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Prof. Dr. Azilah Bt Kasim

Co-Guest Editors
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Rozila Ahmad
Dr. Eshaby binti Mustafa



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Asia-Pacific Journal of Innovation in Hospitality and Tourism (APJIHT)

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Faculty of Social Sciences and Leisure Management, under the guidance of the Research and Enterprise Office, Centre for Research and Innovation in Tourism and School of Hospitality, Tourism and Events of Taylor's University publishes a bi-annual, peer reviewed, multi-disciplinary journal.

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FOREWORD

The issue of sustainability has never been more relevant than today as many negative environmental impacts such as pollution of natural resources and large carbon footprints are becoming more pronounced. This is attributed to the activities and greed of humans who do not appreciate the natural environment. It is therefore critical for aspects that are directly or indirectly related to United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to be discussed by academics as well as the industry. Held virtually on 27-28 September 2020, Langkawi Tourism and Hospitality International Conference (LTHIC 2020) was organised by Universiti Utara Malaysia's School of Education's (SOE) Langkawi International Tourism and Hospitality (LITH) Research Centre dan School of Tourism, Hospitality and Event Management's (STHEM) Event Management Research Unit (EMRU), with the collaboration of Sekolah Tinggi Pariwisata Mataram, Lombok, Indonesia.

The conference has several goals, namely as a platform for the development of new ideas as well as knowledge sharing on sustainable development from local and foreign experts in related fields. The conference also provided an opportunity for academics, industry activists, postgraduate students, and stakeholders to exchange views and discuss the salient and insightful points raised on the sustainability of the tourism and hospitality industry. Originally planned to be held in Langkawi, Kedah, the conference was finally held virtually due to the COVID-19 pandemic. This conference was participated by academics from various local and overseas institutions including Sekolah Tinggi Pariwisata Mataram, University of Baltistan, Skardu, University of Santo Tomas, Universitas Negeri Padang, Politeknik Pariwisata Palembang, Nakhon Si Thammarat Rajabhat University, Politeknik Tuanku Syed Sirajuddin as well as staff and students of Universiti Utara Malaysia. The conference produced 30 full papers that have been published in this journal.

Professor Dr. Azilah Kasim, CHT, C.NLP

*Chairperson, Langkawi Tourism and Hospitality International Conference 2020
(LTHIC 2020)*

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The Moderating Effects of Compensation on Motivation and Performance: A Case Study of Fast-food Employees in Malaysia

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Abstract: Motivation is a critical issue that is closely related to performance. In the context of fast-food employees in Malaysia, limited studies have examined the influence of motivation on performance, and the effects of compensation as a moderating variable. Thus, this study firstly, investigates the influence of motivation on performance and secondly, explores the moderating role of compensation. A quantitative study was employed and a single cross-sectional study was conducted. A total of 688 fast-food employees responded to the questionnaire survey. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis results reveal that motivation, including intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, influences performance significantly and positively, while compensation moderates all of these relationships. These findings show that it is essential for fast-food organisations to keep motivating their employees in order to ensure better quality of performance. It is recommended that a decent compensation package be provided for the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of employees to be continuous. This compensation does not only increase motivation, but it also leads to increased performance. As such, this study provides useful empirical knowledge on the attributes of improving the performance of employees in the context of the Malaysian fast-food industry in particular.

Keywords: Compensation, extrinsic, intrinsic, motivation, performance

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Introduction

In today's highly competitive economy, many organisations need dedicated, well-qualified and capable employees to succeed and to accomplish their organisational objectives (Khosa, Rehman, Asad, Bilal, & Hussain, 2015). Hence, evaluation of employees' performance is critical to ensure that an organisation is continuously successful, as it is an essential tool for organisational leaders and decision makers (Chien, Mao, Nergui, & Chang, 2020). The importance of employee performance has been highlighted in the research of various fields, including organisational management, organisational psychology, and occupational health (Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, Schaufeli, Vet, & Beek, 2011). One of the key factors that is closely related to employee performance is employee motivation (Chien et al., 2020; Hossain & Hossain, 2012). Employee motivation enhances employee performance (Friedman, Carmeli, & Dutton, 2018). On the contrary, if employees have low self-motivation, they will perform poorly at work (Hossain & Hossain, 2012). It is therefore essential for managers to keep motivating their employees. Besides that, one of the elements that has received little attention is employee compensation. One of the common objectives of being employed is to earn through compensation (Gunawan & Amalia, 2015). Therefore, an attractive compensation package is a valuable tool for managers and the fast-food organisation and it plays a significant part in improving employee performance (Muogbo, 2013).

Employee motivation is considered a critical factor that needs more attention in the context of fast-food restaurants compared to traditional restaurants, due to the high demand of fast-food restaurants in Malaysia's growing industry (Kumar, Ramendran, & Yacob, 2012). The number of fast-food restaurants is increasing phenomenally, and these entities are considered one of the highest contributors towards the country's economy (Basnayake, Arunachalam, & Hassan, 2015; Euromonitor International, 2016). In addition, the service sector's share of gross domestic product (GDP) had also increased from 2014 to 2016 by 17.83% (Central Bank of Malaysia, 2016), which indicates that the food business is growing and that the consumption of fast food is well-accepted by Malaysians. Therefore, a study on employee motivation and performance at fast-food restaurants can produce results that could potentially boost profits and revenues for the companies as well as the national GDP (Chien et al., 2020; Norbu & Wetprasit, 2020). This is consistent with the purpose of the United Nations (2020) which stated that, for developing countries such as Malaysia, the sustained economic growth per capita must achieve at least 7% GDP per year. In light of these facts, the tourism and hospitality industry has contributed 10% of the world's GDP and one in every 10 people in the world is employed in this sector (Norbu & Wetprasit, 2020). With the rapid development of the tourism and hospitality sector, the lack of human capital will

definitely be faced by the industry and it is important to address human resource problems to create a healthy tourism and hospitality sector (Norbu & Wetprasit, 2020). The restaurant industry is also part of the tourism and hospitality sector that relies heavily on human resources to achieve its business goals and maintain competitive advantage.

