commented that the tourist sector has a labour-absorptive capacity because tourism offers numerous low-skilled jobs. For example, many people are employed indirectly as guides, drivers, gardeners and laundry staff. Tourism tolerates the freedom of participation in the mainstream marketplace, with limited hurdles, such as lack of knowledge, inadequate transportation systems, and government support. Moreover, the potential of tourism's meaningful contribution to rural community development and growth is discussed adequately in this study's literature, and the findings of the study are in agreement with the socio-economic benefits of tourism (Lee et al., 2018).

Impact of tourism on economic development

Meyer and Meyer (2015) assert that the economic capabilities of the travel industry to subsidise LED significantly depends on the sectors' exclusivity. Tourists need to travel to destinations for them to consume the tourist products, for example. Bosworth and Turner (2018) clarified that these distinctive factors embrace the diversity of the economy, allowing the growth of exports and the attraction of people towards the most far-flung settings offering unique cultural and natural attractions. Furthermore, tourism supports local skills from white to blue-collar expertise. Mbaiwa and Hambira (2020) assert that skills are essential for growth and development. Moreover, tourism promotes the expansion of small, medium to micro-enterprises in tourism. Consequently, the development of fibre networks and associated infrastructure is likely to improve (Junaidi et al., 2019; Andereck et al., 2005). Rural tourism, in particular, has attracted increasing attention from tourism planning experts and academics due to its potential to improve peripheral destinations (Acha-Anyi, 2020). Mariani et al. (2014) indicated that established tourist destinations are experiencing a paradigm shift in target markets, and new markets are rapidly emerging. The competition is significantly increasing, not only in tourist destinations but also between destinations. Lee et al. (2018), in agreement with this view, maintain that the development of rural tourism offers an improvement in the host community's livelihood, although some effects are more beneficial than others; namely, cultural, environmental and socio-economical aspects. Hence, the support and involvement of the host community is indispensable for tourism sustainability (Gursoy et al., 2010; Laut et al., 2021)).

Despite these ideals and the stated potential of rural development, Gao and Wu (2017) highlighted that rural tourism in traditional tourism destinations experienced a universal crisis over the past four years, specifically in emerging destinations. With rural culture and the conventional agricultural sector being subjected to the assimilation of modernisation, rural tourism can ensure that such assimilation does not impede the equitable development of the host community. Similarly, Apleni and Henama (2020) assert that most of the skills base in PSJ has moved to the major cities of South Africa.

Tourism and economic development in South Africa

Academic discourse relating tourism to economic growth is comparatively new on the African continent (Richards, 2018). In the growing body of international scholarship around tourism, the most undeveloped literature and research base refer to sub-Saharan Africa (Rogerson, 2019). Lee (2013) was also of the view that the potential of Africa's tourism is generally unexploited. According to the DEAT (1996), tourism was declared a missed opportunity for South Africa as a whole. Three key themes emerge from an analysis of the South African tourist economy. First, the industry has a long history of racial polarisation. That is, tourism was conceived of as an industry catering to the recreational and leisure needs of White residents (most of whom live Gauteng, the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal) and colonial expatriates who reside north of South Africa's borders (Rogerson, 2019). Second, as South Africa also practised spatial apartheid, the provision of tourist products was almost entirely confined to designated 'White spaces' with minor exceptions made in the late apartheid era for tourism products to be built in certain spots in the so-called 'homelands' (Rogerson, 2019).

The share for the Eastern Cape is limited to a one or possibly a two-night stay in Port Elizabeth (Mtshokotshe and Mxunyelwa, 2020). The advent of malaria-free private game reserves has increased the province's profile, but with a minimal spread into the eastern half of the province. The sharp decline observed in regular tourism is further compounded by shortening itineraries, further reducing receipts to the Eastern Cape (ECSECC, 2021). However, after setting out a somewhat bleak prospect, there is a glimmer of hope. The Eastern Cape is featured widely in almost all leading tour operator brochures (Apleni and Henama, 2020). The intuitive hypothesis is that the Eastern Cape is sold more easily to a repeat visitor who has exhausted the iconic path and is looking for a different set of experiences and products.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Research methodology

The aim of this study was to assess community perceptions on the development of tourism as a means of orchestrating local economic development in communities. In achieving this goal, the study employed the quantitative research paradigm through the use of a questionnaire to collect data from community members on their perceptions on the use of tourism as an instrument for local economic development. The community of Port St. Johns in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa was used a case study to conduct this study based on the availability of unique tourists' attractions in the area such as healing springs, relatively undisturbed forests and Ocean resources. Therefore, the case study approach was deemed appropriate based on the suitability of the natural resources and the aesthetic qualities of the environment in Port St. Johns which make it favourable to the phenomenon of local economic development through tourism (Brink, 2018). The method employed in carrying out this research is summarised in figure 3 below.

Target population

Neuman (2014) viewed the population as a representative view of many complex situations from which the researcher takes a sample and where the sample results are produced.

The survey population in this study comprised the residents of Port St. John community. Hence, all the 178, 000 inhabitants of the community (Eastern Province, 2014) were considered eligible for the study.

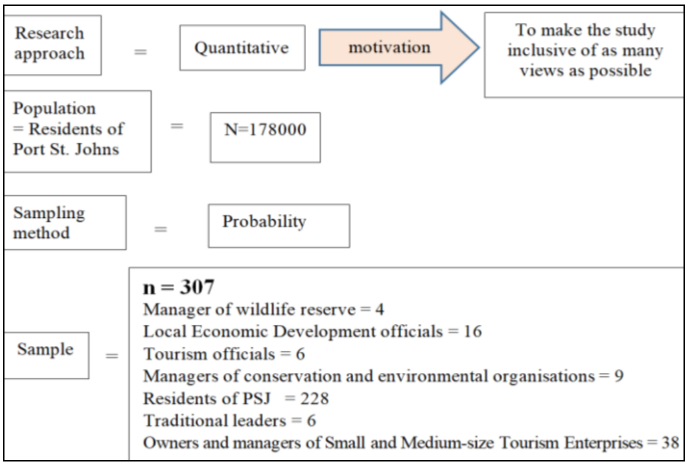

Figure 3. Research design (Authors' compilation)

Sample size

Based on the population of 178, 000 (Eastern Cape, 2014), a sample size determined using the formula (Sarantakos, 2013, p. 14):

$$\textbf{Sample size, n = N} * \frac{\frac{Z^2 * p * (1-p)}{e^2}}{\left[N - 1 + \frac{Z^2 * p * (1-p)}{e^2}\right]}$$

where,

- N = Population size,
- Z = Critical value of the normal distribution at the required confidence level,
- p = Sample proportion,
- e = Margin of error (Sarantakos, 2013, p. 14)

Therefore, a sample size of 383 was consider appropriate for this study. However, out of the 400 questionnaires that were distributed in the PSJ community, only 307 valid responses were returned. This was noted as one of the limitations on the study.

Sampling approach

The study adopted a probability sampling approach which followed simple random sampling. This meant that each resident of the community of Port St. Johns (population) had an equal chance of being selected to take part in the study. Community members were randomly approached in public areas such as the shopping centre, entertainment places and around the streets and asked if they would be willing to take part in the study. Those who accepted to participate in the study were handed consent forms to familiarise themselves with their rights to anonymity, non-obligation and withdrawal from the study. After these prerequisite formalities, the respondents were then handed the questionnaire with a pen to complete.

Measuring instrument

Research questions were transformed into topics raised during the survey to develop a measuring instrument (Boeije, 2010). Moreover, when selecting the study as a calculating tool, the investigator had drawn up a flawless and fascinating overview of the research, presented himself and the study and requested permission for the study according to Boeije (2010).

Likert scale measurement. Jennings (2010) asserted that the most widely utilised response sets used for tourism and hospitality research are checklists, ranking scales, Likert scales, semantic differential scales, Thurstone and Guttman scales, scenarios and open-ended questions. A 5-point Likert scale was used in all the 35 items relating to the triple bottom line. A score of one represented ‘strongly disagree’ that expressed greater disfavour than just ‘disagree’, and a score of five represented ‘strongly agree’ and expressed greater favour than just ‘agree’.

Layout and contents of the survey questionnaire

The questionnaire was divided into six sections:

Section A focussed on understanding tourism from respondents in general and determining the degree of involvement of respondents in the tourism sector and the tourism economy. This section contained six questions, three of which required respondents to tick multiple-choice questions/items. Section B required respondents’ ‘perception of residents’ perception of tourism’s economic and social effects. The entire section consisted of statements divided into economic, environmental and social impacts to be rated by respondents on a Likert scale. A five-point scale of ‘strongly agree’, ‘agree’, ‘disagree’ or ‘disagree’, ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ was also used in all questions in Sections B and C. These sections comprised 36 statements. Respondents were asked to rate their responses at a five-point interval: ‘strongly agree’, ‘agree’, ‘disagree’ or ‘disagree’, ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’. Section C required the level of perception of the respondent’s involvement in tourism planning and management initiatives. The entire section consisted of statements to be rated by respondents on a Likert scale, divided into economic, environmental and social impacts. Respondents chose whether to strongly agree with the statements about the effects of tourism in PSJ on one side of the scale or strongly disagree on the other. In Section D of the questionnaire, respondents were required to provide respondent profile information that could serve as independent variables in the study. It contained five questions in which respondents had to tick or comment on the questionnaire.

Data collection

In this research, the information-gathering technique adopted a structured survey, the primary method for collecting data. The survey was conducted with the managers of wildlife reserves, LED officials, tourism officials, conservation and environmental affairs managers, residents of PSJ, traditional leaders, SMTE managers, and owners. The 19 fieldworkers were former students of Walter Sisulu University in tourism, hospitality and sport management. Among the fieldworkers were five postgraduate students from the villages of PSJ, and the survey took place over a period of three months (March to May 2019).

Pilot testing

According to Gray (2014), the pilot study helps to remove confusing and unreliable questions. In the present study, a pilot survey was undertaken with respondents to assess the reliability and validity of the survey problems. The residents were informed in person about the purpose of collecting these statistics. The researcher then conducted surveys with each respondent. One outcome of the pilot study specified that the researcher should adapt the survey questions to include them in the research problems, so some of the questions were redesigned to explain the questions asked more clearly.

Quantitative data analysis

After data coding, data entry and data cleaning, quantitative statistics were analysed. First, a graphic exploration of the demographic outline of the participants was carried out, followed by a factor analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin equilibrium sample size and the Bartlett sphericity test was used to assess the steadiness and reliability of the measured factors.

Fieldwork

Before data collection, nineteen fieldworkers were trained on general protocols of data collection, especially ethical conduct. All the fieldworkers were originally from PSJ, which made the data collection much more appealing to participants. The fieldworkers had been trained how to collect primary data using questionnaires as study instruments from their studies. Hence, it was simple to inform and explain the tourism terms in the instrument. After that, the fieldworkers themselves completed the questionnaire as a dummy to clarify areas that they did not understand before venturing into the field. The responses from the fieldworkers were not included in the analysis of the study. During fieldwork, the participants completed the questionnaires in the presence of the researcher or one of the fieldworkers. Table 1 indicates that the response return rates were unequal for all respondents. The community member’s response rate was 91%. As far as returns are concerned, less than half the tourism business owners responded, and 91% of community members responded because they stood to benefit from the study findings.

Table 1. Respondents' response rate in the study
(Source: Compiled by authors)

Position	Total questionnaires circulated	Total copies completed
Manager of a wildlife reserve	5	4
LED officials	30	16
Tourism officials	10	6
Managers of conservation and environmental affairs	15	9
Residents of PSJ	250	228
Traditional leaders	10	6
SMTE managers and owners	80	38
	400	307

Table 2. Cronbach's alpha reliability statistics

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
0.928	37

Table 3. Demographic characteristics
(Source: Compiled from primary data by authors)

Variable	Levels	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	128	42%
	Female	179	58%
	Total	*N= 307*	*100*
Age range	18-20	24	8%
	21-30	111	36%
	31-40	84	27%
	41-50	39	13%
	51-60	43	14%
	61+	6	2%
	Total	*N=307*	*100*
Monthly Income	None	64	21%
	1000 and below	40	13%
	1001-5000	101	33%
	5001-10000	28	9%
	10001-15000	20	6%
	15001-20000	21	7%
	20001-30000	28	9%
	30001 above	5	2%
	Total	*N=307*	*100*

Reliability and validity analysis

In this study, the scale used was ordinal. The categories used were the various constructs (variables) identified and tested on a five-point Likert scale: 'strongly disagree' (1), 'disagree' (2), 'neutral' (3) 'agree' (4), and 'strongly agree' (5). Respondents were asked to rate how important the constructs were in their perception of tourism. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010), who asserted that reliability and validity affect correlation coefficients, the reliability test revealed that the socio-economic factor scale had an excellent internal consistency. As indicated in Table 2, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the community socio-economic perception measure was 0.928, a highly acceptable level above the minimum 0.5 (Hair, Gabriel and Patel, 2014).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The following sections detail results from this study, commencing with a discussion of the demographic statistics, followed by an analysis of the respondents' perception of the potential benefits of tourism development and the general impacts of tourism development in the community of PSJ.

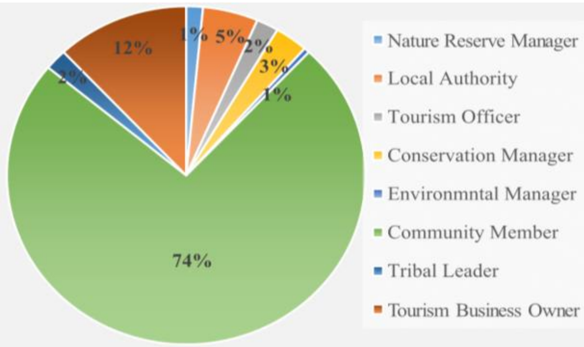

Figure 4. Tourism stakeholder status of the respondents

Demographic characteristics of the respondents

This section discusses different variables such as gender, age and monthly household income. The survey revealed that most of the respondents were female (58%), mainly within the age group of 21-30 years of age (36%), who lived on a monthly household income of between R1001-R5000 (33%).

Tourism stakeholder status of the respondents

The study examined the current functions of the respondents to get a perspective on the role the respondents could play in tourism development in the community of PSJ. According to Figure 4, most respondents were community members (74%), while 12% owned tourism businesses, and 5% were local authorities in PSJ.

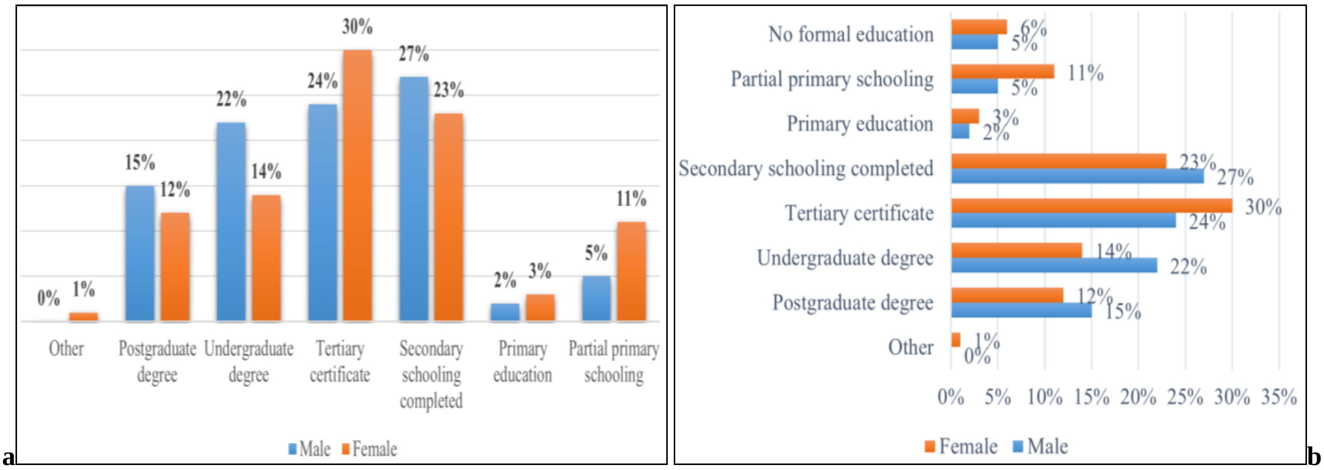

Figure 5. Distribution of Employment Status (a) and level of education (b) by gender

Distribution of Employment Status and level of education by gender

With the importance of employment and education to LED in mind, this study further compared the situation of male to female respondents as presented in Figure 5a above.

Distribution of employment status and highest education level attained

Information from Figure 3 reveals some surprising insights. Although most of the respondents in full-time employment (51%) are females as opposed to 48% males, ironically, there are more females with primary school education or less (20%) compared with only 12% males.

Community perceptions on the benefits of tourism development in Port St. Johns

The principal assumption here is that greater perceived benefits from tourism would result in greater support for tourism development. In this regard, the respondents' views were sought on the potential benefits of tourism development to infrastructure development, small business development, job creation, tourism awareness and participation in the tourism economy in PSJ. Most of the respondents (69%) agreed that tourism development in PSJ will lead to infrastructure development. Of this percentage, 42% were female, and 27% were male. Similarly, 38% of female respondents and 27% of males supported the idea that tourism development in PSJ will create a low barrier for them to start their own small businesses: This amounted to a 65% positive respondent rate. Regarding job creation, 43% of females and 27% of male respondents agreed that tourism development in PSJ would make it easier to find work opportunities, giving a total positivity rate of 70%. Respondents were further asked to comment on the possibility of tourism development leading to greater tourism awareness among community members. Sixty-six per cent of the respondents answered in the affirmative (39% female and 27% male). Finally, 43% of female respondents agreed that tourism development would increase community participation in the tourism economy, while 30% of males shared a similar view.

From a sustainable tourism perspective, this researcher was interested in understanding the respondents' views on the potential economic, social and environmental impacts of tourism in their community (PSJ). The results in Figure 6 reveal that most respondents (52%) perceived economic benefits accruing to the community, while 40% and about 37%, respectively, envisioned social and environmental benefits from tourism development.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) results

Further analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted on the dataset in order to explore the possible effects of age of respondents on perceptions of economic, social and environmental impacts of tourism in the community of Port St. Johns. Following Brink et al. (2018) a p-value of less than 0.05 was considered to indicate a statistically significant difference in the mean levels of the groups. The ANOVA based on the age groups is presented in Table 4 below. The p-value for the statistics for 'Economic Impact' (0.116) is greater than 0.05, meaning that there is no statistically significant difference between the different age groups regarding perceptions on the economic impacts of tourism in Port St. Johns. The p-value for 'Social Impact' (0.04) is less than 0.05; therefore, indicating a statistically significant difference in the perceptions of the different age groups regarding the social impact of tourism in PSJ. The p-value for 'Environmental Impact' (0.083) is greater than 0.05; hence, there is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of the different age groups regarding the environmental impact of tourism in PSJ.

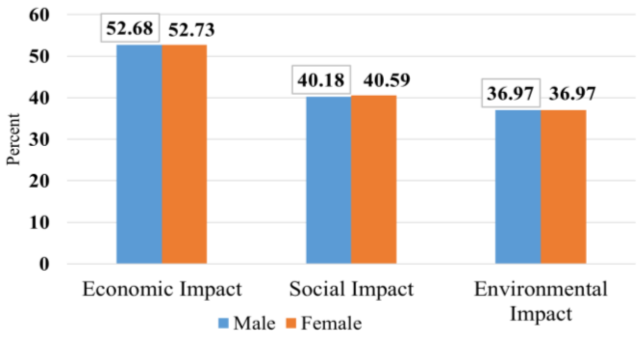

Figure 6. General impacts of tourism development in PSJ

Table 4. ANOVA by age of respondent

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Economic Impact	Between Groups	1036.453	6	172.742	1.720	.116
	Within Groups	30132.746	300	100.442		
	Total	31169.199	306			
Social Impact	Between Groups	632.895	6	105.482	2.231	.040
	Within Groups	14183.900	300	47.280		
	Total	14816.795	306			
Environ-mental Impact	Between Groups	525.463	6	87.577	1.885	.083
	Within Groups	13940.419	300	46.468		
	Total	14465.883	306			

CONCLUSION

This study aimed to explore opportunities for using tourism to orchestrate LED in the town of PSJ. By soliciting community members' perceptions on various aspects of tourism development and using the social exchange theory as a vehicle to ascertain the potential benefits that the respondents perceive as accruing to the community as a result of tourism development, this was achieved. The participants indicated that tourism development would improve the community's overall infrastructure and unblock certain barriers to small business start-ups. Another potential benefit from tourism development was job creation, as most respondents expressed the view that tourism growth would increase their chances of getting employed. This inclination of community members towards the positive economic benefits of tourism is echoed by Murungi and Mbugua, (2020) and Acha-Anyi, (2020). Following the social exchange theory, the expected economic benefits from tourism should signal support for tourism development in PSJ (Getz, 1994; Hernandez et al., 1996).

However, the respondents do not seem to show the same positive support towards the social impacts of tourism. This response is evident because more than 50% of the respondents do not envisage positive social impacts resulting from tourism development. Kuuder et al. (2020) and Junaidi et al. (2019) also found that local communities are less enthusiastic about the social impacts than about the economic gains of tourism. Research on the effects of tourism development has often concluded that environmental effects tend to attract the least attention (Lee et al., 2018; Swart et al., 2018; Woosnam and Aleshinloye, 2018). The current study is no different: less than 40% of the respondents perceive environmental consequences arising from tourism development in PSJ. It is also noteworthy that results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) reveal no statistically significant difference between the different age groups regarding perceptions on the economic and environmental impacts of tourism in the community of Port St. Johns. This conclusion is important because it means that there is sufficient consensus in the community to use tourism as an instrument for community development. The conclusion from the ANOVA therefore is that there are no significant differences among community member with regards to developing tourism to generate economic and environmental benefits.

Implications

The results of this study point to both policy and practical implications for tourism development in Port St. Johns because tourism policy informs planning and implementation (Acha-Anyi, 2020; Khan et al., 2020). First, a tourism policy for communities like PSJ needs to consider the importance of attracting local people to participate in the tourism discourse. Despite high poverty levels in the community, very few people seem even to consider the opportunities offered by tourism development. Second, tourism planning should constitute an integral part of general development planning in PSJ. If tourism is to form part of the economic development agenda, it should not be discussed in isolation from overall development issues; otherwise, it may seem like duplicating the economic development process. At a more practical level, this study has revealed the need for an extensive tourism awareness campaign in the community of PSJ. It is evident from the study findings that most of the respondents have a very narrow understanding of what tourism is and the opportunities it offers. Finally, this study also has implications for tourism sustainability, emanating from the relatively low consideration that the respondents have for the social and environmental impacts of tourism. It is vital to emphasise sustainability imperatives to the community at the onset of tourism development (Waitt, 2003).

Acknowledgement

The authors wish to acknowledge the important contribution made by Dr Pula Solomon Khunou† to this study.

The authors equally appreciate and acknowledge the constructive comments made by the reviewers on the initial draft of this paper. Their comments were quite helpful in improving this paper.

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Article history: Received: 01.11.2021 Revised: 18.01.2022 Accepted: 15.02.2022 Available online: 14.03.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.292-301
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40135-831

TOURISM SECURITY AND TAKING RESPONSIBILITY IN THE SHADOW OF THE COVID19 PANDEMIC - WHO IS RESPONSIBLE?

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Citation: Horváth, A., & Lopatny, M.L. (2022). TOURISM SECURITY AND TAKING RESPONSIBILITY IN THE SHADOW OF THE COVID19 PANDEMIC - WHO IS RESPONSIBLE? *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 292–301. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40135-831

Abstract: Today's tourism is undergoing radical changes. Until 2020, the number of people participating in tourism had grown steadily, and no one would have thought that the globally dominant economy would experience such a shock. Many tourism businesses were forced to suspend their activities and not all of them could continue in the future as they had to look for other sources of livelihood. But businesses that succeed in surviving the economic collapse must be prepared to meet the changing needs of tourists after a reopening. The aim of our research is to assess the attitudes of potential tourists towards the issue of tourism security. Within the topic, we sought answers to what responsibilities, if any, they assume related to health security. In our research, we also looked at whether potential tourists expect them to provide their security. Responsible behaviour, as an expectation, is directed primarily at service providers or they may feel safe in a destination due to actions taken by other actors (including the travellers themselves). In a study based on an online questionnaire survey of almost a thousand people, the results were processed by statistical data analysis. Those wishing to travel do not even see the situation created by the current pandemic as a barrier to traveling. When it comes to security, public safety is considered to be paramount, and the public sector is expected to create it. Health security is only in second place, but the results suggest that the responsibility lies with service providers in this regard. Based on the obtained results, both tourism service providers and destination management organizations can place more emphasis on tourism security and its marketing communication.

Key words: tourism security, health security, responsible tourism, pandemic, tourist attitude

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INTRODUCTION

Today's tourism is undergoing radical changes. Until 2020, the number of people participating in tourism had grown steadily, and no one would have thought that the globally dominant industry would experience such a shock. According to the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), in 2019, international tourist travel reached 1.5 billion, which was a remarkable number compared to previous years. Prior to the outbreak of the SARS CoV-19 epidemic, forecasts for 2020 still projected growth (UNWTO, 2020a), however, the epidemic significantly rewrote this, and according to Gössling et al. 2020, tourism itself greatly contributed to the spread of the epidemic (Gössling et al., 2020). The pandemic caused a 22 percent drop in international tourist arrivals in the first quarter of 2020, leading to the loss of millions of jobs and halting progress on Sustainable Development Goals (UNWTO, 2020b). Suddenly, travel habits changed, nearby destinations and domestic trips came to the fore. Many tourism businesses have been forced to suspend their activities and not all of them will be able to continue in the future as they had to look for other sources of livelihood. But businesses that survive the economic collapse need to be prepared to meet the changing needs of tourists after the reopening. The aim of our research is to assess the attitudes of potential tourists towards the issue of tourism security. Within the topic, we sought answers to what responsibilities, if any, they assume in relation to health security. There are obviously mandatory requirements for tourism service providers, but in our research, we also examined whether potential tourists expect them to provide their security. Responsible behaviour, as an expectation, is directed primarily at service providers or they possibly feel safe in a destination due to actions taken by other actors (including travellers themselves) (Mihalic et al., 2021). The question arises whether the COVID-19 pandemic had an impact on the importance of tourism security factors among travellers. In addition, the question is whether individual responsibility appears to tourists in relation to health security?

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Emergence of tourism security in the literature

Tourism security is an even less researched topic in Central and Eastern European countries, despite the fact that it can influence the travel decisions and destination choices of potential tourists (Zsarnoczky et al., 2016). Although some authors have criticized some elements of the well-known Maslow (1943) hierarchy of needs (King-Hill, 2017), the need for

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security after the level of basic physical needs cannot be questioned, whereas when an individual feels threatened, the defensive instinct awakens. As a result, if a traveller thinks he will not feel safe in a destination, it can deter him from that place. In today's information-rich world, it may occur that the tourist cannot be able to get enough information (for example, due to a lack of quality information, digital illiteracy) or he gets too much contradictory information, which creates uncertainty in him. Of course, with the mass movements of tourism, the security risk is increasing, so not only the weight of news and information that can be accessed instantly via the World Wide Web has increased, but also the weight of conscious branding and marketing management. Of course, many things can influence a potential tourist's travel decision. Preconception (Péter et al., 2018), and such important factor as cognitive ability also affects the level of objective risk perception of tourists (Cui et al., 2016). Michalkó (2012) defines security factors as a general condition of tourism, including institutionalized threats, public health conditions, and standard of living thresholds. If these factors are not appropriate, it will have a negative effect on the tourist traffic and economy of the area. At this point, it is necessary to state that we are not talking about those tourists of a special segment who are specifically looking for danger, challenge, to achieve elevated adrenaline levels during their leisure trips, such as those looking for extreme sports.

In connection with tourism related travels, the grouping of the various elements of security is not uniform in the literature either. Some authors classified these factors into six risk groups examining inbound tourism in the People's Republic of China: terrorism, crimes (endangering public security: theft, robbery, sexual harassment, etc.), health risk (risk of infection such as cholera, typhoid, malaria, hepatitis A, sexually transmitted diseases: HIV/AIDS, dengue fever, etc.), road safety, natural disasters, political situation (Breda and Costa, 2006).

Michalkó (2020, 25) similarly grouped the most important factors of tourism security. In his work, he highlighted five factors that can be used to assess the security of tourists (whether an adverse event to their detriment or caused by them): public security, health security, consumer security, technical safety, and navigation safety.

In the literature, there are studies focusing on single risk factors, such as public security (Pizam, 1999; Tarlow, 2011; Hua et al., 2020) and its impact on tourism in a destination, such as a more reprehensible crime (Brown, 2015), or just a comparison between the tourist-preferred districts of a city and other parts of the city based on the number of crimes (Williams, 2010). In the mid-1980s, quite a few acts of terrorism occurred in popular destinations, causing a decline in tourism indicators (Edgell and Swanson, 2018, 293). Furthermore, it is not surprising that the relationship between tourism and terrorism has received increasing attention since the early 2000s, since the attacks on the World Trade Center in New York on 11 September 2001 have drawn global attention to the importance of the issue (Floyd et al., 2003). The impact of terrorist acts on tourism is considered to be clearly negative by many researchers (Pizam 2002, Pizam and Fleischer, 2002, Tarlow, 2006, Freyer and Schroder, A. 2007, Henderson, 2007, Hall et al., 2012, Edgell and Swanson, 2018), however, we could also come across such research findings according to which the impact of risk is smaller and typically only influences tourists' travel decisions in the longer term (Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2008). Furthermore, there was an opinion that the intensification of international terrorism and related threats have only a regional impact and less influence on the global processes of tourism (Tőkés and Lenkey, 2019). According to Tőkés and Lenkey (2019), geoeconomics related effects are much stronger, so the economic factor has a greater impact on the development of tourism than the security policy factor. Food security is a factor considered less risky that influences tourists' travel decisions, but according to some studies, it is greatly influenced by, for example, demographic affiliation (Yeung and Yee, 2020).

According to a research, a negligible proportion of tourists in Hungary become registered offenders, but at the same time they become victims more often, although it should be added that this number has decreased in the last decade both in Hungary and worldwide. One of the repercussions of this is that it positively influences the travel decision if a destination has good criminal statistics (Mátyás et al., 2020). Csapó and Törőcsik (2019) examined the security-related attitudes related to the travel habits of the Hungarian population. Based on their results, they found that the pursuit of security is much more important for women. The issue of security plays the biggest role in the travel decision of the low-educated, and the preference for safe destinations increases with the age regarding the generations (Csapó and Törőcsik, 2019).

Health security and tourism

Tourists' decision can be influenced by what health risks they may be exposed to in a destination and, if they consider it dangerous, it negatively affects their willingness to travel (Jonas et al., 2011). The importance of this has become increasingly important as tourism has become global. At the same time, "the chances of epidemics starting in each country becoming pandemic have increased; and the fact that the global tourist is increasingly moving from a passive participant in tourism to an active participant in tourism, which increases both the risks and the responsibility for safety" (Kővári, 2012, 476).

At the time of the 2003 SARS epidemic, it has already become clear how important transport is, as an inherent part of travel, in order not to see health risks like this as a local problem. Tourism involves mobility, so measures at the time (screening at airports, inspections, travel restrictions) could provide lessons for dealing with similar situations (Gu and Wall, 2006, Wilder-Smith, 2006) and the need for international cooperation (McKercher and Chon, 2004). One study examined the impact of communicable diseases on the flow of tourism between countries and found that its negative impact was (statistically and economically) significant. According to their results, a 10% increase in the confirmed number of SARS infections caused a decrease of about 4.5% in international tourism, which was an 8% decrease for developing countries only. The extent of the negative impact on tourism in an epidemic country depends on the income level and health infrastructure of the given country (Cevik, 2021). It is important to examine the negative effects of the COVID-19 epidemic in 2020, as actors in the tourism sector need to adapt to the demand. U.S. survey experts emphasize the importance of mediating destination health risk reduction strategies in communications. The change in travel attitudes can also be seen in the fact that the COVID-19 epidemic has changed the cognitive perception of tourists. If tourists believe a destination has a higher health risk, it increases their perceived insecurity and affects their mental well-being (Chua et al., 2021). It is important to note that the issue of responsibility and accountability in relation to health security is already addressed in the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism (GCET):

"(6) Tourists and visitors have the responsibility to acquaint themselves, even before their departure, with the characteristics of the countries they are preparing to visit; they must be aware of the health and security risks inherent in any travel outside their usual environment and behave in such a way as to minimize those risks." (UNWTO, n.d.)

This document is well known among tourism professionals, but the traveling public encountered it less. Thus, its contents, including the cited article, serve only as a guide for a narrow traveling segment. In reality, tourism service providers face the fact that tourists expect undisturbed experiences in exchange for their financial expenditures. In reality, this is often achieved in such a way that some guests are not always willing to follow the basic rules required by the service provider if they feel they are minimally constrained. Tourists included in a 2004 U.S. study were prepared to travel to a destination with a higher health risk (malaria, yellow fever, etc.) and they were fully aware of this. They were aware that the vaccine needed for immunization was available to prevent the disease, yet only a small proportion of them had vaccinated themselves to avoid infection (Hamer and Connor, 2004). This shows that the responsibility for health security is weak on the part of tourists.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sample and data collection

As no research is known on the topic of COVID-19 pandemic and tourism health security, we reviewed the methodology of similar studies in the literature to perform qualitative research, of which we relied in part on the studies of Csapó and Törőcsik (2019) and Jonas et al. (2011) as a starting point. In the continuation, during the field research, the aim was to develop a series of questions focusing on the topic. Prior to compiling the planned questionnaire for the survey, we conducted an unstructured interview with tourism service providers who operate their business in the field of accommodation and hospitality. Based on these, a questionnaire was compiled, which was distributed online at the end of 2020 due to the pandemic situation. Of course, this also means that we have only been able to reach and involve in research those who use the Internet. The target group of the survey is over 18 years of age, with residence in Hungary.

The survey was conducted between November 2020 and January 2021. The survey instrument was a self-administered questionnaire. In the first group of questions, we asked about demographic characteristics, followed by questions related to participants' travel for tourism purposes. The third group of questions concerned tourism security. Examining the issue of tourism security, Karl and Schmude (2017) pointed out that a real picture of the security factors influencing the travel decision of potential tourists can only be formed if we do not examine them separately. Thus, in the questionnaire survey, related to seven security factors (public security, political instability, consumer security, health security, safety of the natural environment, technical and transport safety, navigation safety (Michalkó, 2020), we measured their importance among the respondents on a five-point Likert scale. At the end of the questionnaire, we also raised questions about the respondents' travel plans in the shadow of the pandemic, with particular reference to health security.

Data analysis

In a study based on an online questionnaire survey of almost a thousand people (n: 927), we sought to use closed, decisive, and ranking questions. The results were processed by statistical data analysis using SPSS software.

To examine the perception of different risk factors of potential tourists and investigate the relationships between risk factors and some demographic indicators, various statistical tools were used. Frequency analysis was employed to get the demographic information of the sample. ANOVA was applied to investigate how travelers perceive different risk factors according to different tourist characteristics (**Error! Reference source not found.**).

General demographic features of tourists involved in the survey

For the results of the questionnaire survey, the responses of a sample of 927 people were processed. We asked demographic questions at the beginning of the questionnaire. 65.6% of respondents were women and 34.3% were men. In terms of age, the majority of respondents were 31-45 years old, their proportion was 36.2%, 46–60-year-olds accounted for 30.3%, 18-30 years old accounted for 21.8%, and 0.4% did not answer the question about age. In terms of distribution by place of residence, most of them lived in cities (31.7%) and county seats (30.9%), 16.6% in the capital, 12.5% in villages, 8.2% in municipalities, and 0.1% on homesteads. By occupation, most of them were intellectual employees (25.1%), while 22.9% of them were manual workers, 14.5% retirees, 12.6% students, 12% entrepreneurs, 9.7% senior employees, 0.5% homemakers, 2.5% job seekers and 2.5% of them chose the "other" option. Based on the highest level of education, 38.8% of the survey participants graduated from college or university, 31.6% graduated from grammar school or vocational high school, 20.0% graduated from vocational training or vocational schools, 8.2% were currently in higher education, while 1.2% graduated from primary school, and 0.2% of respondents did not want to answer this question.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Typical travel motivations of survey participants and the impact of SARS CoV-19 on their tourism related travels

After the demographic profile, we asked participants to answer tourism-related questions.

We assessed what is the most typical motivation for research participants for their tourism related travels. For this, sixteen options were listed, several of which could be checked. Sightseeing was a motivation for 36.5%, and 61.6% of the respondents aimed to relax and recharge during their trips. Hiking and close-to-nature destinations motivated roughly one in four respondents to travel, with 28.4% saying this is among their most typical destinations.

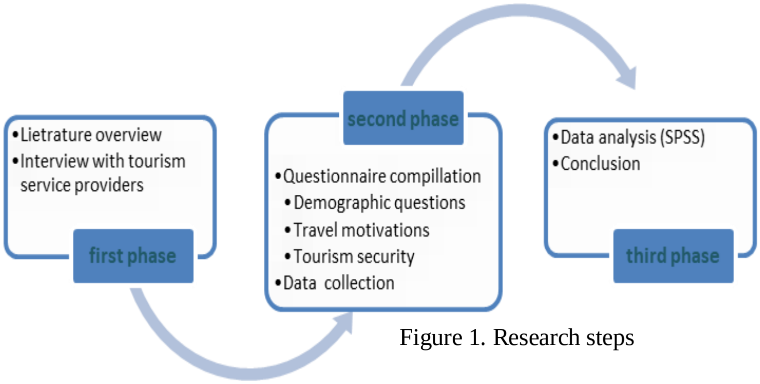

Figure 1. Research steps

Table 1 Age distribution of the postponement of planned trip (Data source: own research)

			Yes	No	Total
Age	18-30	Count	69	130	199
		% within Age	34.7%	65.3%	100.0%
	31-45	Count	141	193	334
		% within Age	42.2%	57.8%	100.0%
	46-60	Count	125	154	279
		% within Age	44.8%	55.2%	100.0%
	61-75	Count	48	56	104
		% within Age	46.2%	53.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	383	533	916
		% within Age	41.8%	58.2%	100.0%

Wellness relaxation was among the most typical motivations during travel: it was marked by 28% of respondents. Recreation for tourism related to gastronomy motivated 16.5% of the respondents to travel, and gaining cultural experiences was one of the most typical destinations for one in four respondents (24.8%). Visiting friends and relatives (VFR) was a motivation to travel among almost one-fifth of the research participants (19.2%). Business travel and conference attendance were marked by very few, only 2.8% of research participants. Learning and study trips as a travel incentive were common to only 1.9% of research participants. The next possible motivation examined was the sport and hobby category, such as cycling and water tourism, which was among the most common motivations in roughly one in ten respondents (10.2%). Attending an event, such as a festival or concert, was among the most common travel destinations in a quarter of respondents (23.2%). Using a health and beauty service was one of the less popular travel motivations, typical of only 1.4% of respondents. Visiting a spa was among the most common travel motivations for roughly one in ten respondents, with 12.6% marking this, while religious motivation was the main motivation for only 0.4% of respondents. Shopping was indicated by 5% of respondents. The “other” option was chosen by 0.2% of respondents. Based on the answers, the most typical motivations related to travel for tourism are the followings: relaxation, recharging, sightseeing, hiking and close-to-nature destinations, as well as wellness recreation. The least common motivations are religious motivation, using health and beauty services, learning and study trips - as well as “other” motivations.

Subsequently, we were interested about whether respondents had abandoned their travel plans due to the emerging Sars-Covid19 epidemic. Most of them, 57.5% did not give up their travel plans due to the situation caused by the pandemic, but 41.7% did. 0.8% of respondents did not answer this question. We examined whether there was a difference based on gender in the proportion of respondents who cancelled their travel plans. As can be seen in the cross table, 43.5% of women cancelled their travel plans due to the epidemic situation, while this rate was lower for men, as only 39.2% cancelled their travel plans. We also looked at whether there was an age difference in whether respondents gave up their travel plans. Examining the four age groups, the youngest age group, those between the ages of 18 and 30, adhered the most to their travel plans, with only one-third (34.6%) giving up on them (Table 1). As we examine the older age groups, the proportion of those who have given up their travel plans due to the viral situation is increasing. However, there is not much difference between the other three age groups examined: 42.2% of those aged 31 to 45 gave up their travel plans, compared to 44.8% of those aged 46 to 60, while this value is the highest for those aged 61 to 75, at 46.2%.

Using the following question, we examined what respondents consider important for tourism security in connection with a destination when making their travel decision. I have listed seven factors: public security, political instability, consumer security, health security, safety of the natural environment, technical and transport safety, and navigation safety, and I asked them to indicate for each factor how important that factor is to them. The importance of each factor was measured on a five-point Likert scale, where 1 was not important at all and 5 was very important.

The first factor examined was public security, for which I wrote verbal and physical atrocity, robbery, and theft as examples. Of the 927 respondents, 905 gave an answer to the question, with a mean value of 4.7381, which means that public security is very important to research participants when making their travel decision about a destination, so they prefer destinations where they do not have to fear verbal or physical atrocity, robbery. The mode is 5.00, which means that most of the respondents gave the answer that public security is very important to them when deciding where to travel. The standard deviation is 0.59211, which means that the importance of each answer deviates from the mean by so much, that is there was not much difference between the answers. The second factor examined is the unstable political situation, terrorist acts. Only two people did not answer this question. The mean is 4.0065, which means that they consider this factor as more important, and most respondents also stated that the unstable political situation is more important for them when choosing their destination. The standard deviation is 0.91640, which means that this factor divides respondents more than the question of public security and, as the standard deviation shows, has less influence on their decision when it comes to a travel destination.

The third factor we examined is consumer security, such as the problem of overbilling and poor-quality products. 8 people did not answer this question, while the mean of respondents was 3.8400, which means that it is more important to them - although less important than public security and the uncertain political situation. The 4.00 mode means that most respondents stated that this factor was more important to them, while the 0.94136 standard deviation indicates that the difference between the responses was relatively larger. We then asked the participants about the importance of health security, which is how important it is for them not to be at risk of an epidemic or infectious disease in the destination. 10 people did not answer this question. The mean of the responses was 4.4286, so this factor is important to the respondents. The mode is 5.00, so most have stated that health safety is very important to them when choosing their destination. The standard deviation is 0.74219, which is higher than for public security, but the importance of health security among respondents is less divisive than the uncertain political situation and the importance of consumer security.