Many researchers have examined the relationship between employee motivation and performance (Aarabi, Subramaniam, & Akeel, 2013; Chien et al., 2020; Vito, Brown, Bannister, Cianci, & Mujtaba, 2016). However, very limited studies have investigated the influence of employee motivation on employee performance in the context of fast-food restaurants in Malaysia. Moreover, Hossain and Hossain (2012) and Aarabi et al. (2013) suggested that future research should include other motivational factors besides company administration, pay, personal growth, recognition, supervisor relation, and the work itself, and should also be carried out on a larger sample to increase generalisability of the findings. Hence, this study hopes to fill this gap and to apply Herzberg's two-factor theory to measure employee motivation and performance.

Ukandu and Ukpere (2014) considered Herzberg's two-factor theory as one of the most substantial theories of motivation because they believe that employees are motivated by internal values (intrinsic motivation) and external values (extrinsic motivation). Swanepoel, Erasmus, Wyk, and Schenk (2003) stated that Herzberg's theory examined the question of "What do people want from their jobs?" which is consistent with the operational definition of this study. Herzberg's two-factor theory classifies motivation into two factors: motivator and hygiene. The six motivator factors include achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and personal growth, while the nine hygiene factors are company policy and administration, supervision, relationship with supervisor, working conditions, salary, relationship with peers, personal life, job status, and job security. However, only a limited number of studies have used compensation as a moderator to analyse the relationship between motivation and performance (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Little attention has been given to whether or how the hospitality industry is influenced by compensation (Kim & Jang, 2020). In this regard, studying the compensation effect on the hospitality industry can provide a deeper understanding of how compensation influences personnel psychology and their performance in the hospitality industry (Kim & Jang, 2020).

Therefore, the main aims of this study are (1) to examine the influence of employee motivation (including intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation) on employee performance, and (2) to examine the moderating effect of employee compensation on the relationship between employee motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic motivations) and performance in the context of fast-food restaurants.

Literature Review

Employee Motivation

According to Chien et al. (2020), understanding the way work motivation influences employee performance would provide significant managerial options for managers and owners. Motivation originates from the Latin word *movere*, which means “to move” (Norbu & Wetprasit, 2020). It is a direction and passion of one’s exertion or the mental component feature that entices an individual to act towards a desired objective (Shahzadi, Javed, Pirzada, Nasreen, & Khanam, 2014). Motivation encourages employees to do their job and moves them towards attaining both personal and organisational goals (Chien et al., 2020). Employee motivation improves productivity, consistency, and performance (Azar & Shafiqhi, 2013). However, this is not the case with fast-food restaurants. A majority of the employees at fast-food restaurants have to deal with demanding and hectic work environments, minimum wages, long work hours, inconsistent shifts, unhealthy work relationships, weekend shifts, work overload, inconsiderate and hostile managers, a lack of access to transportation to and from work to attend late shifts, and a lack of employees’ participation in decision-making (Ukandu & Ukpere, 2014). With such a challenging work environment, managers find it difficult to stop employees from leaving their jobs, while employees almost always lack motivation at work. Therefore, it is critical for the managers to motivate the employees in such a work environment.

The effectiveness of motivation is imperative in motivating employees towards their target objectives and organisational goals. Chien et al. (2020) stated that there is a positive relationship between motivation and employee performance. This is supported by Nabi, Islam, Dip, and Hasain (2017) who claimed that motivation influences employee performance. Shahzadi et al. (2014) also showed that a significant and positive relationship exists between these two variables. Based on the review of the literature, it can be hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant and positive relationship between employee motivation and employee performance.

According to Sobaih and Hasanein (2020) and Hyun and Oh (2011), they mentioned that Herzberg’s two-factor theory is not readily applicable to all kinds of organisations. In addition, Herzberg’s two-factor theory needs to be re-examined before being included in the service industry, such as restaurant services (Sobaih & Hasanein, 2020). In this regard, motivation is a multidimensional construct that comprises intrinsic and extrinsic motivations (Herzberg, 1987; Hossain & Hossain, 2012). Intrinsic motivation factors are those that satisfy humans’ psychological needs (Norbu & Wetprasit, 2020). Intrinsic motivation is a result of an individual’s feelings

of enjoyment, interest, satisfaction of a curiosity, and self-expression or a personal challenge at work (Amabile, 1993). Intrinsic motivation such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, the work itself, advancement, and personal growth are achieved by delivering a superior performance of work (Griffin, 2008). On the other hand, extrinsic motivation factors are related to the fulfilment of working conditions and environment (Norbu & Wetprasisit, 2020). Extrinsic motivation is generally more tangible and is represented by basic needs, such as working conditions, physical environment, job security, career advancement, and interpersonal relations.

It is difficult for any manager to unearth how to create and sustain employee motivation (Dobre, 2013). Managers must be observant to factors such as work environment, pay, supervision, and subordinate relationship that can cause a drop in employee performance. Additionally, they need to motivate the employees in terms of achievement, recognition, responsibility, and the work itself. Schultz, Bagraim, Potgieter, Viedge, and Werner (2003) proposed a few approaches to increase motivation in the fast-food industry, including providing an appropriate acknowledgement and reward system, effective training and skills development, and employee development prospects. Moreover, as illustrated by Herzberg (1968), employees will perform when the work itself is stimulating and when there is an offer of allowance for additional responsibility, recognition, and advancement. Therefore, this study hypothesises that:

Hypothesis 1a: There is a significant and positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and employee performance.