Fifth, we examined the safety of the natural environment, which means the extent to which environmental problems, pollution and disasters influence respondents' travel decisions. This question was answered by all 927 people, with a mean of 3.6850 of their answers, which means that it is more important for them, but this mean is close to the one category lower importance, so although this factor is important, the respondents do not care much about it. However, mode is 4, so for most respondents, the safety of natural environment is more important. The standard deviation is the highest among the standard deviations of all the factors examined so far (0.98915), so this is the most divisive factor so far.

In the followings, we examined the importance of technical and transport safety, such as the safety and reliability of public transport. Only 1 person did not answer this question. The mean is 3.6004, which is very similar to the mean for the safety of the natural environment, but even less: it is on the border of more important and important but not deal with it. The mode is 4.00 for this factor as well, that is technical and transport safety is more important for most respondents. The standard deviation is the largest for this factor (1.10828), so here the results differ the most. Lastly, we asked the research participants about the importance of navigation safety, that is, what is the access to local information, local rules, and standards. Everyone answered the question: the mean is 3.2244, which means that navigation safety is considered important by respondents, but they do not deal with it - and the mode is 3.00, so most respondents are of this opinion. The variance was relatively large for this factor, as it was only higher for technical and transport safety. Based on the responses, therefore, the three main security-related factors that influence research participants when deciding on their destination are public security, health security, and the unstable political situation, terrorist acts. The ones that have the least impact on this decision are the navigation safety, the technical and transport safety, and the safety of the natural environment.

The current situation caused by the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic is related to health security, which is very important for respondents when choosing their future destination, and almost half of the respondents cancelled their planned destination due to the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, so health security is really important for them affecting their decision. We examined whether more of the respondents had cancelled their planned trip due to the pandemic for whom health security was very important when deciding on a destination. Research participants' cancellation of their travel plans due to a pandemic, according to their responses, is not in line with how important health security is to them when choosing a travel destination. The results show that the highest proportion of those (47.1%) gave up their travel plans for whom health security is of medium importance, and the second highest proportion (41.7%) was those who thought it is rather not important. 43% of those who consider health security to be very important gave up their travel plans due to the pandemic, while 38.6% of those who consider it more important.

The relationship between the highest level of education and the importance of the health security factor

We examined whether there is a relationship between how important the health security factor is to respondents and what their highest level of education is. Variance analysis was used for this because this statistical technique can be used to examine the effect of one or more independent variables on one or more dependent variables. In this case, the independent variable is the highest level of education, while the dependent variable is the importance of the health security factor.

Based on the Case Processing Summary table, we were able to include 917 of the 927 respondents in the study.

The following table shows how important health security is for people with different qualifications:

- primary school: For primary school graduates, 4.5455 is the importance of the health security factor, which means it is very important to them overall. Of the 917 individuals, 11 represented this group, with a standard deviation of 0.82020 in their case.
- vocational training, vocational school: In the case of graduates of vocational training and vocational schools, the mean is 4.3352, which means the health security factor is more important for them when traveling for tourism purposes. The standard deviation is similar to the standard deviation of primary school graduates, 0.81612, and 182 people represented this group.
- grammar school, vocational high school: The number of graduates of grammar schools and vocational high schools is 289, and their mean is 4.4118, which means the health security factor is more important for them, and it is more important than for those graduating from vocational training and vocational schools. The standard deviation is lower in their case: 0.74068.
- currently students in higher education: Higher education students have the lowest mean, 4.2237, but health security is also more important to them. 76 people represented this group, with a standard deviation of 0.88842.
- college/university: Most people belong to this group, 357 people. The group mean is 4.5266, which means that the health security factor is very important to them, almost as important as it is for primary school graduates. The standard deviation of the group is the lowest — excluding those who did not respond — only 0.65127.
- do not want to answer: Two respondents did not give the highest level of education, but their mean health security factor was 5, which means that health security is very important to both of them when planning their travel for tourism and deciding on a destination.

Using ANOVA analysis of variance, we tested the null hypothesis of the health security factor with test F, according to which the highest level of education does not affect the importance of the health security factor for the participants when planning their trips for tourism purposes. The table shows that the ratio of intergroup and intragroup squared differences is 3.344 (Table 2). The significance level for test F is 0.005, which is less than 0.05, so we reject the null hypothesis, because the category means are significantly different from each other, so the importance of health security is not the same for people with different educational level. Finally, we examined the closeness of the relationship between the two factors using the eta-square indicator. The values of the indicator vary between 0 and 1, if the values are closer to 0, it means a weaker relationship, while the values closer to 1 mean a stronger relationship. In this case, the value of the eta-square indicator is 0.018, which is very close to zero, so this relationship is not very strong and educational level has little effect on the importance of the health security factor alone.

Table 2 The result of F-test for the null hypothesis of the health security factor (Data source: own research)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
9. When making your travel decision, what do you consider important for your safety in relation to a destination? (Health security (communicable diseases, epidemics, etc.) *5. What is your highest level of education?	Between Groups (Combined)	9.095	5	1.819	3.344	.005
	Within Groups	495.477	911	.544		
	Total	504.571	916			

Relationship between age and importance of security factors

The relationship between age and the importance of each security factor was also examined using analysis of variance. In this case, age was the independent variable, while the dependent variables were individual security factors. For each security factor, the proportion of participants I can include in the analysis differs: 97.2% for the public security factor, 99.4% for the unstable political situation factor, 98.7% for the consumer security factor, 98.5% for the health security factor, 99.6% for safety of natural environment factor, 99.5% for technical and transport safety, and 99.6% for navigation safety. Mean and standard deviation for each age group for different security factors:

- public security: The means in the four age groups studied are very close, the lowest for those aged 31-45 is 4.7262, while the highest is 4.7500 for those aged 46-60. There is not much difference between the variances, so public security is very important for all age groups.
- unstable political situation: The mean for this factor is also very similar for the four age groups, with the lowest for those aged 31-45: 3.9940, and the highest for those aged 18-30: 4.0743. The standard deviations are higher than in the case of the public security factor, the standard deviation is the lowest in the 61-75 age group, and the standard deviations are very similar for the other three age groups. This factor is more important for each group.
- consumer security: Overall, consumer security is also more important for all groups, but here the difference is slightly larger: the lowest mean is 3.7638 for the 18-30 age group, while the highest is 3.9119 for the 61-75 age group. The standard deviation is lowest in the 61-75 age group, and slightly higher in the other three age groups.
- health security: This factor is also more important for all groups, and the means are also close to each other: 4.35 is the lowest mean for the 18–30 age group, and 4.50 is the highest for the 61–75 age group. There is no significant difference between the groups in terms of standard deviations.
- safety of the natural environment: This factor is more important for each group, with the lowest for the 61-75 age group: 3.5385 and the highest for the youngest age group: 3.7822. The standard deviations are relatively high, however, there is no large difference between the groups in terms of standard deviation.
- technical and transport safety: This factor is more important for all groups, where the lowest mean for those aged 31-45 is 3.5119, and the highest mean is 3.7367 for those aged 41-60. The standard deviations are high and there is not much difference between the groups in terms of standard deviations.
- navigation safety: This factor is moderately important for all groups, with no large difference between the means: the lowest for those aged 61–75 years is 3.1827, and the highest for those aged 18–30 years is 3.2871. The standard deviations are high for all groups.

Test F yielded the following results for each factor:

- public security: According to the null hypothesis, age does not affect how important public security is to respondents. The ratio of intergroup and intragroup squared differences is 0.082, and the significance level for the F test is 0.970, which is greater than 0.05, that is the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, as the category means do not differ significantly.
- unstable political situation: According to the null hypothesis, age does not affect how important the unstable political situation is for respondents. The ratio of intergroup and intragroup squared differences is 0.502, and the significance level for the F test is 0.681, which is greater than 0.05, that is the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, as the category means do not differ significantly.
- consumer security: According to the null hypothesis, age does not affect how important consumer security is for respondents. The ratio of intergroup and intragroup squared differences is 0.699, and the significance level for the F test is 0.553, which is greater than 0.05, that is the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, as the category means do not differ significantly.
- health security: According to the null hypothesis, age does not affect how important health security is to respondents. The ratio of intergroup and intragroup squared differences is 1.162, and the significance level for the F test is 0.323, which is greater than 0.05, that is the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, as the category means do not differ significantly.
- safety of the natural environment: According to the null hypothesis, age does not affect how important the safety of the natural environment is for respondents. The ratio of intergroup and intragroup squared differences is 1.868, and the significance level for the F test is 0.133, which is greater than 0.05, that is the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, as the category means do not differ significantly.

- technical and transport safety: According to the null hypothesis, age does not affect how important technical and transport safety is for respondents. The ratio of intergroup and intragroup squared differences is 2.331, and the significance level for the F test is 0.073, which is greater than 0.05, that is the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, as the category means do not differ significantly.
- navigation safety: According to the null hypothesis, age does not affect how important navigation safety is for respondents. The ratio of intergroup and intragroup squared differences is 0.440, and the significance level for the F test is 0.725, which is greater than 0.05, that is the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, as the category means do not differ significantly.

The eta-square indicator is as follows: 0.000 for public security, 0.002 for unstable political situation, 0.002 for consumer security, 0.004 for health security, 0.006 for the safety of natural environment, 0.008 for technical and transport safety, and 0.001 for navigation safety. In all seven cases examined, the value is very close to zero, so the relationship is very, very weak in each case in terms of the relationship between age and individual security factors.

Respondents were then asked who is expected to create the security factor they consider important, whose job it would be to provide it in a destination. Research participants were able to choose from four options, and most of them, three-quarters, believed that it would be up to the public sector to create the security factor. According to 23.1% of the respondents, service providers and entrepreneurs have to take care of the security factor. Only very few of them chose NGOs and local society on this issue.

Relationship between the highest level of education and the respondents' opinion about whose responsibility it is to ensure the health security of tourists

To analyse the relationship between the two factors, I chose the analysis of variance again. In this case, the independent variable was the highest level of education, while the dependent variable was the answer about who is responsible for ensuring health security, according to the respondents. Based on the Case Processing Summary table, I was able to include 99.9% of the research participants in the analysis.

As can be seen in the (Table 3), the lowest mean of 1.5 can be observed for those who did not declare their education, primary school and university, college graduates had similar means, as the means for graduates of vocational schools, vocational training schools, vocational high schools and grammar schools were also similar. The mean is highest for those currently in grammar school. The variances are high in all cases, which means that respondents with the same level of education also differed in whose responsibility they think it is to ensure the health security of tourists.

Table 3 The relationship between educational attainment and whose responsibility it is to ensure the health security of tourists according to the respondents (Data source: own research)

12. Who do you think is responsible for ensuring the health safety of tourists? 5. What is your highest level of education?	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Primary school	2.9091	11	1.86840
Vocational training, vocational school	3.0598	184	1.67649
Grammar school, vocational high school	3.0375	293	1.62450
I am currently a student in higher education	3.2500	76	1.59269
College/University	2.9028	360	1.71962
I do not want to answer	1.500	2	.70711
Total	3.0022	926	1.67203

The null hypothesis in this case is that educational attainment has no effect on whose responsibility respondents consider creating health security for tourists. According to the ANOVA table, the ratio of intergroup and intragroup squared differences is 0.988. The significance level for test F is 0.424, which is greater than 0.05, that is the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, as means do not differ significantly from each other. The value of the eta-square indicator is 0.005, which confirms the result obtained with the help of the ANOVA table, which means there is a very, very weak relationship between the highest level of education and the respondents' opinion about whose responsibility it is to ensure the health security of tourists. The research also examined whether survey participants were more concerned about their health security when planning their trip due to the COVID 19 epidemic than before the epidemic. Based on the results obtained, the majority of respondents are more concerned about health security, however, they have not much more proportion than non-worrying respondents: their ratio is 55.8%, while the proportion of those who are not so concerned is 44.1%.

We also wanted to know who the respondents said was responsible for ensuring the health security of them. Most of them, about a third of respondents (34.6%) believe that this is primarily the responsibility of public organizations and tourism service providers. Approximately the same number of participants consider only public organizations (27.4%) and tourism service providers alone (25.8%) to be responsible, while the joint responsibility of tourism service providers and tourists, as well as the responsibility of tourists, occurred in much smaller proportions: the rate is 9.9% for the former and 2.2% for the latter. Overall, it can be said that almost 90% of the respondents believe that health security should be created by the tourism sector and public organizations - most of them say that the two groups work together.

In the next question, we examined whether the participants complied with the epidemiological standards requested by tourism service providers and what was the reason for their behaviour in this regard. Slightly more than half of the respondents said that they always pay attention to compliance with epidemiological regulations, while a quarter of them only comply with the rules if these are prescribed by public health bodies. An additional 6.1% of respondents also adhere to the restrictions, but they are only motivated to do so to avoid punishment. 6.9% stated that they sometimes follow the regulations and only those that do not cause them any inconvenience. Nearly 10% of respondents do not want to comply with epidemiological regulations, 5.3% of them because they do not believe they can be infected in such a place, while 4.1% of them because they do not think it is their job to comply with epidemiological regulations.

We then asked research participants whether the pandemic situation changed their destination preferences. Respondents were very divided on this issue: for most of them, 38.7%, the pandemic situation has partly changed their destination preferences because they wanted to stay safe. A quarter of them answered with a definite yes, as they wanted to avoid the crowd. The other two options examined were roughly the same: 17.9% want the same as before, so the pandemic situation did not change the preferences of the destination, while 17.7% changed their destination preferences due to the pandemic, however, only because they longed for new excitement. Thus, it is clear from the responses that the majority include those for whom the pandemic situation changed their destination preferences, at least to some extent. We also asked respondents what destinations are now in their plans. Previously, more than one answer could be given to the question on the most typical motivations, but only one to this question. As can be seen in the table, sightseeing is the main motivation for 17.3%, relaxation and recharging for 6.7%, hiking and visiting close-to-nature destinations for 22.9%, while gastronomy for 3.5%. Gaining cultural experiences was mentioned by 9.5%, visiting friends and relatives (VFR) by 5.2%, business trips and participation in conferences by 1.5%, sports and hobbies by 7.4%, while learning and study trips by only 0.2%. 7.8% of respondents stated that their main motivation was to participate in events, 0.8% to use health and beauty service, 4.3% would visit a spa, while the proportion driven by religious motivation was 1.3%, and shopping planners represented 1%.

As can be seen from the answers, the most typical motivation is currently hiking, visiting destinations close to nature - one-fifth of the respondents would travel with this motivation. The other three most common motivations are sightseeing, relaxation, recharging, and gaining cultural experience. In the last question of the questionnaire, I asked the participants about where they plan to travel for tourism related purpose this year: domestically, abroad, both domestically and abroad, or do not plan to travel for tourism related purpose this year. Most respondents, 45% of them, would like to travel domestically and abroad for tourism related purpose this year, while nearly a third (31.2%) do not plan to travel either domestically or abroad for tourism related purpose. 16.9% of the respondents plan domestic destinations, while 6.9% plan foreign destinations.

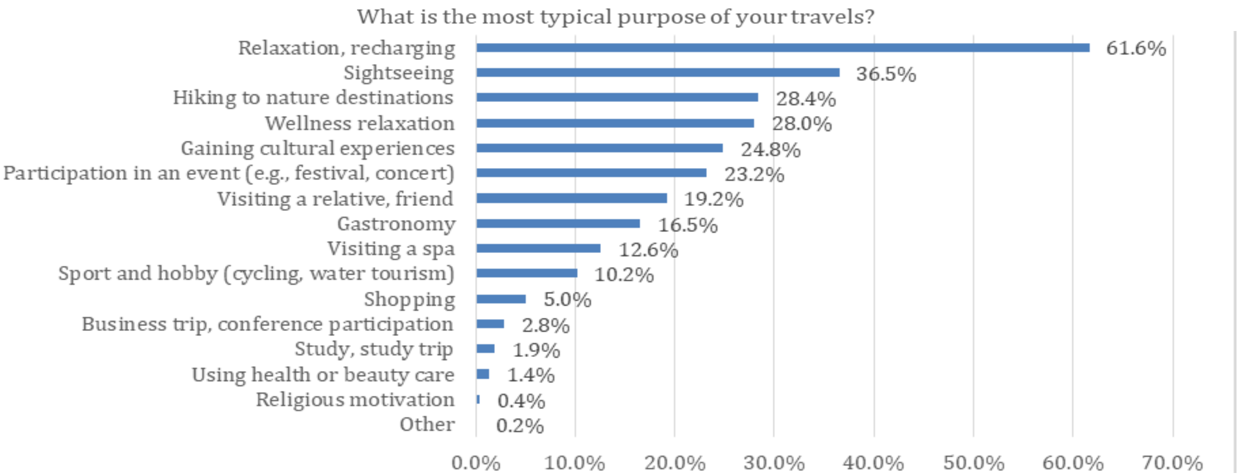

Figure 2. Travel motivations previously characteristic of respondents (Data source: own research)

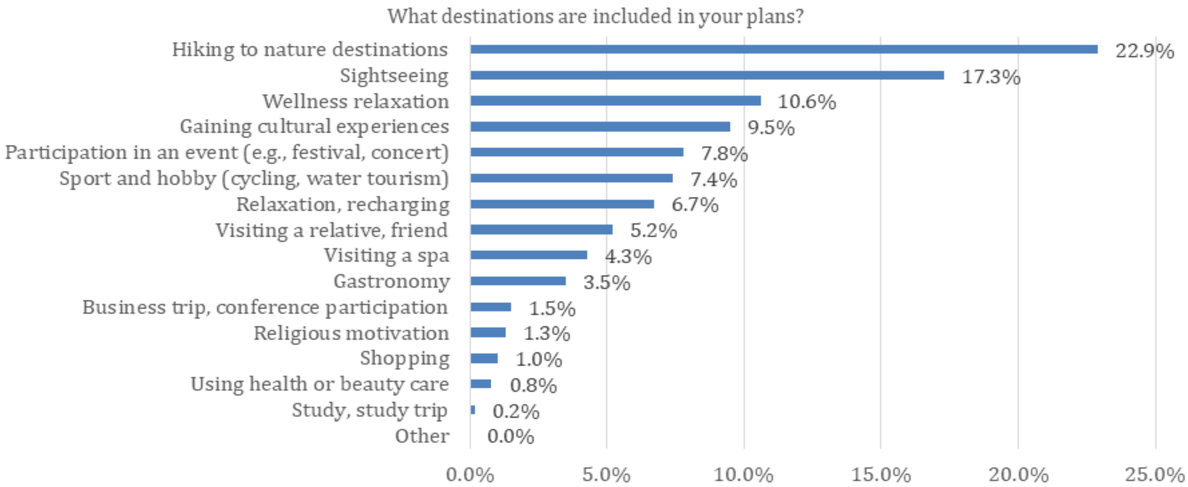

Figure 3. Motivation of survey participants in relation to their planned trip (Data source: own research)

Changes in motivation structure due to the COVID19 epidemic

In the primary research, we examined what is the most typical motivation for respondents' travel and what destination is included in their plans. For the most typical travel destination question, we asked the respondents to choose all the motivations that are true in their case - while for questions about future plans, I examined what the main motivations are for them currently, as they could only choose one answer to this question. As can be seen in Figure 2, for most of them, relaxation and recharging are the main reasons, followed by sightseeing, hiking and close-to-nature destinations, wellness recreation, gaining cultural experiences and participation in events - these destinations were mentioned by at least one-fifth of the respondents as the most typical destination for their travels. The least common destinations are business trips or conferences, learning and study trips, health and beauty services, religious motivation, and other destinations.

And the following chart shows the motivation with which they are currently planning their trip (Figure 3). For most, hiking, close-to-nature destinations appeared as a future plan - while previously this program was only the third most common among respondents. The Covid-19 pandemic can also play a major role in increasing the popularity of hiking and nature destinations, as there are far fewer tourists in nature than in case of sightseeing or relaxing in a wellness hotel, so people who want to travel but changed their plans because of the virus and they want to stay safe will probably choose one of the close-to-nature destinations. Of course, the desire to get rid of long-term confinement contributes to this. In second place, there is sightseeing, with 17.30% planning to do so: this destination was also in second place among the most typical destinations, and it is still in the plans of many. The third most popular program is wellness relaxation, which was in fourth place among the most typical destinations. The first five also include gaining cultural experience and attending events, which are the fifth and sixth places in the list of the most typical destinations.

Relaxation and recharging was the most typical motivation mentioned by 61.60% of respondents, but it is now only ranked seventh - preceded by sports and hobbies in addition to the previous ones. The fewest respondents plan the followings: religiously motivated travel, shopping related trips, using health and beauty services, travelling related to learning or study trips. Respectively, business trip and attending conferences was one of the five most typical destinations so far, but now it was removed from the list for future destinations.The results of the questionnaire thus illustrate that the majority of research participants have an impact on the travel and travel plans of the pandemic, but the proportion of those who cancelled their travel plans is not much higher than that of those who do not, so we cannot state that the pandemic situation prevents respondents from traveling. In terms of security factors, public security is paramount to them, and they believe that public security should be created by the public sector. Health security is the second most important security factor, while the unstable political situation is in third place. Most of the participants in the research adhere to epidemiological regulations at least to some degree, but their motivations are different: some are motivated by their health, and some are motivated to avoid punishment, while there are those who follow only the rules prescribed by health authorities, and there are also those who only follow regulations that are not inconvenient for them.