Hypothesis 1b: There is a significant and positive relationship between extrinsic motivation and employee performance.

Employee Compensation in a Moderating Role

According to Kim and Jang (2019), compensation influences employee behaviour as well as organisational functioning, and has a substantial influence on employee performance. However, to date, limited efforts have been made to understand the effects of compensation on the restaurant industry. The restaurant industry is heavily dependent on its employees to generate profit, and the employees are a necessary resource for achieving inimitable competitiveness (Di Pietro, Kline, & Nierop, 2014). This suggests that the impact of compensation may be more critical to the restaurant industry, due to its influence on employees. Employee compensation refers to the benefits that organisations provide to their employees, including basic salary, short- and long-term incentives, bonuses, and different types of compensations (Guillet, Kucukusta, & Xiao, 2012). Most organisations stimulate a high level of performance among employees by providing wages, promotions, bonuses, compensations, and different types of rewards (Aarabi et al., 2013; Umar, 2012). Compensation also plays a moderating role in other relationships at work. For instance, Wheatley and

Doty (2010) examined compensation as a moderator in the innovation strategy and performance relationship based on risk and time horizon. They found that the relationship was moderated by bonuses and options-granted compensation. In another study, Taylor, Davis, and Jillapalli (2009) found that compensation moderated trust and privacy. This is also supported by Demerouti, Bakker, and Leiter (2014) who discovered that compensation significantly moderated burnout and job performance. However, these studies did not address compensation as a moderating variable between employee motivation and performance. Based on the discussion above, the following hypotheses are highlighted:

Hypothesis 2: Employee compensation moderates the relationship between employee motivation and employee performance.

Hypothesis 2a: Employee compensation moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and employee performance.

Hypothesis 2b: Employee compensation moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and employee performance.

Employee Performance

Many organisations strive to be competitive in the industry of tourism and hospitality and continue to seek knowledge to increase employees' performance (Wu, Sears, Coberley, & Pope, 2016). More information is needed to assess employee performance at different stages, such as improvement, deterioration, and stagnancy (Omar, Selo, & Rafie, 2020). Therefore, managers not only need to understand the meaning of performance, but also the factors that influence performance, performance measuring methods, and when it can be measured (Szilagyi, 1984). After all, performance is a complex element which involves more than simply "doing things right" or "doing the right thing" (Pretorius, 2008). The prominent issue in many business environments and corporations is the individual employee's performance. Many organisations have put forward admirable attempts to evaluate and oversee it (Armstrong & Baron, 1998). Generally, the purpose of a performance evaluation is to offer an accurate measurement of an individual's performance and the information acquired will guide the decisions that will be made on the future of the employee (Ajila & Abiola, 2004). With this, one can compare one's performance with that of others, and the self-assessment helps individuals to realise their own weaknesses and the types of skills they need to learn and improve (Chien et al., 2020).

Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework of this study. The independent variable is employee motivation that comprises intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation.

The dependent variable is employee performance; meanwhile, the moderating variable is employee compensation.

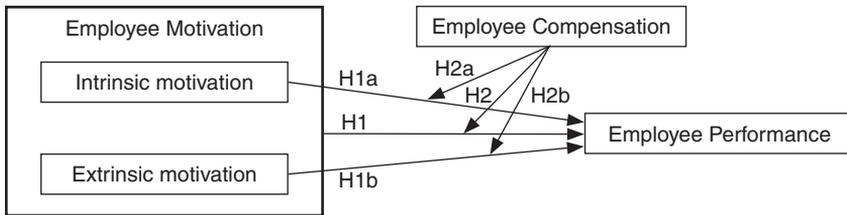


Figure 1. Conceptual framework of the study

Materials and Methods

Population and Sample

This study employed a quantitative, single cross-sectional, questionnaire survey method. The total population of this study was 6,497 employees working in four fast-food restaurant brands located in Kuala Lumpur and Selangor, Malaysia. Kuala Lumpur and Selangor were chosen due to the high number of restaurants and employees who are working at these locations compared to other places. Based on the table for determining sample size by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), the minimum sample required was 361 respondents. Stratified random sampling was used, and this study focused on non-managerial fast-food employees who are working as supervisors, cashiers, cooks, floor crew, and riders. With assistance from the restaurant managers, 688 questionnaires were returned which gave a total response rate of 95%.

Questionnaire Development

The questionnaire was adapted from previous studies. Notably, the questionnaire on employee performance was adapted from Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, Buuren, Beek, and Vet (2014) with 19 items. Meanwhile, the questionnaire on employee motivation was adapted from several authors: Dunnette, Campbell, and Hakel (1967), Graen (1966), Pasuwan (1972), Smerek and Peterson (2007), and Tan and Waheed (2011), which were based on the Theory of Herzberg's Two Factors (1959) with intrinsic motivation (18 items) and extrinsic motivation (24 items). The questionnaire on employee compensation was adapted from Ahmad (2013) with 15 items. All items were measured using a five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 to 5; with 1 indicating 'Strongly disagree' and 5 indicating 'Strongly agree'.

The back-translation method introduced by Brislin (1986) was used. The questionnaire was originally in English, then translated into the Malay language, and later retranslated into English to ensure its accuracy. The questionnaire employed

two languages, namely the English language and Malay language, to ensure better clarity and to help the respondents to answer the questionnaire more effectively. In this regard, four translators were approached to ensure the quality, the accuracy, and zero occurrence of ambiguity for both languages.