CONCLUSION

Tourism is a security-sensitive industry, so it is absolutely necessary to constantly monitor the development of security factors and the reactions of tourists, both globally and regionally. The present research showed that there are security factors to which potential travellers are increasingly sensitive, which is not surprising given that most people travel with their family members, so the tourists fear not only their own safety but also the safety of their close relatives. Those wishing to travel do not even see the situation created by the current pandemic as a barrier to traveling. When it comes to security, public safety is considered to be paramount, and the public sector is expected to create it. Health security is only in second place, but the results suggest that the responsibility lies with service providers in this regard. The majority of respondents are willing to cooperate with tourism service providers, but they would only comply with the restrictive measures that health/epidemiological authorities are obliged to impose. It is still not planned to spend the resting and recharging time in a destination different from the previous ones, although they are more interested in close-to-nature destinations. The survey not only pointed out that the issue of security is important for those wishing to travel, but also that health security is a factor which only partially influences the travel decision.

The research provides valuable information to those on the supply side of the tourism sector, as after the lifting of restrictions due to the COVID19 pandemic, when tourism is restarted, service providers will face a new competitive situation. Based on the obtained results, both tourism service providers and destination management organizations can place more emphasis on tourism security and its marketing communication. The COVID-19 epidemic, which became global in 2020, has changed our globalized world, highlighting the fragility of our countries and the world economy. It has shocked people out of their normal way of life, and it is likely to have long-term effects in the future. It is clear that the global impact of the COVID-19 epidemic on tourism (and other industries) cannot yet be determined, not least because many countries are still struggling with the pandemic. This also means that increased attention to health risks is important not only because of the travel of tourists, but also because of the population of the destination.

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Article history: Received: 25.11.2021 Revised: 26.01.2022 Accepted: 16.02.2022 Available online: 14.03.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.302-312
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40136-832

EVALUATION OF ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES IN THE COASTS OF EDREMIT GULF IN TERMS OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

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Citation: Çelik Uğuz, S., Kaimuldinova, K.D., Yildirim, G., & Kabiyev, Y. (2022). EVALUATION OF ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES IN THE COASTS OF EDREMIT GULF IN TERMS OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 302–312. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40136-832

Abstract: In the last half century, while there have been many positive effects in the field of transportation and tourism with the acceleration of the rapidly developing industry, agriculture, service sectors in the global sense, it has been seen that serious environmental problems have arisen in the countries/regions where tourism has developed rapidly. In Turkey, especially on the seacoasts, the unplanned increase in tourism businesses, and the construction of tourism activities in a way that exceeds the carrying capacity have caused environmental problems. In this study, it has been attempted to determine how the environmental issues seen on the shores of Edremit Gulf are perceived by the members of the environmental organizations living in the region. In this context, the members of environmental organizations were asked what the environmental issues in the gulf area, the environmental policies developed for the environmental issues in the gulf, and the environmental protection measures in the gulf were, and the participants were asked to evaluate these protection measures. The coasts of Edremit Gulf, which show a great touristic density especially in the summer months, is one of the most important sea tourism centers of Turkey, which mostly serves domestic tourism. Tourism businesses and tourism activities may bring environmental issues or affect some regional environmental issues negatively. Therefore, in this study, how the representatives of environmental organizations, who are thought to be more sensitive to environmental issues, perceive these issues, and in line with the results obtained, various suggestions for the solutions of these issues are put forward.

Key words: sustainability, sustainable tourism, pollution, edremit gulf, environmental organizations

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INTRODUCTION

The environment, in general terms, is the sum of the physical, chemical, biological, and social factors over a certain time, which can have an indirect or direct effect on human activities and living beings immediately or in a given time. The environment, at the same time, is the set of universal values. Flora and fauna, inanimate objects, the civilization created by humankind up to now and their products also form parts of the environment (Keleş and Hamamcı, 1993). Foreign substances created as a result of human activities in the natural environment cause the issue called "environmental pollution", and these substances damage the existing balance of water, air, and soil by being processed physically, chemically, or mechanically (Akıncı, 1996). The main cause of environmental pollution that is rapidly spreading all over our planet is the industrialization and urbanization that started in the 19th century and developed rapidly. Natural resources began to deplete rapidly in the 20th century, and natural ecosystems also started to be under the influence of intense anthropogenic pressures. The reason for this planet-wide negative ecological change is both the rapid development of science and technology, and the ever-increasing production and consumption needs.

Natural resources and vulnerable ecosystems have been sacrificed in the name of industrialization, urbanization, enrichment, and development. In addition, the use of chemical fertilizers and new agricultural technologies instead of traditional farming methods have also caused serious damage to the natural environment (İlkin ve Alkin, 1991). Pure ecosystems, depleted natural resources, and vulnerable plant and animal species pay the price of industrialization, urbanization, frenzied consumption, and rapid development. In the last half century, with the modernization of agriculture,

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agricultural productivity per hectare has started to increase rapidly, but chemical fertilizers and pesticides that harm the environment have also become widespread. As a result of wrong irrigation policies, some streams, lakes, and marshes started to dry up; As a result of wrong farming methods, thousands of hectares of land started to become unproductive.

The slow death of the Aral Sea, one of the largest lakes in the world, is one of the first ecological disasters that our planet has experienced. In one hand the never-ending increase of human population of the planet, and the increase in anthropogenic and technological pressure on the natural resources in the other, forests and cultivated lands, meadow-pasture and freshwater areas, and plants and animal species per capita are all decreasing rapidly. Our enriching and industrializing planet is paying the price with impoverished ecosystems and swiftly disappearing natural resources (Atasoy, 2015).

In the 1970s, as a result of the increase in environmental pollution deteriorating the ecological balance of the world and human health, a public awareness began to emerge in developed countries for the protection of the environment and the prevention of environmental pollution. The rapid increase in the number of environmental associations, environmental political parties, and non-governmental organizations established especially in developed countries during the 1970-2000 period, as well as the number of articles, papers and books written about the natural environment can be shown as evidence of the increasing interest in the natural environment.

Activities such as “environmental/ecology movements” started to become widespread in this period, especially in the USA and European countries. In parallel with these developments, it was the first time that governments developed common long-term policies against environmental issues, and the first global initiative was carried out with the conference on "Environment and Human" held in Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, incorporated by the United Nations (UN) in 1972. In the following period, the framework of the measures and steps to be taken on a global scale was created with the UN Environment Program. The reflection of this initiative on the European Community was with the Paris Conference, held by the member countries of the community in the same year.

At the Paris Conference, the member countries of the community stated that air, water and soil pollution now threatens human, animal and plant health and decided to establish a community-wide environmental policy. These were followed by other initiatives formed by regional and international institutions and organizations. Planned and long-term environmental policies were established for the first time in industrialized countries in this context (Ekeman, 1998).

With the rapid growth of the transportation and services sectors, industrialization and the increase in the average income of the families, not only the migration waves from rural areas to the cities accelerated, but also the needs for recreational and sport/art activities increased. All these have led to the intensification of domestic and foreign tourism activities on a global scale and tourism becoming an important economic power in the development of nations in the last half century. The swift increase in tourist facilities and tourism activities in some regions has caused some deep environmental issues. In other words, in the last half century, the rapid development of industry, agriculture, transportation and tourism sectors on a global scale has had some positive effects and repercussions, as well as some negative social, economic and ecological ones. In this study, it has been investigated how environmental issues in the coasts of Edremit Gulf, located in the northwest of the Republic of Turkey, are perceived by environmental organization members. Thought to be an interesting example of detecting environmental issues and producing solutions, discussing the environmental sustainability situation in Edremit Gulf adds more of an importance to the research.

SUSTAINABILITY AND ENVIRONMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS FOR DESTINATIONS

Sustainability refers to the power to protect natural resources and to preserve these resources for future generations while meeting today's needs (Collin, 2004: 207). The concept of sustainability is increasingly becoming a part of daily life in various areas of life and development decisions made by human beings. This global trend also affects the field of tourism due to its environmental, economic, social and cultural effects (Kapera, 2018: 581). The fact that tourism activities depend on undisturbed ecosystems and at the same time create a significant human pressure on these ecosystems points to the contradictory situation in the "tourism-natural environment" relations.

Therefore, tourism destinations need both healthy and clean ecosystems, and sustainable tourism planning to a large extent (Vuković et al., 2019). Sustainable tourism planning is an approach that aims to meet the needs of the tourists, improve the living standards of locals, protect the environment, and preserve them for the future generations, and it is possible with the cooperation of stakeholders (Güzeloğlu and Gulc, 2021: 57). Goeldner and Ritchie (2012) categorize stakeholders as local people, regional/national public administration, environmental organizations, domestic and foreign tourists, overnight tourists, sub-sector representatives of tourism enterprises, destination management organizations, cultural heritage groups, and social/health/education groups. Environmental organizations, which have an important place among these stakeholders, implement various practices and policies in protecting the environment and preserving existing resources for future generations. Environmental organizations are establishments that aim to observe, protect and analyze natural environments. At the same time, these organizations produce data and information on the state of certain natural resources and create actions and policies at local, national and global levels to counter the negative environmental consequences of human behavior and processes (Yong, 2017).

The inclusion of environmental organizations as one of the many stakeholders in sustainable destination management is extremely important in providing more sustainable and long-term benefits to the region (Simpson, 2008: 7). Therefore, environmental organizations play a crucial role in ensuring sustainability of tourism. These roles include meeting the expectations of local people and tourists, protecting nature and the cultural environment, raising environmental awareness, local/regional/international environmental regulations, and green activities (Kennedy and Dornan, 2009: 188; Malik et al., 2020: 2). Researches also emphasize that environmental organizations have an important place in sustainable destination management. In one study, Finnetty (2001) put forward that environmental organizations on various environmental protection issues in Belize, a Central American country, are a key factor not only in the tourism sector, but also in the development of the country. Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydın (2010) emphasized in their study that environmental organizations act as a bridge in sustainable tourism management and that cooperation with other tourism actors is necessary for the continuity of this development. Here, environmental organizations are the most important components of sustainable destination management in terms of increasing responsible production and consumption, protecting the environment and its inhabitants, and preserving them for the future (Khan et al., 2020: 4).

There are many environmental organizations and various activities carried out by these organizations in the world and in Turkey. Sustainable Destination Council's (SDC); "Tourism For Tomorrow Awards and the United Nations Environment Program (UNEP), World Travel and Tourism Council's (WTTC); Climate and Environment Action, Future of Work and Destination Management projects, World Tourism Organization's (UNWTO); the Tourism and Sustainability Committee (CTS) is an example of these global organizations and their activities. In Turkey, the Blue Flag Program carried out by the Turkish Environmental Education Foundation (TÜRÇEV), the Environmental Awareness Campaign (Green Star) of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, the ATAK project and the TÜRSAB - UNDP Sustainable Tourism Cooperation can be cited as examples for national organizations and their activities.

EDREMIT GULF

Edremit Gulf, located in the northwest of Turkey, is in the northeast of the Aegean Sea coasts, between the cities of Balıkesir and Çanakkale. Being one of the three largest gulfs of Turkey in terms of surface area, Edremit is connected to the Aegean Sea by the Müsellim Strait in the northwest and the Dikili Strait in the south. If we look at the natural borders of the gulf, we can see that it starts with Cape Baba, which is known as the westernmost point of Turkey, and ends with Ayvalık-Sarımsaklı in the south. In terms of administrative geography, coasts of Edremit Gulf are located within the borders of Ayvacık in Çanakkale, and Ayvalık, Burhaniye, Edremit, Gömeç, and Havran in Balıkesir (Figure 1). These provinces are also important coastal destinations and are places where domestic tourism demand is high, especially in summer. Located within the triangle of Çanakkale, Balıkesir and İzmir, the Edremit Gulf region stands out with its geographical location close to historical and cultural tourism centers such as Troy, Assos, Pergamon, Ephesus and Ayvalık. When the geographical, economic, and ecological characteristics of the 5 districts of Balıkesir province that have a coast on the Edremit Gulf are examined, the Mediterranean climate is experienced along the coastline, it is in an advantageous position in terms of transportation networks (land, sea, air, and railway), and the local economic structure depends on olive cultivation, olive oil production, trade, and tourism. Edremit Gulf, located between Mount Ida and Madra Mountains, and known for its olive oil production, has been known as the "valley of the winds" since ancient times. On the shores of Edremit Gulf, holiday resorts, olive groves, commercial areas, hotels, cultivated lands, and residential areas are merely intertwined. For this reason, it can be said that there is competition between the agriculture, tourism, and trade sectors in the gulf coasts in terms of financial resources and economic investment. Assos, Altınoluk, Küçükkuyu, Güre, Akçay on the northern shores of the heavily populated gulf, and Burhaniye, Ören, Gömeç, Karaağaç and Ayvalık on the southern shores are the main settlements of the area (Figure 1).

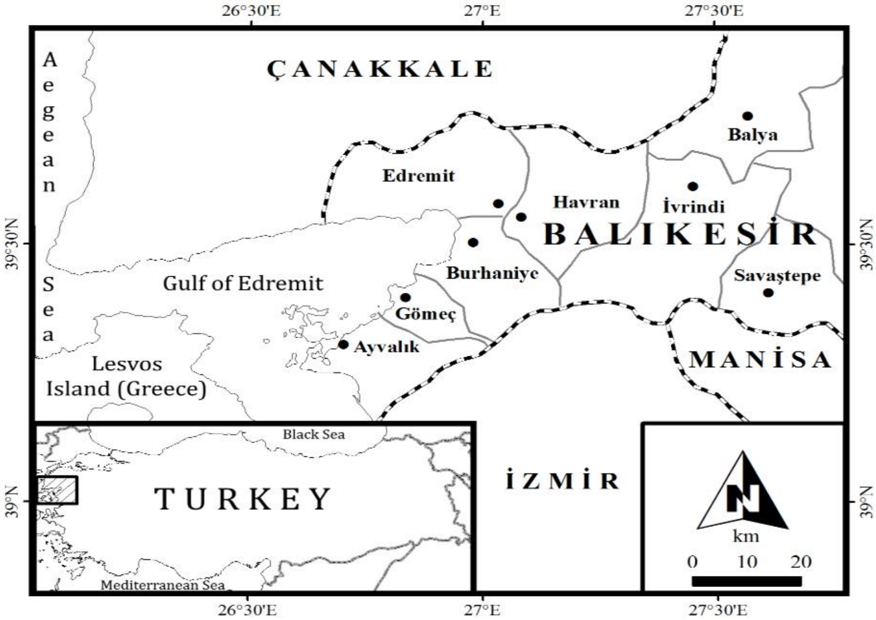

Figure 1. Geographic Location of Edremit Gulf Region (Source: Compiled by the authors)

Edremit Gulf region has a rich natural environment with its natural vegetation, endemic plant diversity, maquis species, forests containing various tree species, valleys, plains, thermal springs, and olive groves. Edremit-Mount Ida National Park (900 plant species), Ayvalık Islands Nature Park (752 plant species) Mount Ida Fir Nature Reserve, Madra Mountain (400 plant species) have unique ecosystems in terms of vegetation. Mound Ida National Park, Mount Ida Fir Protection Area, Darıdere Nature Park, Madra Mountain, Kozak Plateu, Ayvalık Islands Nature Park, Sarımsaklı Nature Park and Wildlife Development Areas are the main nature protection areas in the Edremit Gulf region (Figure 2). "Ayvalık-Şeytan Sofrası" and "Karakoç Stream" are Wetlands of Local Importance, and they have rich flora and fauna diversity. Also there are many streams and freshwater bodies in the gulf region, as well as rich, healing waters beneficial for human health. The coasts of Edremit Gulf attracts thousands of tourists every year with its natural forests, canyon valleys, waterfalls, and gulf shores, as well as monumental trees, beaches, and interesting geomorphological formations. The Edremit Gulf coasts have a rich historical and cultural heritage, and also have many cultural attractions with its historical buildings, museums and archaeological remains, rich architectural and folkloric items, traditional cultural artifacts, and colorful festivals.

According to the Address Based Population Registration System data, the total population of 5 districts in Edremit Gulf in 2020 is 337,871. The largest and most populous district of the Gulf is Edremit with a population of 161,145, while the district with the smallest population is Gömeç with a population of 15,207 (2). With its coastline of 291 kilometers, Edremit Gulf is the most important center of Balıkesir sea tourism. Balıkesir, with a population of 1.2 million people in the winter months, goes up to 3 million in the summer months thanks to tourism (Güney Marmara Kalkınma Ajansı, 2021). Although there is no clear statistical data on the number of secondary residences in the Edremit Gulf area, it is stated that this number is approximately 130,000 only in Edremit province (Avcıkurt et al., 2018: 532). It is claimed that the number of secondary residences in Ayvalık is around 60,000 (3). It is stated that there are 7,177 secondary residences in the Pelitköy district of Burhaniye (Ceylan and Somuncu, 2020: 495).

According to the statistics of the Balıkesir Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism's accommodation facilities with operating certificates for 2020, a total of 49 accommodation facilities with touristic operation certificates operate in Edremit Gulf. 23 of these facilities are located in Ayvalık district, 19 in Edremit distrct, 6 in Burhaniye district, 1 in Gömeç district, and there no facilities with operation certificates in Havran district (Balıkesir İl Kültür ve Turizm Müdürlüğü, 2021). Thus, it is seen that the accommodation facilities with operating certificates are mostly concentrated in Edremit and Ayvalık districts. In addition, according to the municipality and operation certified accommodation statistics of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism for 2020, the total number of overnight stays in Edremit Gulf (Ayvalık, Burhaniye, Edremit, Gömeç) in 2020, including domestic and foreign tourists, is 1,316,193 despite Covid-19. In Balıkesir this figure is 1,977,944 province, wide, and Edremit Gulf Coasts with 66.5% ranks first (Kültür ve Turizm Bakanlığı, 2021). As can be seen, the Edremit Gulf Coasts, with its natural and cultural attractions, is the busiest and most popular touristic region of Balıkesir with its accommodation facilities and the number of tourists.

OBJECTIVE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE RESEARCH

In this study, it has been attempted to determine how the environmental issues seen on the shores of Edremit Gulf are perceived by the members of the environmental organizations living in the region. In this context, the members of environmental organizations were asked what the environmental issues in the gulf area, the environmental policies developed for the environmental issues in the gulf, and the environmental protection measures in the gulf were, and the participants were asked to evaluate these protection measures. The coasts of Edremit Gulf, which show a great touristic density especially in the summer months, is one of the most important sea tourism centers of Turkey, which mostly serves domestic tourism. Tourism businesses and tourism activities may bring environmental issues or affect some regional environmental issues negatively. Therefore, in this study, how the representatives of environmental organizations, who are thought to be more sensitive to environmental issues, perceive these issues, and in line with the results obtained, various suggestions for the solutions of these issues are put forward.

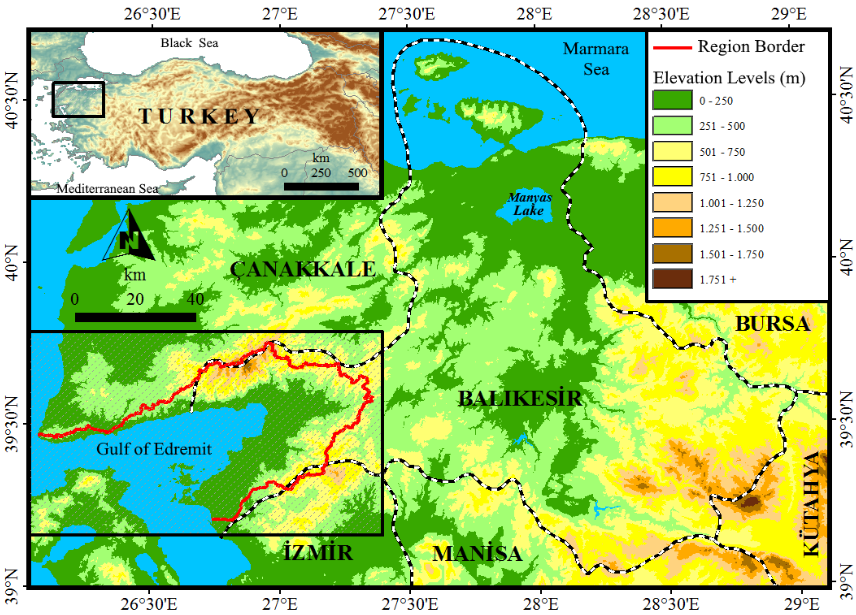

Figure 2. Physical Map of Edremit Gulf Region (Source: Compiled by the authors)

RESEARCH METHOD

In the study, it was attempted to determine the perceptions of 6 environmental organization representatives on environmental issues, operating in 5 provinces (Ayvalık, Burhaniye, Edremit, Gömeç, and Havran) located within the borders of Balıkesir and also on the coast of Edremit Gulf. For this purpose, one of the most suitable methods for in-depth information gathering, qualitative research method was used. It is possible to define qualitative research as "a research in which qualitative data collection techniques such as observation, interview, and document analysis are used; Perceptions and events are revealed in a realistic and holistic way in their natural environment" (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2008).