In terms of validity, six content experts reviewed the content of the instrument with the aims of eliminating totally irrelevant questionnaire items and rephrasing or supplying new wording for items related to the measured constructs where necessary (Hyrkäs, Appelqvist-Schmidlechner, & Oksa, 2003). For reliability, the results indicated that all items were reliable. Specifically, the reliability of the employee performance construct showed a Cronbach alpha coefficient value of 0.821, while the reliability of the employee motivation construct—which comprises intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation—were 0.823 and 0.946, respectively. And finally, the reliability of the employee compensation construct showed a Cronbach alpha coefficient value of 0.824.

Data Collection Procedure

This study employed a survey method to collect the data. Pens and printed self-administered questionnaires (SAQs) were provided to respondents. The cover letter attached to the questionnaires clarified the aims of the study, and the consent of the respondents were voluntary. The researcher circulated the questionnaires with the help of the restaurant managers.

Data Analysis Procedures

The statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) was applied to analyse the respondents' data, and it is appropriate to be used to answer the research objectives. The descriptive statistics was based on the analysis of frequency and percentage. The Cronbach's alpha was used to confirm the reliability of the data and the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed for hypotheses testing following the method used by Lei and Chen (2020).

Results

Respondents' Profile

Based on the analysis, a majority of the respondents were male employees, comprising 61.30%, while 38.70% of the respondents were female employees. In terms of age, 55.50% of the respondents were aged between 21 and 30 years old, followed by 27.90% aged 20 and below. The third group with 16.40% of the respondents were aged between 31 and 40 years old, and the smallest group at only 0.10% was made up of one employee aged 41 to 50 years old. The next set of data was related to

the employees' nationality. Since this study was conducted in Malaysia, Malaysians made up the largest group of respondents, comprising 81.80%. The remaining respondents were Nepalese (3.20%), Bangladeshis (5.40%), Pakistanis (8.10%), and Filipinos (1.50%). As for the job position at the workplace, 83.40% of the respondents were floor crew, followed by 16.60% who were supervisors. A summary of the respondents' profile is given in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary of the respondents' profile

Demographic	Particular	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	422	61.30
	Female	266	38.70
Age	20 years old and below	192	27.90
	21–30 years old	382	55.50
	31–40 years old	113	16.40
	41–50 years old	1	0.10
Nationality	Malaysian	563	81.80
	Nepalese	22	3.20
	Bangladeshi	37	5.40
	Pakistani	56	8.10
	Filipino	10	1.50
Job position	Crew	574	83.40
	Supervisor	114	16.60

The Relationship Between Employee Motivation and Performance and the Moderation Effect of Employee Compensation

Prior to conducting the regression analysis, the preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity. In this regard, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to measure these hypotheses. In Step 1, the predictor employee motivation accounted for 21.60% $F(1.686) = 189.164, p < 0.001$ of the variances in employee performance. The beta value ($\beta = 0.465, p < 0.000^{***}$) demonstrated that employee motivation had a substantial influence on employee performance. Hypothesis 1 is, thus, strongly supported. In Step 2, improvement was seen when employee compensation was added and explained 21.90% $F(2.685) = 96.168$ of the total variances in employee performance. However, the model is insignificant, since the p -value is larger than the significant value ($p > 0.05$). Finally, in Step 3, the interaction terms of employee motivation \times employee compensation were entered into the model to test its moderating effect. The result indicated that the total variances explained by the model was 22.70% $F(3.684) = 66.958, p < 0.001$. The control measure explained an additional 0.80% of the variances in employee performance. In the final model, the interaction terms of employee motivation \times

employee compensation produced a significant result ($p > 0.05$). Hence, Hypothesis 2 is supported. Table 2 exhibits the results.

Table 2. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis

Dependent variable	Step	Model	β	R^2	R^2 change	F	p -Value
Employee performance	1	(Constant)		.216	.216	189.164	.000***
		MV	.465				.000***
	2	(Constant)		.217	.003	96.168	.000***
		MV	.500				.000***
		CO	-.066				.101
	3	(Constant)		.227	.008	66.958	.000***
		MV	-.090				.694
		CO	-.687				.004**
		MV \times CO	1.065				.009**

Note: MV = motivation; CO = compensation * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

The Relationship of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations on Employee Performance and the Moderation Effect of Employee Compensation

Similarly, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was also utilised to measure these hypotheses. In Step 1, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations were used to test the main effects of employee performance and explained 22.10% $F(2,685) = 97.071$, $p < 0.001$ of the variances in employee performance. The beta value ($\beta = 0.259$, $p < 0.000$ ***) demonstrated that intrinsic motivation had a significant contribution towards employee performance. Therefore, the first sub-hypothesis (Hypothesis 1a) is strongly supported. Furthermore, the beta value of extrinsic motivation ($\beta = 0.249$, $p < 0.000$ ***) also showed a strong contribution towards employee performance. Therefore, the second sub-hypothesis (Hypothesis 1b) is also strongly supported.

In Step 2, there was a significant improvement when employee compensation was added to the model, explaining 22.30% $F(3,684) = 65.513$ of the total variances in employee performance. However, the model is not significant, due to the p -value being larger than the significant value ($p > 0.05$). Next, in Step 3, the interaction terms of intrinsic motivation \times employee compensation, and extrinsic motivation \times employee compensation, were entered into the model to test the moderating effect. The result indicated that the total variances explained by the model as a whole was 24.50% $F(5,682) = 44.326$, $p < 0.001$. The control measure explained an additional 2.20% of the variances in employee performance. Consequently, the final model indicated that the interaction terms of intrinsic motivation \times employee compensation and extrinsic motivation \times employee compensation were significant ($p < 0.001$). Hence, Hypothesis 2a and Hypothesis 2b are supported. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Results of hierarchical multiple regression analysis