In the researches designed with the qualitative method, there is an effort to reach a deep understanding of the subject and the issues are analyzed in isolation from the ethos in which it was formed and developed. In addition, the network of relations that dominate the situations is attempted to be interpreted in its natural environment or to be revealed of their meanings (Neuman, 2012). In this study, the perceptions and thoughts of the participants, who constitute the sample of the research, were attempted to be determined. The study aims to collect data on what individuals think about the process, and data on existing perceptions (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2008). To collect the data, the techniques of interview and examination of written materials were used. The improbable purposive sampling method was used in this study. Therefore, in the selection of the participants, it was examined whether they were related to the research subject rather than their power to represent the population (Neuman, 2012). Convenience sampling was chosen from the purposive sampling methods. Representatives of 6 environmental organizations in Edremit Gulf were included in the study.

Table 1. Socio-Demographic Information about the Study Group

Code of Environme. Organization	Founding Year of Environmental Organization	Number of Members of Environmental Organization	Age of Participant	Educational Background of Participant	Sex of Participant
EO1	2010	20 corporate and individual volunteer participants	40 and older	Undergraduate	Female
EO2	2017	3500	40 and older	Secondary education	Male
EO3	2017	143	40 and older	Postgraduate	Male
EO4	2019	3	40 and older	Postgraduate	Female
EO5	2018	1354	40 and older	Secondary education	Male
EO6	2012	470	40 and older	Undergraduate	Female

The identification of these environmental organizations is not specified in the study because of ethics. Each of the environmental organization representatives was given a code (EO1, EO2......EO6). Socio-demographic information about the study group is given in Table 1. Due to the restrictions applied due to the Covid-19 pandemic at the time of data collection (10.01.2021 - 20.08.2021), some of the interviews were made over the phone, and an on-line interview form was sent to some participants. Telephone interviews lasted an average of half an hour, and the interviews were noted down. The interview technique is a powerful method in revealing perceptions, but supporting the data obtained in the interviews with written documents increases the validity and reliability of the research (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2008). At the same time, activity reports of the workshop, meeting, etc. of the relevant environmental organizations were also examined. The researcher who is responsible for conducting the interviews lives in the research area and this researcher has a certain level of contact with the interviewees. It is thought that this situation allows the participants to answer the questions sincerely in the data collection stage. In order to carry out the research in accordance with its purpose and to understand the concepts related to the subject correctly, an environmental issues literature review was conducted. During the analysis phase, the relevant literature was used while creating themes (Li et al., 2009; Akıncı, 1996; Keleş, 2015; Bayramoğlu et al., 2014). The data obtained at the end of the research were subjected to content analysis. Content analysis required a closer examination of the obtained data and reaching the concepts and themes that explain this data (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2008). In addition, in the content analysis, the data that were found to be similar and related to each other were brought together and interpreted within the framework of certain concepts and themes (Altunışık et al., 2010).

FINDINGS

This study attempts to determine how the environmental issues seen on the coasts of Edremit Gulf are percieved by the members of the environmental organizations living in the region. In this context, environmental organization representatives were asked about the environmental issues in the gulf. In line with the answers received, environmental issues in Edremit Gulf are categorized as water pollution, air pollution, noise (sound) pollution, aesthetic pollution (visual pollution), waste problem, use of natural resources, ecological deterioration, land use problems, coastal use, green area losses. There are three themes in water pollution category. These are the factors that cause water pollution, the types of these factors and the affected areas. According to the data obtained from the participants, it has been revealed that the causes of water pollution are mines (iron, copper, molybdenum and gold mines), quarries, factories, landfills, debris, pesticides, wastes, inadequate treatment facilities and geothermal waters.

It has been stated that the waters of Madra Stream and Karakoç Stream are polluted due to the iron ore enrichment works in Karaayıt village. Participants such as EO2, EO4 and EO6 emphasized that a gold mine has the potential to contaminate all surface and underground water resources in Madra Mountain. It has been shown that the water coming from Eybek Mountain and flowing in the fountains in the city is polluted for various reasons, and the copper and molybdenum mine in Tepeoba, located on the route, is the reason for this. It was stated by some participants that olive pomace oil[1] and small industrial factory wastes pollute the streams and sea waters in some parts of the Edremit Gulf (EO1, EO2, EO4). According to the information obtained from the participants, the wastes that cause water pollution are categorized as domestic wastes, wastes of sea transportation vehicles, sewage wastes and industrial wastes.

According to the information obtained from the participants, the factors causing air pollution in Edremit Gulf were categorized as factories, burning coal and olive pomace oil in winter, gold mine operations, thermal power plants, exhaust gases and fires (landfill and forest fires). Some of the participants stated that there is air pollution from olive oil factories in some regions in Edremit Gulf and that the residential areas near these factories are affected by this (Table 3). Some participants stated that the coal and olive pomace oil burned in the winter had a negative impact on some residential areas (EO1, EO3, EO6). In addition, it was stated that the gold mine operations in the region caused air pollution and the families living in the villages close to the mine site were adversely affected, especially in terms of productivity, due to the dust from the works in the mine area (EO2, EO6). In addition, it has been revealed that air pollution (smoke and ash) originates from the thermal power plant in the neighboring province. It was stated by some participants

[1] **Olive pomace oil** is obtained from olives. It is obtained by refining the olive oil remaining in the olive pomace with chemical solvents and other different chemical processes after the first pressed natural extra virgin oil is obtained from olives. Olive pulp (pomace) is a by-product of the extra virgin olive oil production process. Olive oil is squeezed by cold pressing method, and olive pomace oil is squeezed by hot pressing method (http://www.selinyag.com.tr/79_pirina-yagi-rafine-prina-yagi)

that during the summer period, population growth problems caused by tourism activities and air pollution caused by exhaust gas, landfill and forest fires also create negative environmental consequences (Table 3).

Table 2. Water Pollution on the Coasts of Edremit Gulf

	Causes	Type	Affected Areas	Environmental Organization
Water Pollu-tion	Mines	Iron Ore Enrichment (BİLFER) (Karaayıt Village)	Madra Stream Karakoç Stream	EO1, EO4, EO6
		Gold Mine	Madra Mountain	EO2, EO4, EO6
		Copper and Molybdenum Mine	Water coming from Eybek Mountain and flowing out of taps in the city	EO5, EO6
	Quarries		Underground and surface waters	EO1, EO2
	Factories	Slow flowing water left by the Olive Pomace Factories	Nikita Stream - Gömeç	EO1, EO4
		Small industrial factories	Streams and seas	EO2, EO4
	Landfills		Underground and surface waters	EO1
				EO1
	Random Disposal of Debris		Underground and surface waters	EO1
	Pesticide Use		Underground and surface waters	EO1, EO6
	Waste	Domestic Waste	Sea	EO2, EO6, EO4
		Marine transportation vehicle waste	Sea	EO6, EO1
		Sewage Waste	Streams and seas	EO6, EO1
		Industrial Waste (Animal and Factory Waste)	Sea, Havran Stream	EO2, EO4, EO6
	Inadequacy of Waste Treatment Facilities		Underground and surface waters	EO3
	Geothermal Waters		Streams	EO3

Table 3. Air Pollution on the Coasts of Edremit Gulf

	Causes	Affected Areas	Environmental Organization
Air Pollu-tion	Factories	Residential areas near olive oil factories	EO1, EO5
	Burning Coal and Olive Pomace Oil in Winter	Residential areas, especially Küçükkuyu	EO1, EO3, EO6
	Gold Mine Operations	Plateaus and villages close to mining sites	EO2, EO6
	Thermal Power Plant	Residential areas near Thermal Power Plant	EO3
	Exhaust Gas (Summer season population)	Gulf coast settlements	EO6
	Fires (Landfill and Forest Fires)	Gulf coast settlements	EO6, EO3

Table 4. Noise (Sound) Pollution on the Coasts of Edremit Gulf

	Causes	Environmental Organization
Noise Pollu-tion	Loud music in entertainment venues	EO1, EO6
	Loud music in accommodation establishments	EO1
	Loud music and noise from recreational crafts	EO1
	Horns of motor vehicles in traffic	EO1, EO6
	Loud music from cars and passenger vans	EO1, EO5, EO6
	Loud shouting of peddlers	EO1
	Motorcycle noise	EO5
	Roaming of trucks and heavy tonnage vehicles in the city	EO5

Table 5. Aesthetic Pollution/Visual Pollution on the Coasts of Edremit Gulf

	Causes	Environmental Organization
Aesthetic Pollution/ Visual Pollution	Advertising and workplace signs	EO1, EO6
	Allowing tall buildings on the coastline	EO1, EO6
	Power lines passing through residential areas	EO1
	Neglected visual of public and local administration buildings	EO1
	Garbage containers	EO1
	Parking lots in residential areas	EO1
	Unplanned urbanization near the ancient city of Adramytteion	EO2
	Slums and unplanned structuring	EO2, EO3
	Random parking in the streets due to the lack of parking lots	EO5
	Disordered sales stands set up on the streets in summer	EO6

Table 6. Waste Issue on the Coasts of Edremit Gulf

	Causes	Environmental Organization
Was-te Issue	Discharge of waste into the sea	EO1
	No separation and no recycling in garbage collection	EO1, EO4, EO6
	Uncontrolled discharge of bilge wastes from fishing boats	EO1
	Sewer leaks	EO1, EO3
	Insufficiency of liquid waste sewers and collectors	EO3
	Mixing of sewer and rainwater conduits	EO3
	Solid wastes being collected without separation and transported by trucks to the city center	EO3
	Failure to rehabilitate old landfills	EO3, EO6
	Constant fires in old landfills	EO3, EO6
	Waste management issue	EO4, EO6
	Stacking of industrial wastes on the soil in the open area and slow flowing water from olive production being left unfiltered in the channels	EO4
	Inadequate central wastewater treatment plant despite population growth	EO4
	Dumping debris by the local government to wetlands with high bird populations	EO4

According to the information obtained from the representatives of environmental organizations participating in the research, it has been revealed that noise pollution in residential areas in Edremit Gulf is caused by the noise coming from entertainment venues, accommodation establishments, recreational crafts, and motor vehicles, and sometimes the shouting of peddlers. Participants put forward various factors that cause aesthetic/visual pollution in Edremit Gulf. These are advertising and workplace signs, tall buildings along the coastline, power lines, neglected public and local administration buildings, garbage containers, unplanned urbanization, unplanned buildings near some ancient cities, random car parking in streets and disordered sales stands. Some participants stated that power lines that are not underground cause visual pollution (Table 5).

Participants stated that there are various waste problems in residential areas in Edremit Gulf. One participant (EO1) stated that wastes are discharged into the sea especially in central neighborhoods of Ayvalık. Some participants, on the other hand, claimed that industrial wastes were piled up on the soil in the open area in Gömeç in the gulf, the slow flowing water from olive production was left unfiltered in the channels (EO4), and there was no separation and recycling in garbage collection (EO1, EO4, EO6). It has been suggested by some participants that there is a waste management problem in Gömeç (EO4). Some participants stated that the bilge wastes of the boats are thrown into the sea in an uncontrolled manner in Edremit Gulf, there are sewage leaks in some places, and the liquid waste sewers and collectors are insufficient (EO1). Other waste problems expressed by the participants (EO3, EO6) are the mixing of sewer and rainwater conduits, the collection of solid wastes without separation and transporting them with trucks to the city center, the failure to rehabilitate old landfills, and the constant fires in old landfills (Table 6). One participant (EO4) claimed that despite the rapid population growth, the central wastewater treatment plant was insufficient and the wetlands with high bird population were used as debris dumping sites by the local government. Participants interviewed within the scope of the research claimed that there are some issues related to the use of natural resources. One participant (EO1) stated that the unsensible use of pesticides and artificial fertilizers in agricultural areas caused soil pollution, and excessive irrigation in agricultural areas led to salinization of the soil and increased PH value (Table 7). This participant also stated that the presence of prospecting areas in water basins causes the waters to be under the threat of exposure to heavy metals, and the storage of the waste from the mines in the pasture areas brings the invasion of the pasture areas. It is stated in the issues related to the use of natural resources that uncontrolled fishing in the seas causes the deterioration of marine ecology. It has been argued by some participants that the zoning of olive fields, pastures and other agricultural areas to structuring leads to the destruction of green areas, while man-made fires in Nature Parks and forest lands, and the zoning of registered wetlands to housing and settlement leads to the destruction of natural areas (Table 7).

Table 7. Use of Natural Resources on the Coasts of Edremit Gulf

	Causes	**Conclusion**	**Environmental Organization**
Use of Natural Resources	Unsensible use of pesticides and artificial fertilizers in agricultural areas	Soil contamination	EO1
	Excessive irrigation in agricultural areas	Salinization of the soil and increase in PH value	EO1
	Prospecting areas in water basins	Heavy metal exposure threat to waters	EO1
	Storing the waste from the mines in the pasture areas	Invasion of pasture areas	EO1
	Pollution of sea waters	The salt of the facility, which obtains it from the sea, beginning to smell	EO1
	Wild hunting in the seas (tripang)	Disruption of marine ecology	EO1
	Zoning olive fields, pastures and other agricultural areas for structuring	Destroying green areas	EO1, EO2, EO4
	Man-made fires in Nature Park and forest lands	Destruction of natural areas	EO1
	Zoning of registered wetlands to housing and settlement	Destruction of natural areas	EO2

Participants claimed that ecological degradation had some negative consequences. One participant (EO1) stated that foreign (invasive) species have been detected in the seas, sea grass, shellfish, and red corals that maintain marine ecology are endangered due to marine pollution, the plant pattern has changed due to agricultural policies, the yield of the stone pines in the region has decreased considerably, and the covered olive green areas are under threat due to structuring. Another participant (EO3) argued that Wind Power Plants (WPP) were built in forest lands, dams disrupted the local climate balance and humidity, and the extensions of the Mount Ida ecosystem on the coasts, the reeds, were destroyed.

Table 8. Ecological Deterioration on the Coasts of Edremit Gulf

	Types	**Environmental Organization**
Ecological Deterioration	Sea grass, shellfish and red corals that maintain marine ecology are endangered due to marine pollution	EO1
	Foreign (invasive) species detected in the seas	EO1
	The yield of stone pines in the region has decreased considerably	EO1
	Vegetation pattern has changed due to agricultural policies	EO1
	Covered olive green areas are under threat due to structuring	EO1
	The dams considered in the region increase the annual average temperature by 2-3 degrees	EO1
	Wild irrigation is happening in agricultural areas	EO1
	Destruction of the extensions of the Mount Ida ecosystem on the coasts, the reeds.	EO3
	Dams disrupt the local climate balance and humidity	EO3
	Construction of Wind Power Plants (WPP) in forest lands	EO3
	Increasing number of mining operations in mountainous areas	EO3
	Bat species are at risk of extinction due to the disturbance during the construction phase of Havran Dam	EO5

It was also stated by another participant (EO5) that bat species are at risk of extinction due to the disturbance during the construction phase of Havran Dam. In line with the information obtained from the participants, it has been emerged that there are some land use issues in the gulf region.

These are the increase in structuring due to the increase in the population of the city, the division of agricultural lands into small pieces and the loss of production value of agricultural areas, the use of sea coasts as land arrangements, the structuring that is not suitable for earthquakes and the granting of high-rise zoning permits for areas with soil liquefaction, fault lines not being processed on the current zoning plans, olive grove areas in the form of construction and settlement (Table 9). Other land use issues are open pit mines and quarries not being rehabilitated when they are abandoned, housing built on archaeological remains, a Prospecting Pool built on archaeological remains, the ancient city in the village of Havran Tepeoba being invaded by treasure hunters and being in danger of disappearance, the zoning of agricultural areas, forests and pastures to construction, mining and energy investments.

Table 9. Land Use Issues on the Coasts of Edremit Gulf

	Types	Environmental Organization
Land Use Issues	The increase in structuring due to the increase in the urban population	EO1, EO6
	Division of agricultural lands into small pieces and loss of production value of agricultural lands	EO1, EO3
	The use of coasts in the form of land arrangements	EO2
	Granting high-rise zoning permits for buildings that are not suitable for earthquakes and for soil liquefaction	EO3
	Failure to process fault lines on current zoning plans	EO3
	Zoning olive groves to housing and settlement	EO3, EO6
	Failure to rehabilitate abandoned open pit mines and quarries	EO3
	Housing on archaeological remains	EO3
	Construction of the Prospecting Pool on the archaeological remains	EO3
	The ancient city in the village of Havran Tepeoba being under the invasion of treasure hunters and being in danger of disappearance	EO5, EO6
	Zoning of agricultural areas, forests and pastures to construction, mining and energy investments	EO6

Table 10. Coastal Use Issues on the Coasts of Edremit Gulf

	Issues	Environmental Organization
Coastal Use	Frequent filling of coastlines to increase settlement area	EO1
	Actions and unplanned structuring disrupting the coastlines	EO1
	Decreased quality of life due to increased migration to coastal cities	EO1, EO6
	Allocating the beaches to private property and preventing the public from benefiting from the coasts	EO6
	Structuring that does not fit the coastline	EO6
	Inadequacy of the open to public areas with infrastructure towards public need	EO6

Table 11. Green Area Losses on the Coasts of Edremit Gulf

	Issues	Location	Environmental Organization
Green Area Losses	Fires caused by humans or electric wires	Ayvalık Islands Nature Park and Madra Mountain	EO1
	Logging done by mining and quarry companies in the region	Gulf	EO1
	Zoning of high quality olive lands for housing	Gulf	EO3
	Destroying calabrian pine forests to make olive groves	Gulf	EO3
	Concretion in coastlines and destruction of green areas	Coastlines	EO3
	Pollution and zoning of old pastures	Gulf	EO3, EO6
	Damage done by the gold/copper mines and quarries to agricultural lands	Havran and its surroundings	EO5, EO6
	Due to the increase in WPPs, the villagers being disturbed and leaving the agricultural and arable fields	Kocadağ (Hacımahmutlar settlement), Karalar Village, Eybek Mountain	EO5
	Very few areas allocated to green areas in zoning regulations		EO6

Representatives of environmental organizations participating in the research claimed that there are some issues related to coastal use in Edremit Gulf (Table 10). These are the frequent use of fillings of coastlines to increase settlement and economic areas, the actions and unplanned structuring that disrupt the coastline texture, the decrease in the quality of life due to the increase in migration to coastal cities, the allocation of beaches to private property and the prevention of people's use of the coasts, the structuring that does not comply with the coastline, and the inadequacy of the open to public areas with infrastructure towards public need. Participants stated that some activities carried out in the gulf region cause green area losses (Table 11). These activities include fires caused by humans or electric wires, logging done by mines and quarries in the region, the zoning of very high quality olive lands for housing, the destruction of calabrian pine forests to open new olive groves, concretion and ugly structuring in coastlines, pollution and zoning of old pasture lands, the damage done by the gold/copper mines and quarries to agricultural lands, villagers being disturbed due to the increase in WPPs and leaving agricultural and arable fields, and very few areas allocated to green areas in zoning regulations. Participants were asked to evaluate environmental policies developed for environmental issues in the gulf, if there were any. One of the participants (EO5) did not want to answer this question. 4 participants stated that there was no policy developed, but non-governmental organizations made an effort regarding this issue (Table 12).

Table 12. Environmental Policies Developed for Environmental Issues on the Coasts of Edremit Gulf

Environmental policies developed for environmental issues in the Gulf	Yes	No	Trying Institution	Type
EO1		+	Non-Governmental Organization	Mount Ida and Madra Workshop
EO2		+		
EO3	+			Local governments and central institutions have separate environmental policies. There is no coordination.
EO4		+		
EO6		+	Non-Governmental Organizations	

One participant stated that local governments and central institutions and organizations have separate environmental policies for environmental issues in the gulf, but there is no coordination. The participants were asked about the environmental studies they have done in Edremit Gulf and what their solution proposals were for environmental issues. One of the participants (EO4) did not answer this question. Environmental organization members participating in the research organized various workshops and conferences, developed projects, prepared scientific reports, conducted environmental trainings and various activities in cooperation with various institutions to solve environmental issues. It was emphasized that instead of making efforts separately for the provinces in the gulf for the solution of environmental issues, the environmental issues of all provinces should be resolved as a unit, with a common mind.

Table 13. Studies on Environmental Issues on the Coasts of Edremit Gulf

	Environmental Organization	Studies
Studies on Envi-ronment	EO1	• First and Second Mound Ida Workshops • Madra Mountain Workshop • Zero Waste Project • Climate Change Project • Red Corals Project • Ayvalık Islands Nature Park • Sustainable Energy Workshop • Environmental Cleaning with National Education Schools and Ayvalık Municipality • Increasing Ecological Culture and Environmental Education in Schools • Forest Fire Prevention Training
	EO2	We organize panels, scientific meetings, walks on days such as 22 March World Water Day, 5 June World Environment Day. We are trying to prepare reports on ecological problems in our region. Especially in recent years, we have started to act together with all environmental organizations in Edremit Gulf and to establish a communication network. We are trying to solve the issues with a common mind with unity.
	EO3	In May 2018, we prepared our joint report titled "Our Opinions and Suggestions Regarding the Edremit Gulf Issues" for the Marine and Coastal Workshop; In July 2018, we organized the "Edremit's Environmental Issues and Solution Proposals" conference; In February 2019, we organized the "Edremit Gulf Environmental Plans and Policies" conference with the Chamber of Geological Engineers; In January 2019, we prepared a very detailed "Environmental Local Government Declaration"; As a result of a massive petition campaign for the coordination of the Gulf Master Plan and institutions, we ensured that the first "Gulf Environment and Climate Change Workshop" was held, Now we await the final report and the second and third workshops.
	EO5	We are trying to raise public awareness by organizing protests and petitions for the gold mines around us, together with our immediate environmental groups. In 2019, we started a petition in Havran marketplace on Friday, 2 August to make our voices heard against the Büyükşapçı Demirtepe gold mine operators in Havran center. As a result, we were informed that the project was canceled by the ministry. In the same year, we organized an environmental and cultural tour for 75 people with groups operating in Edremit Gulf in order to see the negative effects of the mines around us more closely.
	EO6	They organize workshops, panels, conferences, prepares reports, and file lawsuits on environmental issues. They conduct social media campaigns to raise awareness. They organize an Eco-Festival every year with a selected theme.

CONCLUSION

With the industrialization in Turkey, internal migration from rural areas to cities has accelerated in the last half century, unhealthy urbanization and rapidly increasing urban population have led people to more touristic activities. The intensification of tourism activities on the coastlines has caused some environmental issues in these regions. In this study that examines how the environmental issues experienced on the coasts of Edremit Gulf are perceived by the representatives of environmental organizations, it has been revealed that there are deficiencies in the practices in the solution of environmental issues, although there are various regulations regarding environmental issues (Ekeman, 1998; Arat, 1998).

The fact that those who negatively affect the environment and those will protect the environment are both humans, constitutes one of the biggest difficulties of environmental issues (Keleş, 1994: 279). The data obtained from the study show that the main causes of environmental issues are industrialization, urbanization, wrong land use, technological developments and rapid increase in touristic activities. Environmental issues on the shores of Edremit Gulf include water pollution, air pollution, noise (sound) pollution, aesthetic pollution (visual pollution), waste issue, use of natural resources, ecological deterioration, land use issues, wrong coastal use and loss of green areas. Mining activities, quarries, factories, landfills, debris, pesticides, domestic and industrial wastes, inadequacy of treatment facilities, geothermal waters are among the main causes of water pollution in the region. Factors causing air pollution are factories, burning coal and olive pomace oil in winter, gold mines, thermal power plants, exhaust gases from motor vehicles, and fires. It has been revealed that noise pollution in residential areas in Edremit Gulf is caused by loud music coming from entertainment venues, accommodation establishments, recreational crafts, and cars, vehicle horns in traffic, the noise coming from motorcycles, trucks, and heavy tonnage vehicles, and shouting of peddlers.

Participants suggested various factors that cause aesthetic/visual pollution in the gulf. These are advertising and workplace signs, high-rise buildings on the coastline, power lines, neglected public and private administration buildings, garbage containers, unplanned urbanization, unplanned structuring near some ancient cities, random parking in the streets, and disordered sales stands. According to the information obtained from the environmental organizations participating in the research, it has been revealed that there are issues encountered in the use of waste and natural resources on the coasts of Edremit Gulf, that ecological deterioration has begun, that there are problems in land and coastal use, and that there are green space losses. In this study, it was concluded that environmental organizations made various efforts to solve environmental issues, but these were insufficient. It was emphasized that the relevant units should act as a whole rather than working separately in the solution of environmental issues on the coasts of Edremit Gulf.

In the light of the results of this study, the following suggestions can be made to local administrators and political officials:

- In order to ensure sustainable destination management in Edremit Gulf, a tourism model should be developed according to the unique characteristics of the region,
- Successful studies in the world on sustainable destination management should be taken as an example, and and the indicators developed by the World Tourism Organization for sustainable destination management should be taken as a basis in the planning to be made,
- According to Buhalis (2000), the sustainability of a touristic destination depends on components such as local people, executives, operators and visitors. A serious "stakeholder cooperation" should be ensured with the participation of all stakeholders in sustainable destination management plans in the region and especially environmental organizations should be carried out in cooperation,
- To have the tourism activities in the region not only as sea tourism, sustainable tourism types should be increased in the region, new alternatives should be developed by making appropriate plans, and more eco-festival, fair, and international art/sports organizations should be organized,
- Solid waste storage and waste treatment systems and water treatment facilities in the region should be increased,
- Long-term city policies and strict control rules should be implemented by local governments in order to prevent aesthetic/visual pollution in the region and improve the architectural appearance of the region,
- In order to minimize the noise pollution in the region, restrictions should be imposed on accommodation, entertainment businesses and recreational crafts, the horns of the cars, the music of the vehicles in the traffic, and peddlers,
- In order to protect and improve the coastal areas of the region, the natural appearance of the coasts should be protected by restricting any action that disrupts the coastline or unplanned structuring on the coasts,
- In order to solve the water and air pollution and waste problem in the region, treatment systems should be made mandatory especially for industrial facilities,
- In order to reduce the air pollution in the region, the inspections of the existing industrial enterprises regarding the "Industrial Air Pollution Control Regulation", such as the use of filters, should be increased,
- In order to measure and minimize the negative environmental effects of tourism activities in the region, environmental impact assessment studies should be increased,
- The production of renewable energy sources in the region should be increased,
- In order to protect green areas and olive groves, zoning of the green areas in the region should be prevented and the number of green areas should be increased,
- Instead of large-scale, huge tourism facilities in the region, the construction of small-scale, authentic-looking simple accommodation units suitable for the regional architecture and nature should be encouraged,
- Accommodation businesses in the region should be encouraged to operate in sustainable tourism with such as ecological facilities, green hotels, environmentally friendly hotels, green star, white star,
- In order to prevent ecological deterioration and land use problems, the development and promotion of ecological agriculture should be provided to the people of the region through various trainings or different practices,
- Various "green projects" should be created in rural areas in order to ensure both the rural development and sustainable destination management of the region and the participation of the local people in sustainable tourism. Villages that meet the sustainability conditions in the region should be promoted with the title of "eco-village", "nature friendly village", and a holistic touristic promotion of the region should be created.

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Article history: Received: 22.11.2021 Revised: 28.01.2022 Accepted: 22.02.2022 Available online: 15.03.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.313-318
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40137-833

APPLICATIONS OF DIGITAL MODELS IN INTEGRATED MANAGEMENT IN SMART TOURIST CITIES: AQABA CITY OF JORDAN AS A CASE STUDY

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Citation: Bazazo, I.K., Alananzeh, O.A, & Alrefaie, S.R. (2022). APPLICATIONS OF DIGITAL MODELS IN INTEGRATED MANAGEMENT IN SMART TOURIST CITIES: AQABA CITY OF JORDAN AS A CASE STUDY. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 313–318. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40137-833

Abstract: This study focused on highlighting the most important virtual technological applications at the global level used in the growth and development of tourist cities, by reviewing the most important technological means used in managing smart tourist cities and the conditions and procedures that must be provided in the urban transformation in tourist cities from their traditional framework to the digital framework that keeps pace with global developments in the digital tourism industry and meeting the requirements of sustainable tourism development by focusing on the city of Aqaba in Jordan. The study found the importance of adopting digital models with their multiple applications in providing sustainable management in tourist cities and transforming them into competitive digital tourist destinations and giving them comparative advantages in light of the rapid development at the international level in the growth and development of a high-end tourism industry.

Key words: digital models, smart cities, integrated management, e-tourism, virtual tourism

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INTRODUCTION

The world is currently moving in an obvious and clear way in managing many economic sectors relying on knowledge economics. The tourism sector is one of the most important global economies that lead the global economy today (Khan et al., 2020). Especially in light of the increasing acceleration in the means of obtaining knowledge and the transformation towards the digital world (Hojeghan and Esfangareh, 2011), which led to the expansion of the tourism and travel market and the creation of new tourist cities (Capocchi et al., 2019). The shift has become clear in the management of these tourist cities from the traditional approach to the adoption of the integrated sustainable management approach (Meredith, 2011). This shift is based on the provision of digital applications in the management and development of tourist cities until these cities are called "smart tourist cities (Yovanof and Hazapis, 2009; Jawabreh, 2020; Nam et al., 2021). This study mainly focuses on addressing the concept of smart tourist cities and the reasons for the delay in the existence of this type of city at the Arab level in general and Jordan in particular. Therefore, the study tries to rely on the most important digital models used globally in integrated management in the growth and development of tourist cities and try to apply these models in the form of a proposed system in creating urban transformation in the management and development of tourist cities through the application to the city of Aqaba in Jordan. Accordingly, the study problem can be addressed by answering several questions as follows:

1. What are the most prominent digital models used in the management of smart tourist cities.
2. What are the most important technological applications used in integrated tourism management in smart tourist cities.
3. What are the comparative and competitive advantages of applying digital concepts and models in the development and planning of tourist cities?

This study aims to clarify the mechanisms and requirements for the transition from the framework of traditional tourist cities to smart tourist cities, to clarify the most important digital models used globally in smart tourist cities, and to show the most important benefits of adopting the concepts of integrated management in smart tourist cities. It also aims to study some global experiences to benefit from them in transforming the cities into a smart city. This study also aimed to formulate a proposed methodology to transform the city of Aqaba into a smart tourist city. It is based on a few justifications, highlighting the need for this type of applied study in the management and development of tourist cities to become able to compete at the global level. Among the most prominent justifications of the study:

1. Not applying the concepts and models of smart tourist city management in the study area.
2. The need for sustainable development by enabling tourist cities with accelerated technological means.

Study Methodology

The study is based on a working methodology represented by models and proposed technological systems that can be

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applied to the study area - the city of Aqaba in Jordan - with the aim of converting it into a smart tourist city, by relying on interactive technologies such as Wi-Fi, geographic information systems (GIS) and Remote Sensing (RS), Bluetooth technologies, GPS technologies, tablets (RFID), and reversible devices (NFC) (Oppermann, 2009; Huang et al., 2017; Dragović et al., 2018; Mahmoud et al., 2021). Based on the foregoing, the study relied on the use of the systemic approach based on analyzing the elements of the study focused on the inputs, processes, and outputs of smart applications in the management of tourist cities. To achieve the objectives of the study and answer the questions, the study relied on digital tools and models used in many smart tourist cities at the international level, and trying to benefit from them by applying them in the study area, and simulating these global experiences. In providing integrated management in transforming the city of Aqaba into a smart tourist city.

STUDY AREA

The study area (Aqaba) is located in the south of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, 330 km from the capital Amman. The city of Aqaba is one of the sides of the Golden Tourist Triangle in southern Jordan, and the only seaport of Jordan on the Red Sea and one of the distinctive tourist cities on the Red Sea coast. Aqaba Special Economic Zone (ASEZ) was established in 2001 as a tourist development zone exempt from customs and taxes. The city contains an international airport - King Hussein International Airport - and many tourist and hotel facilities.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous studies that dealt with digital applications in smart tourist cities are characterized by their scarcity at the international level (Droege, 2016; Komninos, 2016; Gretzel et al., 2015; Chigon, 2013; Correia, 2011; Hodgkinson, 2011; Giffinger et al., 2007). Most of the studies dealt with smart cities in their general form (Komninos, 2010, 2012, 2013, 2016), without focusing on tourist cities and villages, especially in the Arab world. As for Jordan, there are no studies about the current study. Therefore, a number of international studies can be viewed (Radovanović, 2015; La Rocca, 2014; Lee, 2011; Asgharizadeh et al., 2009) with the aim of identifying the most prominent applications of digital models in integrated management in smart tourist cities (Steventon and Wright, 2016; Spadoni et al., 2011), while trying to simulate these digital applications in dropping them on the city of Aqaba, with the aim of transforming it into the ranks of smart tourist cities. The study of Buhalis and Amaranggana (2013) entitled "Smart Tourism Destinations" is one of the most prominent studies that dealt with smart tourist cities as attractive destinations for tourists, by taking advantage of the successive technological developments in the tourism industry. The study aimed to take advantage of technological applications in managing the tourism industry. Tourist cities create competitive advantages and achieve economic savings. The study reviewed the most prominent existing challenges facing smart tourist cities and trying to address them using flexible applications in managing smart tourist cities. The study of La Rocca (2016) titled "The Role of Tourism in Planning the Smart City" focused on many problems experienced by traditional cities such as congestion, pollution, informal housing, and poor sustainable management in urban areas. Therefore, the study focused on the importance of adopting technological applications in managing cities and making them digital tourist destinations.

The urban system, with all aspects represented by the economy, transport, and the environment, needs to be rehabilitated through the introduction of the smart tourism industry, the development of sustainable urban systems, and the focus on renewable resources through strategies based on digital systems in the management of smart cities. The study concluded that the global applications of urban cities in the world are based on criteria, the most important of which are: digitization and technological development in the city, and the extent to which tourism contributes to the functions of the urban city, in addition to other factors represented by the elements of natural, economic and social sustainability in the management of smart cities.The study of Gretzel et al., (2015), entitled "Conceptual foundations for understanding smart tourism ecosystems", it focused on the concepts of managing natural ecosystems in tourist cities using smart technology by adopting the idea of a digital ecosystem that is compatible with the requirements of sustainable tourism in cities. The study revealed the importance of adopting technological systems in tourist cities and transforming them into smart cities in order to provide optimal management of the ecosystem, based on rationalization and good management of resources, which leads to an increase in the competitiveness of smart tourists cities. This study complements previous studies to build a conceptual framework for the development of digital models that can be used in tourist cities, and an attempt to convert them into smart cities. Therefore, the multiple methodologies used in previous studies will be relied upon in an attempt to adapt them to suit a proposed system for transforming the city of Aqaba into a smart tourist city.

The proposed systems for transforming the city of Aqaba into a smart tourist city

Several international reports issued by the United Nations, especially those issued by the World Tourism Organization (WTO), indicated that the world is heading strongly in the twenty-first century to develop the tourism industry as one of the most important sectors that are currently driving the global economy. Therefore, many tourist cities began to expand and grow at rapid rates, which led to the emergence of many problems related to the management of natural, economic, and social resources in these cities. In order to find solutions, a shift has begun from the traditional model of managing tourist cities to a digital one that relies on information and communication technology in developing the tourism infrastructure, the tourism superstructure, and responding to all variables. The term "digital or smart tourist city" is one of the modern terms, which includes a strategy based on two areas in the management of the tourist city, namely:

1. The first field includes the development of digital city strategies represented by the computerization of all areas of services provided to tourists, such as hotels, tourist offices, car rental offices, medical and environmental tourism areas, and heritage and archaeological sites.

2. The second area is based on empowering local communities to shift from the traditional to the digital mode, where the residents of the tourist sites are characterized by the high ability to adapt to all developments, so the concepts of participatory and enabling digital business incubators are applied here, which leads to enhancing the concepts of the sustainability of the tourism product in terms of environmental, economic and social, as shown in Figure (1).

Figure 1. Sectors involved in smart tourist cities system (source: elaborated by the researchers)

Figure 2. Digital data base required for transforming smart tourist cities (Source: elaborated by the researchers)

One of the most important requirements for smart applications in the administration of the city of Aqaba is the availability of electronic databases, which are based on Geographic Information Systems and the Global Position System. These systems provide spatial databases linked to a metadata table for all the contents of the city, including tourist institutions, archaeological sites, and superstructure and infrastructure services, which provides optimal city management based on unified digital databases for all parts of the city, provided that the same spatial databases are used among all members of the electronic network in the city of Aqaba. This contributes to providing optimal and homogeneous management in sustainable management. The process of collecting data on all the components of natural and human tourist attractions is based on the use of Remote Sensing technologies, digital cameras, and RFID technologies, which together constitute the means of data collection in a simultaneous and consecutive manner, easy to process and deal with digitally, as shown in Figure (2).

There are many types of wired networks used in tourist smart cities due to their versatility and overlap. Among the most important of these networks: The Optical Fiber network, which is characterized by a huge data transmission capacity and high speed, and this type of network is used in many British cities such as Liverpool. Another network is the Digital Subscriber Line, which is based on telephone lines. Wireless Fidelity Wi-Fi networks use radio waves to exchange information and are characterized by speed and accuracy. Examples of cities that use this type of network are the cities of Singapore. while the network (Worldwide Interoperability for Microwave Access) is distinguished through providing a wide service of applications such as services represented by remote monitoring systems, linking city buildings, traffic control, sports stadiums, water and gas networks, as shown in Figure (3).

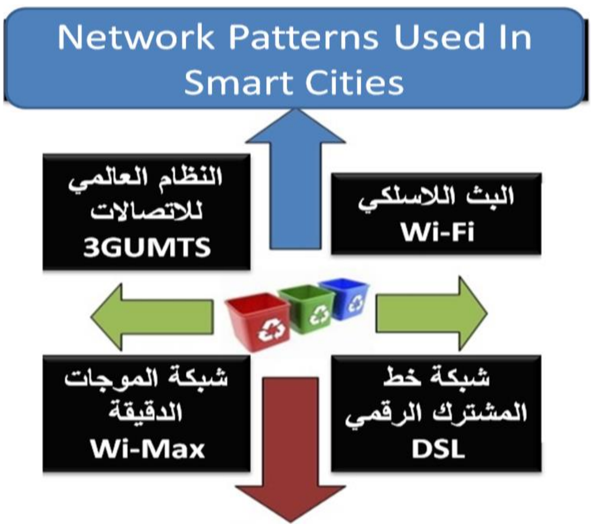

Figure 3. Network pattern used in smart tourist cities (Source: elaborated by the researchers)

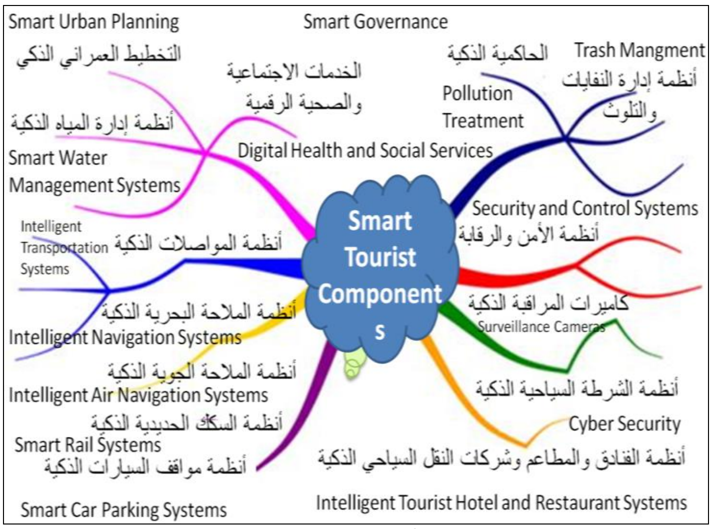

Figure 4. Tourist components of smart tourist cities (Source: elaborated by the researchers)

Cooperation and harmony between all government and private agencies in the city of Aqaba is an important element in the success of the application of the smart city in all sectors, which are recreational, marine, medical, environmental, and educational tourism, in addition to the support services represented in the communications, water and electricity sectors. The targeted sectors, which are clear in Figure (4), represent the basic elements of smart cities, and transforming Aqaba into a smart city is not difficult; because Aqaba is a modern city with a high-level institutional system. The application of digital models contributes to transforming Aqaba into a smart city in reducing the time and place factor as a determinant of activities. In addition to the provision of quantitative and qualitative information will contribute to leading the performance and activity of many tourism investment projects, as shown in Figure (4) and (5). The most important advantage of smart tourism cities is to enable and implement operational services to provide services to local communities and to tourists coming to visit the region. This is done by working to create a digital environment that attracts tourism investments and maintains the sustainability of sustainable economic growth, which contributes to building an urban tourism environment that supports innovation and provides a safe environment while ensuring the integration of local communities, and the participation of citizens in accepting the concept of the smart city. The city of Aqaba is witnessing successive and rapid growth in all aspects of tourism and economics, which requires the authorities in charge of the city's administration to expand investments in the field of information technology; to stimulate economic growth, promote social progress, and improve infrastructure and superstructure conditions. Therefore, transforming Aqaba into a smart city is no longer considered a luxury as much as it is a basic development requirement. Therefore, all policies must be directed towards investments based on digital technology. From here, the work focusing on all investment projects in the city should be based on digital technology, especially in the field of energy, water, and transportation systems. The success of transforming the city of Aqaba into a smart city depends on convincing decision-makers of the importance of adopting the concept of the smart city, as a practical solution to many of the problems facing traditional cities at the present time. The strategy of local authorities in the Aqaba Special Economic Zone, to shift towards a smart city, can be based on a number of axes, including:

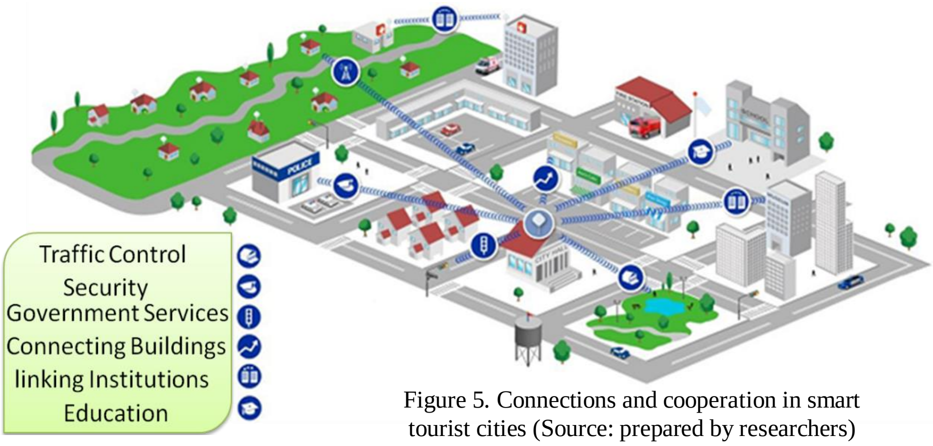

Figure 5. Connections and cooperation in smart tourist cities (Source: prepared by researchers)

1. All smart city standards for local authorities' procurement of services must be based on digital foundations, especially those related to infrastructure and superstructure services.
2. Encouraging all development opportunities by including smart infrastructure, including legislation and laws regulating real estate, tourism, commercial and industrial investments.
3. Commitment to support pioneering programs related to digital technology in all aspects of the tourism industry.
4. Empowering tourism, social, economic, and industrial institutions and supporting them for digital transformation

The world is currently moving strongly towards the digital economy, and the application of the concepts of smart tourism cities, in an accelerating manner. Therefore, we now need smart leaders who are able to lead the future stage. Therefore, the transition to smart sustainable tourism cities requires leaders who are able to lead the future stage, and have an intellectual entrepreneurial; because this transition has become an inevitable necessity, and one of the most important requirements for attracting investments. The integrated management of smart tourist cities is based on scientific foundations. The application of the concepts of integrated management in the city of Aqaba must revolve around the ability to respond with all the data of the current era, which includes providing an optimal digital environment for tourists coming to the city and providing attractive data for tourism investments. So, one of the most important benefits achieved in the integrated management in the city of Aqaba is the ability to access digital information in an easy way. In addition, to build the capacity to locate development problems and the ability to address them and to make decisions by providing a bank in the form of an integrated database that contributes to improving optimal decision-making. The application of integrated smart management in the city of Aqaba contributes to improving the smart management of water resources, by improving the efficiency of distribution, pollution control, water quality, and simultaneous monitoring of water resources in emergency situations such as floods. It also contributes to the smart distribution of water based on Geographic Information Systems (GIS) and Remote Sensing (RS) technologies, which contributes to providing smart management in controlling water resources, especially in light of a water problem that Aqaba suffers from in particular and Jordan in general. The benefit from integrated management in the city of Aqaba is not limited to water resources, but extends to the energy sector, telecommunications, and other sectors, as shown in Figure (6).