Dependent variable	Step	Model	β	R^2	R^2 change	F	p -Value
Employee performance	1	(Constant)		.221	.221	97.071	.000***
		IM	.259		.000***		
		EM	.249		.000***		
	2	(Constant)		.223	.002	65.513	.000***
		IM	.264		.000***		
		EM	.277		.000***		
		CO	-.058		.149		
	3	(Constant)		.245	.022	44.326	.036**
		IM	1.211		.000***		
		EM	1.108		.000***		
		CO	.044		.885		
		IM \times CO	1.923		.003**		
		EM \times CO	2.290		.000***		

Note: IM = intrinsic motivation; EM = extrinsic motivation; CO = compensation * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

Discussion

This study shows employee motivation is the antecedent of employee performance, which is consistent with the studies done by Azar and Shafiqhi (2013) and Oosthuizen (2001). As expected, the findings support the theory of work performance which mentioned that employee motivation is one of the crucial elements that influences employee performance (Blumberg & Pringle, 1982). Furthermore, this study demonstrates the existence of a strong and positive influence of employee motivation on employee performance, thus making it essential for fast-food organisations to keep motivating their employees in order to get better quality work performance. As suggested by Shahzadi et al. (2014) and Hazra, Ghosh, and Sengupta (2015), motivating employees would boost and increase the productivity and effectiveness of the company. In addition, Schultz et al. (2003) in their study also agreed that the organisation and manager should continue motivating their employees consistently to achieve organisational goals and reduce employee turnover. Moreover, motivated employees will usually work harder and try to improve themselves in every aspect (Ukandu & Ukpere, 2013).

This study also supports the fact that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations significantly and positively influence employee performance, which is in line with the studies done by Afful-Broni (2004) and Tan, Mansor, and Tat (2014). Therefore, improvements made on intrinsic motivations, such as employee achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth will increase

the employees' performance. Similarly, improvements on aspects of extrinsic motivation, such as company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, relationship with supervisor and peers, salary, job status, and job security, will also improve employee performance. This implies that the organisation should pay more attention to the aspects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations to sustain and improve their employees' performance. In addition, the results also show that extrinsic motivation is the best predictor of employees' performance compared to intrinsic motivation. Although this result is in line with that of Hyun and Oh (2011), it contradicts with those of Tan et al. (2014) which concludes that intrinsic motivation has a higher influence on employee performance. This could probably be because fast-food employees are more contented with extrinsic motivation rather than the intrinsic motivation provided by the company. Hence, the present study suggests that organisations should maintain the present level of extrinsic motivation and heighten the employees' intrinsic motivation instead.

In terms of employee compensation as a moderator, the results indicate employee compensation significantly moderates the relationship between employee motivation and performance. Moreover, the outcomes also highlight that employee compensation has an impact on both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, consequently affecting employee performance. These results are consistent with the studies done by Wheatley and Doty (2010) and Demerouti et al. (2014) which found that compensation plays an imperative role as a moderating variable. The implication is that fast-food employees realise that the compensation they receive has an impact on both their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, as well as their performance. It is suggested that companies should provide an adequate compensation package to their employees, so that the latter are always motivated to perform their best at work. This is aligned with Kim and Jang (2019) who stated that the organisation has to pay its employees more in order to obtain greater motivation from the employees. In other words, employees produce better work and put in more effort due to the extra increment of their compensation (Kim & Jang, 2019). Therefore, companies need to enhance their compensation packages based on some of the following factors: external competitiveness, compensation based on performance, incentive-based mix, and openness and participation of the employees. This is in line with the concerns of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) about the existing labour situation. The SDGs suggest that companies need to increase the productivity of their employees. In addition, for developing countries, they need to achieve sustainable development goals by providing assistance in strengthening jobs and generating sustainable income for the employees.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

From the theoretical perspective, the study found that employee motivation is a part of the predictors that influence employee performance, as suggested by the theory

of work performance. The study also confirms that intrinsic motivation comprises achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth, while extrinsic motivation consists of company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, relationship with supervisor and peers, salary, job status, and job security, which are all strong elements of the Herzberg's two-factor theory. It is, therefore, proposed that employee motivation should be imperative in developing and promoting better performance among fast-food employees in Malaysia. Consequently, companies and managers should use these elements to continue motivating and improving their employees' performance.

In terms of knowledge contribution, this study adds to the literature on fast-food industry management in Malaysia and also fulfils the gap identified in this study, which is the understanding of employee compensation as a moderating variable. As highlighted earlier, little is known about the moderating effect of employee compensation. Thus, this study discovers that employee compensation significantly moderates the relationship between employee motivation and performance and also the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations on employee performance. The moderating role of compensation is further reinforced by the significant role of compensation on the motivation–performance relationship, implying that the Herzberg's two-factor theory supports the existence of employee compensation in the Malaysian context.

In terms of practical contribution, this study serves as a guideline for companies and managers to have a wider and deeper understanding of their employees' perspectives of motivation, compensation, and performance. Managers may be able to improve employee performance in practice by ensuring that employees receive fair and adequate motivation. In addition, managers are also encouraged to give special attention to employees' achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. Managers should also continuously gather employees' feedback on company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, their relationship with supervisor and peers, salary offered, personal life, job status, and job security in order to warrant that the employees are well taken care of. Consequently, this will motivate the employees to improve their performance.

Conclusion

To summarise, this study empirically demonstrates and supports the relationship between employee motivation and performance as perceived by fast-food employees. Consequently, it contributes to the understanding of employee performance, both in the literature and in practice. It reveals that the elements of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are crucial in improving employee performance, specifically in the context of the fast-food industry. It also shows that employee compensation is a

moderator in this relationship, consequently suggesting that improvements made to compensation would directly improve employee performance.