The difficulties of transforming the city of Aqaba into a digital smart city

Aqaba represents a promising Jordanian tourism model due to the acceleration in tourism growth related to the many natural and human factors that attract tourism growth. The concept of a smart city is not without its challenges, for example, the success of the city of Aqaba depends on the local community, businessmen, and tourists, and the extent to which they participate in activities that save energy and apply new technologies. There are many ways to make residential, commercial, and public spaces sustainable by means of technology. But a high percentage of total energy use is still in the hands and behavior of end-users. The implementation of the smart city concept in the city of Aqaba depends on new standards, infrastructure, and solutions in the field of information and communication technology to ensure that this vision becomes a reality. The time factor is also important, as the city of Aqaba needs a short period of time for digital transformation, which requires the gradual adoption of information and communication technology as an enabling tool to address urban challenges in new ways in the city. This will require the availability of a reliable communication Infrastructure. The main challenges of digital transformation in Aqaba are the absence of a strategy that is based on digital urban planning for infrastructure, and the lack of spatial digital maps of the city's tourism and heritage components through GPS. Given that the smart city experience includes many systems and devices that are connected through different technologies, the amount of data generated by these systems can be very huge. If these systems and devices are not immunized, this can lead to great harm and risks, as unprotected data and user information may facilitate the occurrence of malicious activities and cybercrimes. One of the most important priorities in implementing the smart city concept in the city of Aqaba is ensuring the adoption of a strict security strategy and building a regulatory framework that all companies, government departments, and service providers are committed to.

Figure 6. Integrated management of smart tourist cities (Source: elaborated by researchers)

The most important difficulties in implementing the smart city concept are based on the following:

• The high costs of setting up a smart tourist city; What you need from the infrastructure and superstructure.

• Fear of limiting the smart tourist city to the category of tourists, and to a limited group of society, due to the lack of a sufficient level of computer literacy among the city's community members. For the idea of a smart city to succeed, the local community must be prepared.

• Computer viruses and cookies, and problems of privacy violations (Junk mail and spam).

• The difficulty of building a healthy information society in the city. Many electronic citizens deal with nicknames and a hidden identity, which distorts the real information exchange and dilutes the social presence in the exchanged information.

• Absence of a comprehensive vision and a clear strategy towards digital transformation in the city of Aqaba.

• Lack of interest and awareness of those in charge of planning the city of Aqaba with the idea of the smart city as part of the concept of e-government.

• The dispersion of efforts to reach the smart city in Aqaba between several parties and the conflicting spatial databases related to the components of tourist attractions.

• Failure to convert vision and strategy into achievable goals and projects that can be implemented.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

1. The study found the importance of adopting digital models in the city of Aqaba with its multiple applications in providing sustainable management in all tourist and heritage sites, transforming them into competitive digital tourist destinations, and giving them comparative advantages in light of the rapid development at the international level in the growth and development of high-end tourism industry.

2. The study presented a number of digital models used in the management of smart tourist cities with the possibility of using them in the city of Aqaba.

3. It is clear from the study that the term “digital or smart tourist city” is one of the modern terms, which includes a strategy based on two areas in the management of the tourist city, namely, the development of digital city strategies represented by computerization of all areas of services provided to tourists. And the second field is based on enabling local communities to transform from the pattern traditional to digital style

4. The study concluded that the most important requirements for smart applications in the administration of the city of Aqaba are the availability of electronic databases, which are based on geographic information systems and the global signature system.

5. The success of transforming the city of Aqaba into a smart city depends on convincing decision-makers of the importance of adopting the concept of the smart city, as a practical solution to many of the problems facing traditional cities at the present time.

6. The integrated management of smart tourism cities is based on scientific foundations. The application of the concepts of integrated management in the city of Aqaba must revolve around the ability to respond with all the data of the current era, including providing an optimal digital environment for tourists coming to the city and providing attractive data for tourism investments.

7. Aqaba represents a promising Jordanian tourism model. Due to the acceleration in tourism growth due to the many natural and human factors that attract tourism growth.

Recommendations

1. Forming a specialized committee whose mission is to develop a clear strategy with the aim of transforming the city of Aqaba into a smart tourist city.

2. All smart city standards for local authorities' procurement of services must be based on digital foundations, especially those related to infrastructure and superstructure services.

3. Encouraging all development opportunities by including smart infrastructure, including legislation and laws regulating real estate, tourism, commercial and industrial investments.

4. Commitment to support pioneering programs related to digital technology in all aspects of the tourism industry.

5. Empowering tourism, social, economic, and industrial institutions and supporting them for digital transformation.

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Article history: Received: 04.10.2021 Revised: 20.01.2022 Accepted: 23.02.2022 Available online: 15.03.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites
ISSN 2065-1198, E-ISSN 2065-0817

Year XV, vol. 40, no. 1, 2022, p.319-326
DOI 10.30892/gtg.40138-834

A NEW APPROACH TO ACCESSIBILITY, DISABILITY AND SUSTAINABILITY IN TOURISM – MULTIDISCIPLINARY AND PHILOSOPHICAL DIMENSIONS

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Citation: Farkas, J., Raffay, Z., & Petykó, C. (2022). A NEW APPROACH TO ACCESSIBILITY, DISABILITY AND SUSTAINABILITY IN TOURISM – MULTIDISCIPLINARY AND PHILOSOPHICAL DIMENSIONS. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 40(1), 319–326. https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.40138-834

Abstract: Introduction and aim of the paper: The principles of sustainability are becoming increasingly important in the philosophy and practice of tourism. One dimension of this is the provision of accessibility. Making facilities accessible is interpreted by most as the elimination of physical barriers to movement and dislocation in the "community living space". In our opinion, however, in accessibility physical realisation is not the only interpretation: in the interpretation of existential philosophy, one basic human characteristic is man's barrier-dismantling and existentially handicapped character – so accessibility and our definition of disability are two of those basis characteristics that make us humans. Using the methodology of literature review, hermeneutical research and the findings of an extended online and face-to-face survey, the authors come to the conclusion that accessibility is more than making physical living space accessible, and they reconsider the frameworks of sustainability.

Key words: sustainability, life philosophy, existential disability, accessibility, responsibility, communication

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INTRODUCTION

The metaphor of "travelling" was one of the most favoured metaphors of the world of philosophy, focusing in our scrutiny[1] on the works by either the ancient Greek or the oriental philosophers. This train of thought has not been broken until now, and as it will be shown, existential philosophers too are keen on using the most diverse metaphors of travelling in order to undermine the "reality" of their philosophy. It is the respect shown for them, on the one hand, and the better comprehensibility of the conceptual framework (set as an objective), on the other hand, that make us use the expression "discipline of travelling" as synonym, with the now widely used tourism discipline. The life philosophical approach has now been forgotten in Western Europe, and it has never had a real impact in North America. The names of Karl Jaspers or Martin Heidegger may sound, though, familiar to many, as their works were of dominant significance in the 20th century history of philosophy. Their activity clearly shows that the love of wisdom does have a practical, if you like, everyday interpretation for us. One may rightly ask whether the discipline of travelling/tourism needs another approach, with special regard to its life philosophy character. We believe that the answer is a definite yes, as elevating the conceptual frameworks of accessibility and sustainability from the "physical space" could not have happened, or could have happened with much more difficulties, without being aware of the above-mentioned philosophical background.

Our paper is an analysis of the issues of travellers' behaviour, accessibility, disability and not last sustainability along two basic axes. The research methodology of life philosophy contents follows the hermeneutical trend of philosophy scrutinies, mainly connected in the western cultures to the names of Martin Heidegger and Hans-Georg Gadamer. In order to avoid misunderstandings it must be remarked that this method of interpretation is much more than simply the "animation" of the texts written, it can be extended to practically all volumes of human activity. This form of research was supplemented by the application of the practice-oriented interpretation of existence by life philosophy, hallmarked by the names of Karl Jaspers and Nagarjuna[2]. The second axis of our scrutiny was analyses made in the field of tourism, by which we got an insight into the interpretation of the concepts of sustainability and accessibility in the field of the science of travelling. The aim of the paper is two-fold: the exploration of the – self-explanatory and constructive, as the authors believe –

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[1] The expression *"scrutiny"*, often used by the authors later on, is the original expression of the philosophical *research methodology*. The aim is to draw attention to the further thinking, elaboration and enlargement of the conceptual connotations.
[2] Nagarjuna, Buddhist philosopher of the 2nd century, former abbey of the University Nalanda, is the founder of the philosophy of emptiness. In his homeland he is respected as the second Buddha.

relationship between the science of travel and existential and Buddhist philosophy; also, built on this, the demonstration of the inseparability of sustainability and accessibility – of course, without aiming at completion on both cases.

Approaches from a philosophical anthropology aspect

It is a positive fact that the provision of accessibility as an activity of the transformation of the environment is more and more acknowledged and accepted not only in Europe but also in almost all over the world. It is unfortunate, on the other hand, that this concept is basically seen as the *accompanying phenomenon of disabilities*, only (Kálmán and Könczei, 2002). We, the ones who jointly think and act on the mapping of the world of travelling, have to realise that there is actually much more to it. In Gehlen's (1940) words, man is a deficit-creature, and as a consequence of this is almost forced to create human culture. As it shows, philosophical anthropology considers the specific situation of man, its originally vulnerable character compared to other creatures, as an important issue. Adler (1998) devotes a separate chapter in his book called "Understanding life" to the difficulties associated with the acceptance of people living with disabilities, but it can be read between the lines that he also sees a kind of opportunity in people living with physical, mental, organoleptic etc. handicaps. He sees them as an opportunity to better know our own limits so that we are able to extend them as much as possible.

It is interesting to briefly recall Kropotkin's (1924) thoughts, as during his journeys and long stays in Siberia the Russian geographer and philosopher collected hundreds of empirical evidence that proved the validity of his statements according to which evolution does not primarily work through the competition or fight among the species but through a practice that he called mutual help[3]. Just as Polányi's (2004) theory of reciprocity makes us see humans as a form of existence that is in need of help and cooperation. Travelling is one of the most ancient human activities. Prehistoric men often had no other choice than walk the areas surrounding them, driven not by the force of collecting information but the force of survival. The lessons from the travellers' existence through thousands of years were embedded in the culture of mankind, as they have generated and still generate technical civilisation reaching its peak nowadays. Adler and Kropotkin interpreted the above-detailed needs for cooperation as indispensable components of not only mere subsistence but also of becoming human. Travel nowadays is mostly a tool of collecting experience and the search for happiness (Michalkó, 2010). This could as well be interpreted as if necessary travelling and the sub-motivation of cooperation, discussed above, now only played a marginal role on the pallet of motivations by the hundreds of millions of people travelling all over the world.

We do say that the indicators of journeys realised contain at least as much of the natural cooperation needs and constraints of humans, and also the desire of discovery and communication, as it contained in the time of our ancestors. Of course these are supplemented by the above-mentioned dimensions of collecting experience and search for happiness, and these can be seen as a desire stemming from a life philosophy approach, a search of existence that is present in all of us, even though not always at the conscious level (Jaspers, 2008). As we can see, the concept of the *man providing accessibility* (Farkas, 2019) carries and denotes a natural human characteristic that is not only the "classical" activity creating accessibility but also a fundamental trait of human beings. The present technical and cultural achievements of man, then, are also due to his activity providing accessibility, and all this could not have been achieved without his cooperation skills. In our opinion, the extension of the interpretation dimensions of accessibility and sustainability must have a selected emphasis also in the inevitable further thinking of the sustainability and rationalisation of tourism (Mihalic et al., 2021).

Having discussed all this, let us see – without aiming at completion – in more detail how life philosophy examinations and certain aspects of the discipline of travelling are connected to each other. It is an eternal question, irrespective of our geographical position and cultural embeddedness, why we are here on Earth, and how we can spend the lifetime we have been given. Religions, philosophy schools and later specialised sciences and specialised philosophies have all been eager to find the answers to the questions written above. The existential philosophy school that we prefer has also made an attempt for this, but as Bergson (2007) stated, the task of the philosopher is to ask meaningful questions concerning existence, and, immersing in and starting from the exact "constituents" of existence, to create concepts and theories that can never be ultimate and rigid. Our hermeneutical research methodology can be perfectly matched with this way of concept- and theory making, the fundamental point of which in our case is the mapping of the examined human travelling activity.

This also bears in mind the basics of Gadamer's[4] (1989) scrutiny, according to which the existential activity under the respective examination is the result of an exact social and socio-cultural context, i.e. there are no rigid, eternal substantial truths in our world. In other words, travelling and its sustainability is a never-ending human process of re-discovery, to be examined in a way that fits the social, communication and economic fabric of our age. In the early and mid-1920s there was a more and more prevalent viewpoint that humanity and its culture had reached the level of technical development where their originally natural status was transformed into a cultural centre, which means that man and culture were now "above" Nature, did not depend on it, in fact, were able to shape it. We believe that this materialistic-looking view has been rejected by many so far – also in the shadow of the undeniable climate disaster –, and we agree with Jaspers's thought according to which the symbiotic relationship of man with the planet, and in the broader sense with the universe that is home to this planet, in unquestionable (Jaspers, 2003). This statement is almost perfectly identical with the fundamental teaching of Buddhist philosophy that can be traced back right to Buddha's teaching and the concepts of Nagarjuna, the 2[nd]

[3] In Rutger Bregman's book called "Humankind" (2021) several trains of thoughts can be found that are identical with or quite similar to the statements made by Kropotkin and Polányi.

[4] In European culture it is Hans-Georg Gadamer who is considered as the "father" of philosophical hermeneutics – which is only partially true –, but Gadamer's activity reveals its real form in the light of Heidegger's philosophy. His landmark work called "Truth and method" contains revolutionary statements about the interpretation and actual "animation" of written texts. For example, he replaces the historical view with a story view, indicating thereby that thoughts put down, reflecting to a concrete life and social situation at a certain moment in the past, will come alive and gain new meaning in the present situations (Gadamer, 1989).

century Indian philosopher mentioned in the introduction, which are getting more and more popular in Europe (Tóth and Farkas, 2019). Cognitive man thus depended from the early days of history at least as much on Nature surrounding and sustaining him as on his outstanding cognitive capacities securing his survival, and his cooperation and symbiotic way of existence coming from his physical endowments. A measure of the adult – call it this time "human-specific" – way of behaviour is the recognition of this mutual and insoluble interdependence, and the creation, managing and caring of its sustainability conditions. In a way organically fitting to all these, man is also a *travelling creature* during which activity the expression 'homo sapiens' is actually a *tasting creature* of existence in accordance to a lesser-known context.

Daringly weaving further the philosophical fabric of the scrutiny we can also state that man who is a creature with thinking, tasting and travelling characteristics is at least as much of a creature dismantling barriers. Remember: at the beginning of this paper we mentioned travelling, the existence as travellers as a constraint for our ancestors. This proves in itself that man has continuously faced obstacles during his struggle for survival. In certain cases the decline in the stock of plants and animals in a given geographical area may have become an obstacle; so the need of dislocation can be considered as an action providing accessibility, a way of subsistence of the species, just like an invention created later – and becoming one of the most important inventions ever –, the wheel can also be put into the aforementioned category. And so the man creating accessibility was confronted with his own limits, if you like: disabilities. Gehlen (1940) interpreted this by saying that the birth of culture originates from here, i.e. the limited physical strength of humans and their "deficiency of biological weapons" almost naturally resulted in the basics of cooperation from which human culture is still building (although not always for the best). This means that activity providing accessibility, the creation of a sustainable living space and its continuous adaptation to the ever-changing circumstances is far from being the invention of man living in the world of modern technical "magic". After so many introductory thoughts, let us start now on a new path of our scrutiny and let us examine – as much as the scope of his paper allows – the opportunities lying in the "travelling constraint" of our age, which we hope will shed a new light on the maybe only seemingly so familiar concepts of travelling, disability, sustainability and accessibility.

Existential disability as a basic characteristic of *travelling* man

As it will be discussed in detail in the following chapter – by contextualising life philosophy and the discipline of travelling –, man collects knowledge and experiences during his travels, at best. But is he actually confronted with his own *existential disability* (Farkas, 2019) and such aspects of this barrier-dismantling being?

In order to study this issue we first find it important to specify what the concept of existential disability is and why it has to be placed in the context of travelling. During the planning and regulation process of the touristic and economic activity of our age, the provision of the barrier-free, accessible conditions of travellers living with disabilities, and also of their assistants, enjoy selected priority: it is a fact that e.g. the years 2014 and 2016 were devoted by UNWTO (World Tourism Organisation) to the issue of those living with assistance (Michalkó, 2016)[5]. However, as we have already mentioned and hope our paper will also make it clear, we have fundamentally different concepts of disability and accessibility than what seems to come from the very innovative set of concepts of the discipline of accessibility.

It is reasonable that see the disability definitions of modern societies as if they were sorts of societal hiatuses, deriving primarily from the fact that social systems are not yet developed enough from technical and legal aspects to be able to create really state-of-the-art, accessible, "equal chance" environment for people living with functional and long-term disabilities – who, anyway, make approximately 5-6% of the world population (Kálmán and Könczei, 2002).

Our briefly introduced model of disability, extended and embedded in several new dimensions, says that humans – even if they often deny it – must confront their (physical, organoleptic, mental or multiple, i.e. functional) disabilities, which go far beyond their mostly obvious obstacles, but their effects are universally valid for all humans beings as actors of existence. Our *existential disability*[6] becomes obvious if we briefly outline three groups of concepts and attributes:

1. Man is aware of the finite character of his existence on Earth, which makes him search seemingly permanent, stable points in a constantly changing and transforming world. Either he fails to recognise constant change or he does not admit it even to himself, which leads, among other things, to the generation of considerable obstacles.
2. The situation is almost the same, as regards his failure to recognise the non-satisfactory character of existence. This is introduced by Buddhist philosophy by the concept of dukkha[7], the point of which is that man, coming from the lack of adequate alertness and from being ignorant, continuously insists on stable, tangible and secure points in his life by which he thinks his internal tension can be released. These, however, do not exist in the teaching of Buddha.
3. The forgetfulness of being, introduced by Heidegger, and the forgetfulness of this, is enriched with another link that is called forgetfulness of humanity.

Thus, these very much human sets of attributes do not emphasise the aspects of the alterations of man's physical, mental, or sensual abilities and endowments – also defined by the science of disabilities –, rather on the basic characteristics existing in all of us, described above; just like our endowments for creating accessibility and our skills that we had to develop in this field did not and do not primarily offer a solution for the already (publicly) known doctrines of *functional disability*, they do not give a surcease, either, for the "consciousness-stretching" character of *existential disability*.

[5] The slogan for the year 2014 was "Community building" and for 2016 it was "Tourism for All", referring thereby to the accessibility needs of people concerned and the implementability of these needs as well.

[6] A more detailed discussion of the philosophical background of existential disabilities would go beyond the limits of this paper; further papers will be written on this issue. We hope that the train of thought so far and the arguments to come will sufficiently outline why we find it important and justifiable to make distinction between functional and existential disabilities.

[7] Readers of this paper can have more detailed information on this basic Buddhist philosophy concept, usually misinterpreted in our culture, in the book by Tibor Porosz (2008), featured in the list of references: Szubjektív tudomány – objektív tudás (Subjective science – objective knowledge).

Common interpretation dimensions of life philosophy and the science of travelling

Travelling makes you happy, says Michalkó (2010). Travelling might make you happy, we say. Heidegger defines in his masterpiece "Being and time" the nature of human existence as follows: the creature travelling from the anonymity to the anonymity sort of falls into existence, and recognising this drifting he creates language as the *house of being* (Heidegger, 2006). This process seems to be frightening, not last because it is phrased to be. How can we transform this uncoordinated fall and drift into really quality travel, and thereby make the "navigation" of man between life and death something that really makes us happy? The house of being in Heidegger's view is the language: it helps us create a relative security on the ocean of existence of constant changes. The expression 'house of existence' can be extended, beyond the language, to the narrower environment in which man experiences and lives his everyday life. The travels we make enrich our knowledge of the world and existence, our communication toolset and, although unconsciously in many cases, also our language skills. In addition, it should not be neglected that we are confronted with our social status as well, originating from our already mentioned constraint and instinct of survival. Furbishing the house of our existence and making it cosy is the process of a lifetime in the good case. In these days we can see ourselves as the positive re-discoverers of the world who have breakfast in Rome and have lunch in Prague later, and they make their dinners in Budapest, in their own apartment. This is a wonderful opportunity in itself, but only a chance for deepening knowledge, if the necessary motivation also emerges. In the travelling activity, transport tools and services available for us are also accessibility tools in our interpretation. Jaspers specified communication as the basic task of philosophy, done in several directions: between us and the actors of the outside world, and also to our inner world. Becoming a conscious traveller may thus be most easily imagined through a change of communication dimension. Here is the triple interpretation of irritation, information and experience introduced, based on the thoughts of Luhmann (2004) and Farkas (2021), which does not primarily assume a hierarchical relationship but is meant to present that the web more and more densely intertwining our world, called information web, has a stimulus-generating role in the first place.[8] From this, in the function of consciousness, real information is born and this is the interpretation, cognitive package that may generate experiences. In the process of the stimulus turning into information and later possibly into experience, communication activity plays a central role.

We dare to say that the ever more popular travelling activity, with adequate and not excessive cognitive efforts, may also allow us to have an insight into learning our existence, the world of our own disabilities and need for assistance.

This travelling activity can also be called a hermeneutical, interpretation journey that may result in a kind of feedback during the implementation of the travel, because, as it is supported by statistics, in most cases now we are forced to organise our modern time "travel adventures" that we hope will give us real experiences, in the visually professional but rather impersonal world of online platforms. The implementation of all these is an immersion in the fabric of reality through which we can get a real image of the plethora of characteristics that the imaginary location (described and illustrated with photos and videos) have and of which we did not have the faintest idea. In many cases we do not even recognise that the implementation of accessibility is actually the totality of the travelling events that we bought.

Jaspers as a philosopher of life found it extremely important to fully know and improve the communication endowment and skills of man (Jaspers, 2008). He considered, on the other hand, just as important the recognition process also highly emphasised in the philosophy of Bergson and Nagarjuna, the point of which is that we, by the concrete experiential recognition of existence, continuously create and transform the conceptual framework with which we describe the world surrounding us. The travel and the traveller then exchange their ideas in a symbiotic way, among others about the conditions of our existence, including the emptiness nature[9] differences of the extremely diverse human culture and their power reaching to the bottom of our souls and shaping our personality – if the necessary conditions exist. This is a complex and still easily understandable and liveable consciousness operation process. This is the sense in which the 14th Dalai Lama speaks about it when he explains that reality carries change in itself – more precisely, it is both the part and the mirror of change (Tóth and Farkas, 2019). The book called "Small is beautiful" is often defined as a "green" and Buddhist economy guideline Schumacher (1973), its thoughts are quite the same as the above-mentioned conscious thinking, view of life and lifestyle approaches. Furthermore, it shows intellectual similarity to the *messages* of the following chapter offering an insight into the correlations of sustainability and its organic part, accessibility-providing activity.

Possible interfaces of sustainability and accessibility in tourism

Looking at the global characteristics of world economy we can certainly say that one key factor of development is the growth of the tourism industry. This is justified by the well-known statistical data: the number of international tourist arrivals grew by 7% in 2017, and the number of international tourists exceeded 1.3 billion. International tourism generated export revenues worth 1.6 trillion US dollars, making 10% of the world's GDP, and one in every ten jobs in the world was provided in the tourism sector (UNWTO 2018). These are spectacular numbers. Adding to these data the forecasted growth scenarios, the significance of tourism in the economy is undeniable (Gonda, 2021).

Besides its role in the world economy, however, further impacts of tourism must be seen and interpreted as well. The tourism sector with this volume has an extraordinary impact on the state of the natural environment, which is especially striking in e.g. those destinations where tourism is a mass phenomenon. The harmful impacts on natural environment and the degree of deterioration have been monitored in some destinations for a long time by experts. Parallel to the increase in the number of travels, the volume of transport is also increasing in the world, and the hazardous materials emitted by

[8] The scope of this paper does not allow the demonstration of the philosophical and system theory details of the above-mentioned triple approach. This will be introduced in details in a later study of the authors.

[9] According to the philosophical school of emptiness things can only exist in relation to each other, accordingly, nothing can stand in itself, things have an emptiness nature.

transport devices are a growing stress for the ecosystem. A very significant part of transportation is generated by the growing tourism sector (Puczkó and Rátz, 2003), and so the role of this industry in the increase of environmental stress is considerable. Favourable natural endowments, on the other hand, are among the most important attractions; consequently they play an outstanding role in the selection of travel destinations. Natural attractions generate a growing volume of passenger traffic, which means a growing burden on the natural environment. The emerging mass phenomena more and more often raise the necessity of introducing limitations and the need for a responsible thinking for the protection of natural values (Ellis, 2013).

There is another impact of tourism to be examined, an impact that is hard to measure: this is the impact on society. Travelling, getting to know the world, getting experiences have become part of our lives. Travelling promotes the improvement of the quality of life, creates diversity for the individuals, helps us break away from the daily routine, and thereby it allows both intellectual and physical regeneration. For many, travelling is an attractive pastime alternative. So, if all necessary conditions are met (discretionary income, leisure time and motivation), we get going. The development and penetration of transport tools, and the expansion of infocommunication possibilities have resulted in an almost revolutionary change in tourism, making travel accessible for more and more people, parallel to the ever growing number of destinations becoming available, together with the growing volume of more and more easily available information on the destinations, the services, and the transport possibilities. The rapid growth in the number of travellers and travels, however, has resulted in mass phenomena also in urbanised spaces. As it will be seen, the increase in the number of tools, opportunities etc. allowing man to travel is not followed by the unfurling of the internal and external world of man – analysed philosophically above –, and not by the sustainability and feasibility potential and chance of implementation of the *travels*, either. The brief analysis to come – based on the findings of a survey conducted in Hungary – will demonstrate, on the basis of the deficiencies of English language skills, how unclear making destinations accessible and approachable is, despite the undeniable existence of the infocommunication dominance. Among the focal points we can see, among others, the lack of language skills as a potential factor generating obstacles and highlighting our existential deficiencies, and also the *non-travelling attitude*, a potential reason for which we found in the “disabilities” of the language competencies.

The empirical analysis – which is an excerpt, adapted to the accessibility perspective of this present paper, of the conclusions of a full range survey to be carried out later – reinforces a basic idea of philosophical scrutinies cited above, i.e. now it is indispensable to map the correlations among stimulus, information and experience, as well as the obvious differences coming from their very nature; and not last, also concomitant misinterpretations, evident in every aspect of life (Luhmann, 2004; Farkas, 2021). Among the key factors then, we can see, among others, the lack of language skills as a – sometimes implicit, in the case of the existence of other correlations, explicit – factor generating obstacles and highlighting our existential deficiencies, and also the *non-travelling attitude*, a potential reason for which we found in the “disabilities” of language competencies. A comprehensive online and face-to-face survey, using a sample of more than 3,000 respondents, representative for the Hungarian population aged 15-74 as regards age, gender, and the region of the place of residence (Csapó et al., 2018), was conducted in 2018, the time before the COVID-19 pandemic. The survey of the travel habits of the Hungarian population involved the examination of the factors in the background of not travelling. Non-travellers can be *non-tourists/non-travellers* who make a *potential target group of the market*, they can be relatively easily persuaded to travel, possessing all three basic conditions for tourism (motivation, discretionary income and leisure time) but still not travelling for some reason; and they can also be persons who miss one or all basic conditions of travel. As regards the motivations of those who actually travel, besides physiological and socio-cultural stimuli it is existential factors that should be highlighted – for our topic, on the other hand, the examination of the factors inhibiting travels is of primary importance. In the case of the *classic excluded* it is basically the lack of the financial means that dominates, but a potential reason may as well be the lack of socialisation, i.e. the lack of travel culture, the lack of adequate patterns (which may be called, without any exaggeration, an information deficiency). As regards *postmodern outsiders* it is the disengaged societal frameworks, the blurred market borderlines, the events raising the issue of safety that lead to motivations totally different than in the case of the classic group of persons staying home instead of travelling. Many say that the possibilities of these days (revolution of digital technology, within that the rapid development and growing role of virtual reality) makes it meaningless to separate work and leisure time, both should be taken as constant variables, with alternating dominance in a person’s life, making classic holiday-making practically impossible.

The replies to the exact question “For what reasons do you not travel?” include the lack of money and the lack of time in position one and two; the weight of the other factors is negligible compared to these two ones, but the third position is taken by the lack of language skills, seen as a slightly more important factor than the lack of company (Figure 1). The lack of language skills, especially of English language, the only real world language today, is partly related to the information and communication disabilities, as most information on the world-wide web (and evidently also of the information concerning international tourism) is available in English. The number of websites existing is almost 2 billion in late 2021 (the number of active pages is less than 400 million). As regards the languages used, English is the most popular by far on the world-wide web (in which it must also be important that this is the language into which most non-English language websites are translated): 60.4% of the top 10 million websites are available in this language. The number of people who speak English as native language is approximately 1.13 billion – interestingly enough, simplified Chinese has almost exactly as many native speakers (1.11 billion speakers), but Chinese language websites are in position ten, ranking the lowest in the top 10 list (Figure 2). This present pandemic has especially evaluated foreign language skills, as it does matter now if one starts a journey abroad in possession of accurate and up-to-date information or leaves the success of the journey to chance – without adequate foreign language skills tourists setting off in the coronavirus-laden times can feel disabled, especially if we take it into consideration that the measures made to tackle the issues of the pandemic may change overnight and are also different region by region, and country by country. The access of travellers to accurate and comprehensible information is now an issue of vital importance, knowing that the websites of the consulates inform inquiring citizens in English language in the first place in addition to the language of the respective country. It must be remarked that the lack or low quality of accessibility of websites is also a serious handicap for people with functional disabilities, in need of accessible websites designed to meet their special needs. As regards the requirements of WCAG, Web Content Accessibility Guidelines 2.0 (www.w3.org) – an indispensable part of which is the use of figures, pictograms, pictures etc. partly suitable for overcoming language barriers, reaching beyond the “needs” of the target group in the narrower sense –, approximately 90% of websites still fail to comply. This is against legal requirements, not to mention the proven positive impact of adequately accessible websites on business revenues (https://monsido.com/blog/accessibility-statistics).

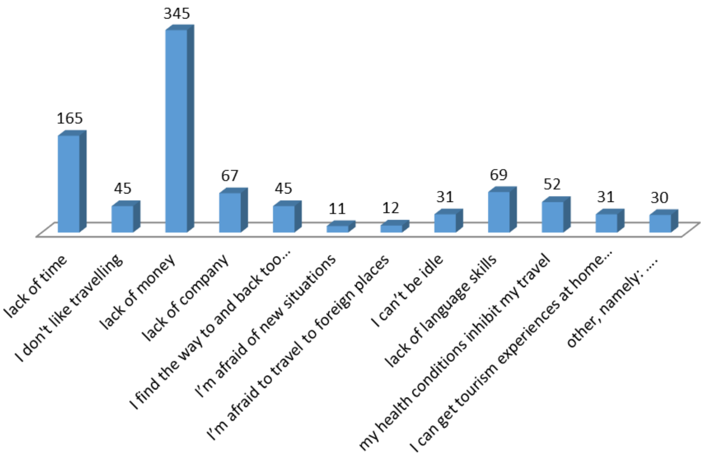

Figure 1. Reasons for “non-travel” (n=1,085) “What are the reasons that stop you from travelling? Please, indicate the three most important of the factors below!” (Source: Csapó et al., 2018)

Rank	Language	% of Top 10M Websites	Share of Speaking Population
1	English	60.4%	16.2%
2	Russian	8.5%	3.3%
3	Spanish	4.0%	6.9%
4	Turkish	3.7%	1.1%
5	Persian	3.0%	0.7%
6	French	2.6%	3.5%
7	German	2.4%	1.7%
8	Japanese	2.1%	1.6%
9	Vietnamese	1.7%	1.0%
10	Simplified Chinese	1.4%	14.3%

Figure 2. Most frequently used languages in the world (Source: www.visualcapitalist.com/the-most-used-languages-on-the-internet/)

The rapid increase in the number of travellers and travels – despite the existence of the briefly introduced language skills barriers blocking travels, which we believe is not only a Hungarian social and cultural phenomenon (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2006) – has resulted mass phenomena in urbanised spaces. All the above-said prove that the tourism industry is characterised by outstanding economic results, the intensive and often excessive use of natural environment, and also by masses of tourists and mass phenomena in a growing number of destinations. In addition to the many positive features several negative ones have also been recognised by now, serving as inspiration for researchers and researches. One of the important achievements of these results is the interpretation of the concept of sustainability within the frameworks of tourism. Sustainable tourism is based on the principles of sustainable development, the point of which is that goals set for economic growth must be examined in their correlations, i.e. environmental and sociological impacts must also be taken into consideration (Brundtland Report, 1987). During the years the interpretation of sustainable development in the economic-social-environmental space has been much refined. Economic and social development, and also environmental protection used to be handled as separate spheres, in the common section of which sustainable development can be presented (Figure 2). By now, however, another approach has become widely accepted: it is natural environment that is home to society, one activity of which is the sustainable development of the economy (Raffay and Marton, 2018). The respective spheres do not only overlap but fit into each other.

In Michalkó’s view (2003) the sustainability of tourism must be interpreted from two aspects: protection of the attractions must be provided parallel to safeguarding the success of business ventures in tourism. The realisation of sustainability in tourism is a difficult task, in which it is not sufficient to simply meet the recommendations of international organisations. The process must be further progresses, the consciousness and responsibility of all actors in tourism must be raised.

The principle of sustainable development also means, at the same time, that the system connections make it necessary to respect certain limitations when setting the goals (Fleischer, 2014). The development of tourism and staying within the right limitations for the sake of sustainable development are requirements that are hard to reconcile. The implementation of these is promoted by the attitude and behaviour represented by the concept of responsible tourism. Responsible tourism looks at the possibilities of sustainable development through the responsible actions of the individuals and society (Happ, 2014). The implementation of the sustainability of tourism development, however, necessitates a change of attitude on the part of all actors: tourists, managers of the destinations and service providers. In all activities consciousness and responsibility must appear. Even mass tourism can be made more responsible by changing the consumption habits, approaching the value systems of municipalities to sustainable development, and the sober self-limitation of service providers (Michalkó, 2003). The researches have thus identified the most important principles for the sustainable development of tourism, and also highlighted concepts that make preconditions of this development. These concepts are consciousness and responsibility. There is one more basic principle of sustainable tourism that has not been discussed in the paper so far: this is the principle of “Tourism for all”. The UNWTO defines the principle of the right to tourism, including the importance of the provision of equal chances, in Article 7 of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism.

For people with disabilities, equality means the accessibility of available services. Accessibility, however, is interpreted by the authors of this paper in a way that is different from the mainstream – as it has already been indicated in the philosophical approach. In Hungarian practice, stakeholders interviewed usually see the limitation or elimination of physical barriers under the concept of the revision of accessibility – as the authors indicated this in the philosophical approach –, typically with architectural and construction implementations (Gonda, 2021). What is more, it is usually the creation of the transportation conditions for physically handicapped people that is considered, although they are not the only ones affected and limited by the existing barriers. These barriers are just as serious obstacles for elderly people, mothers with small children, families, or even pregnant women.

Official organisations of course have more precise definitions: "Accessible tourism is tourism available for all in the same way, making tourism services offered to the travellers of the healthy society also accessible and enjoyable for travellers restricted in their physical or intellectual capacities." (Magyar Turisztikai Ügynökség 2017, https://mtu.gov.hu/cikkek/akadalymentes-turizmus). Taking accessible tourism as a tourism product, the definitions of the target groups feature those social groups who, coming from their situation or age, are interested in the provision of the supply of accessible services. The official definition, though it is meant to give a formal description, is still given a strange overtone by the expression healthy society. It makes us see the separation, or even segregation that is a delicate issue for people with disabilities, and also neglects further stakeholders. This is one of the arguments, in our opinion, for the extension of the concept of accessibility as we have suggested. The Hungarian National Tourism Development Strategy 2030 (https://mtu.gov.hu/cikkek/letolthet-nemzeti-turizmusfejlesztesi-strategia-2030-turizmus-2-0-2383) now talks about accessible tourism (as opposed to the previous definitions: barrier-free), the implementation of which is raised to the level of horizontal objectives. The goal is the provision of physical and infocommunication accessibility. The access to information is of vital importance in travel and tourism. Unfortunately, surveys demonstrate that people living with disabilities have to spend way more time on planning their travels than their non-disabled counterparts have, in the absence of information on the service in adequate quality and quantity. Correct information on barrier-free accessibility would definitely increase the number of travellers – as can be read in a paper by the UN (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs Disability, https://www.un.org/development/desa/disabilities/issues/promoting-accessible-tourism-for-all.html).

In the topic of accessible tourism, three papers have been published so far by the European Commission's Directorate-General for Enterprise and Industry[10]. These studies analyse the economic side of accessible tourism in the Union, and also examine the trends of the travel habits of the respective segment. In 2012, almost 50 million inhabitants living with disabilities in the European Union made a total of 169.6 million journeys lasting for more than one day, which can be taken as a considerable economic achievement (Mező, 2019). Academics say that there are three main barriers to the implementation of accessible tourism: factors blocking physical access; conceptual and attitude problems; and the lack of information (Eichhorn and Buchalis, 2011). This shows that more detailed analyses and more accurate information concerning accessible tourism are available in the international arena than in Hungary. Authors of this paper have not yet come across any train of thought similar to theirs in the chapter on the philosophical approach. Also, in the view of sustainability we think it is indispensable to extend the horizon of this basic human activity: we are firmly convinced that the mapping of sustainable development and obstacles, and then the neutralisation of the latter are inseparably and not hierarchically linked or related to each other. Sustainability and accessibility depend on each other like the already often-mentioned relationship between the symbiotic man and the environment. Accessibility is necessitated not only by physical needs and the functional disabilities[11] but also – and we think it is at least as important – due by the often destructive nature of human activities on the environment and society. In other words: first of all, we must be aware of the paradox lying in the impacts of sustainability on the social environment. Innovations also mean environmental burden, and in many cases the illusory development generates problems in the quality of life that are not barriers in the classical way, although they are in our opinion. The scope of this paper does not allow further discussion of the topic, but we hope that our thoughts on the philosophical dimension and the sustainability of the tourism sector will be thought-provoking and further papers will be made in this issue.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The – oriental and western – fragments of philosophy, experience and knowledge will hopefully position the discipline of disabilities and communication, and also life philosophy scrutiny, under the diverse umbrella of the discipline of travelling. The experiment for the extension of the framework of hermeneutics, a special research form of the philosophy of life – aiming to interpret our existence at a given moment of time and history –, together with the methodology of the sustainability analysis, the other focus of our scrutiny, will stand in our opinion the test of science. We do hope, furthermore, that the innovative interpretation frameworks of disabilities and of the provision of accessibility will have their place in both every day and academic discourses. The discipline of travelling has become by now a multidisciplinary convergence point of the mapping of social, philosophical and economic problems and opportunities. This made us write this study, often crossing conventional boundaries, where the main intention was not to find answers to the current events (of being), rather to enrich the never-finished travel book of existence with new questions, in which the listing of the principles of conscious, contemplating, and thereby responsible travel, travel organiser, investor and also social organisation and management behaviour does not go beyond the level of footnotes. The contemplations of our research made us draw the conclusion that sustainability and accessibility are related concepts in the science of tourism. We honestly hope that our paper will be a contribution, no matter how modest, to elevating these principles and practical actions to the level of main chapters from the present position in footnote, reflecting their real conceptual and practical significance.

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[10] Skills and training needs to improve accessibility (2014), Economic impact and travel patterns: accessible tourism (2014), Supply of accessible tourism services in Europe (2015).

[11] Just for this reason, the relevant Hungarian and international recommendations and regulations are insufficient, as they typically emphasise the provision of the access to the physical environment, as if these were entities in their own rights in a modern time society.

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Article history: Received: 07.11.2021 Revised: 03.02.2022 Accepted: 03.03.2022 Available online: 24.03.2022

GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites

Year XV, no. 1, vol. 40, 2022

ISSN 2065-1198
E-ISSN 2065-0817