However, this study has several limitations. Firstly, it relied solely on employees' feedback which might create biasness in the questionnaire responses. Hence, in any future research, it is recommended that controllable determinants are imposed on employee performance. Secondly, the study focused only on the non-managerial employees at fast-food restaurants, thus making the findings unrepresentative of managerial employees, and other industries. The suggestion is for similar studies that are replicated for other industries and managerial levels.

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Empirical Paper

The Effects of Quality of Work Life on Job Performance, Work Motivation, Work Ethics, Job Satisfaction, and Self-efficacy of Hotel Employees in Lombok

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Abstract: One of the sustainable development goals (SDGs) on the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development is to devise policies to promote sustainable tourism and productive employment by 2030. Hotel management have to pay attention to the quality of work life (QWL). It is a system of work in which employees are able to satisfy their vital personal needs. This system focuses on enhancing the employees' QWL and balancing their work and personal life. However, many other variables affect QWL, mostly in the hotel industry. The objective of this study is to find out the effects of QWL on job performance, work motivation, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work ethics of hotel employees in Lombok, Indonesia. The data was obtained from 150 employees working at four-star hotels in the area. The study found a significant relationship between QWL and work motivation, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work ethics. The results supported previous research, in that they concur QWL and work motivation, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work ethics do affect each other. The human resource department of hotels in Lombok needs to improve several aspects of the QWL, such as by providing a fair and appropriate salary, a better work environment, self-improvement trainings, and employee assistance programmes. Therefore, it is highly recommended that hotel managements and human resource departments in Lombok implement ideal QWL programmes to improve their employees' productivity and performance.

Keywords: Quality of work life, performance, work motivation, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, work ethics

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Introduction

The hotel industry and tourism are closely related and a significant source of employment nowadays. They are linked socially and economically, especially in developing countries. One of the sustainable development goals (SDGs) is to devise policies that promote sustainable tourism by 2030. According to the details of the SDGs, which promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, the provision of full and productive employment and decent work for all is related to hotel employee management. Therefore, it is necessary to manage the hotel industry, especially in terms of how hotels manage their employees, to support the development of sustainable tourism, particularly in developing countries. The hotel industry, as an accommodation industry, mostly provides customers with the best service to satisfy their needs during a hotel stay. Hotel management should ensure that this service meets the expectations of the guests. The quality of the employee will affect the quality level of the service; this is in line with tourism principles, which lie in service quality. It was confirmed that service quality is mostly decided by the competitive advantage in humans (Vučetić, 2012, as cited in Idrus, Alhabji, Musadieq, & Utami, 2015). Therefore, it is vital for hotel management to acquire and develop competent employees, as they are an essential resource. Hotels are also required to manage their employees at work, so that they can work comfortably. An employee works not only to earn money, but also to meet other needs, such as the need to be respected, form social bonds, and feel competent in the working environment (Nuari, 2016). Thus, managing and retaining hotel employees in this industry will facilitate in providing excellent service.

One of the efforts to manage employees in order to work comfortably and to increase work productivity while meeting the needs of employees is by implementing quality of work life (Siagian, 2004). Quality of work life (QWL) is one of the factors that affects employee performance. In Indonesia, the quality of working life is minimally fulfilled by implementing Law No. 13, 2003, for employment which regulates equal opportunity and treatment, job training, work relations, employee protection, wages, employee welfare, and industrial relations.

Quality of work life can be attained if employees acquire appreciation in the workplace, take part in decision making, and have the opportunity for self-development. Their QWL also influences their motivation to work as workers. Employees who are not motivated will obviously fail to provide the utmost service to the customers. High motivation will generate responsibility in every task (Pratiwi & Himam, 2014). Additionally, it is crucial for companies to implement proper quality of work to ensure that their best employees continue to work with high motivation and performance. Employees would work with high motivation and performance in a company that implements excellent QWL programmes, such as adequate oversight,

good working environment, good salary and benefits, rewards, and challenging tasks (Werther & Davis, 1993).

Furthermore, Sari, Bendesa, and Antara (2019) found that QWL has a strong effect on the hotel employees' performance in Ubud, Bali. A significant impact is shown by the effect of QWL on motivation and job satisfaction, and a significant influence is demonstrated by the satisfaction and motivation variables towards job performance. Employees with high motivation and satisfaction in their workplace will improve their job performance. Job satisfaction is part of life satisfaction; if individuals have satisfaction in their work, their performance will then increase (Gibson, Ivancevich, & Donnelly, 2008). In particular, these employees will have high motivation and willingness to provide great service, so it is said that human resource empowerment has the strongest influence to improve organisational performance (Sutawa, Bendesa, & Madiun, 2014).

In relation to self-efficacy, Bandura (1997) stated that an individual's self-endurance to confront difficulties and overcome problems is affected by self-efficacy; a person with high self-efficacy generally sees a tough job as a challenge. When an employee has greater self-efficacy, the person's confidence in their ability to succeed in carrying out a task is higher. In challenging situations, a person with low self-efficacy tends to make less effort or surrender. Those with high self-efficacy will do more to resolve a problem at work and display quality job performance (Mensah & Lebbaeus, 2013; Newman, Ucbasaran, Zhu, & Hirst, 2014). Hotel management have to focus on satisfying the employees and provide a quality work life to maintain productive and devoted employees (Ismail, Wahab, Ismail, & Latiff, 2019).

Therefore, due to the importance of the QWL on employees work performance, the relation of QWL with other variables should be explored. Based on the organisational behaviour (OB) theory and the concept of maintaining employees in organisations, five variables (job performance, work motivation, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work ethics) in relation to QWL (focus of this research) were selected for this study, in accordance with previous studies. Some of the previous studies related to QWL showed different results for different variables with QWL. However, there is no research in the existing literature which investigates the relationships among QWL, job performance, work motivation, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work ethics together. Consequently, this study investigates the effects of QWL on work motivation, self-efficacy, job satisfaction, work ethics, and job performance of hotel employees. This study attempts to contribute to the existing literature findings by filling several gaps in QWL research by means of adding self-efficacy and work ethics which were rarely investigated in previous studies.

Literature Review

Organisational Behaviour Theory

The fundamental theory used in this research is the organisational behaviour (OB) theory. In this study, OB theory helped in investigating what caused employees and organisations to succeed and how innovative approaches can be implemented to achieve their goals. Organisational behaviour investigates the effect of individuals or groups in an organisation in order to implement the knowledge to enhance organisational effectiveness (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Organisational behaviour is concerned with human behaviour in an organisation. The first aspect involves the influence of the organisation on humans, while the second aspect comprises the influence of humans on the organisation. This understanding is in accordance with Kelly's formulation in her book, *Organisational Behaviour*, which explained that OB includes interactions and relationships between organisations and individual behaviour (Wexley & Yuki, 2005). Organisational behaviour studies three determinants in organisations, namely individuals, groups, and structures. Organisational behaviour believes that behaviour is associated with the work activities and work results of organisational members. Organisational behaviour consists of a combination of theories and models as "ways of thinking" about a phenomenon. Organisational behaviour is used to solve various problems of human behaviour in an organisation. Therefore, the OB theory was used to understand the variable construct in this study, that is, job performance, work motivation, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work ethics cannot be separated from human behaviour.

Quality of Work Life

Quality of work life (QWL) programmes originally emphasised female employees' needs, and was later expanded to all employees. The development of QWL is aimed at maintaining the proportion of work in line with the needs, interests, and pressures encountered by employees, so that it is useful for maximising company productivity and reducing workers turnover (Koonmee, Singhapakdi, Virakul, & Lee, 2010). According to Walton (1975) in Horst, Broday, Bondarick, Serpe, and Pilatti (2014), there are eight indicators in the QWL, namely (a) safe and healthy working conditions, (b) social integration in the work organisation, (c) immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities, (d) adequate and fair compensation, (e) work and total life space, (f) opportunity for continued growth and development, (g) constitutionalism in the work organisation (which relates to the personal rights of employees), and (h) the social relevance of work life.

Employee Performance

Nawawi and Hadari (2016, p. 63) stated that job performance is something which is achieved, the achievements that are shown, and the willingness of work. Job

performance is said to be high if a work target can be completed effectively and efficiently. Research on job performance showed that employee performance was influenced by individual factors, organisational factors, and psychological factors. Individual factors are inherent characteristics in an individual, such as level of education, competence, and commitment. Organisational factors are inherent characteristics in an organisation, such as the leadership style, internal control, and organisational structure or level of decentralisation. Meanwhile, psychological factors consist of motivation, locus of control or the ability to control oneself, and the desire to always be ahead. This study's employee performance indicators were based on Robbins (2006) and Suyadi (1999) that consisted of quantity of work, quality of work, work discipline, effectiveness, timeliness, and responsibility.

Quality of Work Life and Employee Performance

Previous studies revealed that there was a positive influence of quality of work life (QWL) on employee performance. Some factors such as rewards, work support, stimulating work, and the opportunity for self-improvement were the main factors, as well as the essential factors of QWL, that drove them to work well (Chanana & Gupta, 2016). The research results by Rahma and Widiartanto (2015) supported that QWL had a significant effect on employee performance. As such, it is hypothesised that:

H1: The quality of work life (QWL) has a significant and positive effect on the job performance of hotel employees in Lombok.

Work Motivation

Robbins and Judge (2013) stated a process that elaborated the intensity, direction, and persistence to accomplish a goal, called motivation. Basically, motivation encourages employees to work hard, so that they can achieve their objectives. This will improve their work performance so that it affects the achievement of company goals. In this study, the motivational factors as a source of satisfaction consisted of five indicators of work motivation from Herzberg (Hasibuan, 2008), namely workspace conditions, salaries, allowances, pleasant supervision, and work performance.

Quality of Work Life and Work Motivation

The study conducted by Astitiani and Surya (2016) showed that the higher the quality of work life (QWL) applied, the higher the work motivation of employees were, which confirmed that the influence of high QWL had a positive effect on work motivation. Similarly, Sari et al. (2019) showed that QWL had a positive and significant influence on the work motivation of five-star hotel employees in Bali.

Therefore, it can be hypothesised that:

H2: The quality of work life (QWL) has a significant and positive effect on the work motivation of hotel employees in Lombok.

H6: Work motivation has a positive and significant effect on job/employee performance of hotel employees in Lombok.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is a person's impression about their capability to do tasks or actions needed to achieve a particular outcome (Bandura, 1997). Bandura (1997, pp. 42–46) argued that individual self-efficacy can be identified from three dimensions, namely the level of individual self-efficacy in doing a different task; breadth (generality), which is related to individual mastery of one's field or job duties; and strength, which emphasised the level of strength or determination related to one's capabilities to accomplish objectives.

Quality of Work Life and Self-efficacy

The results of the study by Mensah and Lebbaeus (2013) found that employees with high self-efficacy displayed excellent job performance. Orgambídez, Borrego, and Vázquez-Aguado (2020) found that self-efficacy was a significant predictor of quality of work life (QWL), although its effects were partially mediated with job satisfaction by work engagement. Therefore, it can be hypothesised that:

H5: The quality of work life (QWL) has a significant and positive effect on the self-efficacy of hotel employees in Lombok.

H9: Self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on job/employee performance of hotel employees in Lombok.

Work Ethics

Sinamo (2005), in his book entitled *8 Etos Kerja Profesional (8 Professional Work Ethics)*, defined work ethic as a set of positive behaviours rooted in belief that is accompanied by a total commitment to the work paradigm. According to Buchori (1994), work ethic can be defined as the attitudes and perspective on work, work habits, and characteristics or traits regarding the work methods of a person, a group of people, or a nation, and it is part of the value system. Therefore, it can be interpreted that work ethic is an attitude and a habit that a person believes in while doing a job.

Quality of Work Life and Work Ethics

Research by Kumari and Dutta (2019), based on correlation data analysis, found

that there was a significant correlation between the quality of work life (QWL) and work ethics. The higher the work ethics were, the higher the employee performance displayed. As such, it can be hypothesised that:

H3: The quality of work life (QWL) has a significant and positive effect on the work ethics of hotel employees in Lombok.

H7: Work ethics have a positive and significant effect on job performance of hotel employees in Lombok.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was expressed by Wexley and Yuki (2005), and Vroom (1964) as cited in As'ad (2004), as a person's feelings, and that work had a positive meaning in the person's life. In this study, the measurement of job satisfaction used the concept of Smith (Robbins, 2001) whereby five dimensions affect a person's job satisfaction, namely (a) the work itself (the extent to which the job provides someone the opportunity to learn in order to attain responsibility in a particular task and challenges for attractive work), (b) payment (the wages a person earns which is proportional to the effort done and is the same as the wages received by other people in the same work position), (c) opportunities for promotion (the opportunity for someone to gain or be promoted to a higher level in the organisation), (d) superiors (the superior's ability to provide technical assistance and support to the work that is the responsibility of subordinates), and (e) colleagues (the extent to which colleagues are technically competent and socially support the duties of other colleagues).

Quality of Work Life and Job Satisfaction

A recent study investigated the impact of quality of work life (QWL) on work outcomes, namely work performance, job satisfaction, and the organisational commitment of employees. Out of the three work outcomes, QWL had more effect on job satisfaction than the others (Usha & Rohini, 2018). Moreover, the study proved that QWL positively affected the employees' job satisfaction (Thirumalvalavan & Ananth, 2017). A comparative study by Nair and Subash (2019) revealed that there was a positive relation between QWL and job satisfaction. Quality of work life and job satisfaction are highly important for all kinds of employees to achieve high productivity. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H4: The quality of work life (QWL) has a significant and positive effect on job satisfaction of hotel employees in Lombok.

H8: Job satisfaction has a positive and significant effect on job performance of hotel employees in Lombok.

Research Method

This research aimed to determine the effect of quality of work life (QWL) on work satisfaction, work motivation, self-efficacy, job performance, and work ethics of hotel employees. This study was conducted in Lombok, West Nusa Tenggara province. Although Lombok is one of Indonesia’s tourism priority destinations with a number of hotels and employees, a study on QWL in the hotel industry is rarely conducted. The population of this study consisted of hotel employees in West Nusa Tenggara province. A stratified proportionate random sampling was used as the sampling technique in this study.

The data was gathered by collecting both primary and secondary data sources. The primary data of this research was collected by distributing a questionnaire to the respondents. The ideal number of samples is between 100 and 200, according to structural equation modeling (SEM). Therefore, the questionnaires were distributed to 150 respondents, which was within the ideal sample size. A Likert scale was used in this research, ranging from a scale of 1 for ‘Strongly disagree’ (with the statement in the questionnaire) to a scale of 5 for ‘Strongly agree’ (to the statement).

The questionnaire of this study was developed based on an extensive literature review of studies to measure employee QWL attributes; it contained the job performance, work motivation, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work ethics variables. For this study, the QWL variable with eight items was adapted from Walton (1975), and consisted of (a) adequate and fair compensation, (b) safe and healthy working conditions, (c) immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities, (d) opportunity for continued growth and development, (e) social integration in the work organisation, (f) constitutionalism in the work organisation, (g) work and total life space, and (h) social relevance of work life. Meanwhile, this study adapted job satisfaction (Robbins, 2001) and motivation from Herzberg (Hasibuan, 2008), where each of the variables consisted of five items. For measuring self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997), this variable comprised three items, whereas for measuring employee performance (Robbins, 2006) and work ethics (Sinamo, 2005), each of the variables consisted of six items. The elements for each of the research variables are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Elements of the research variables

Name of Variables	Elements
Quality of work life/QWL (X1)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Wages (adequate and fair compensation) <li>2. Working conditions (safe and healthy working conditions) <li>3. Self-improvement opportunities (immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities)

Table 1 (con't)

Name of Variables	Elements
	4. Opportunity to growth (opportunity for continued growth and development)
	5. Social relations (social integration in the work organisation)
	6. Personal rights (constitutionalism in the work organisation)
	7. Work and life space (work and total life space)
	8. Social relevance (social relevance of work life)
Job satisfaction (Y1)	1. The work itself
	2. Payment
	3. Promotion opportunity
	4. Leader
	5. Co-workers
Work motivation (Y2)	1. Work environment
	2. Salaries
	3. Allowances
	4. Supervision
	5. Achievement
Self-efficacy (Y3)	1. Degree of work difficulty
	2. Generality
	3. Strength (capability level)
Work ethics (Y4)	1. Honesty
	2. Work value
	3. Work in a team
	4. Work responsibility
	5. Hard work
	6. Energetic
Employee performance (Y5)	1. Work quality
	2. Quantity of work
	3. Punctuality
	4. Effectiveness
	5. Responsibility
	6. Discipline

Before the questionnaire was used, the validity and reliability of the questionnaire items were tested. In this study, SEM was used to measure and analyse the data. Structural equation modeling was chosen for two reasons: first, the model used in this study is a model of causality or influence and relationship and second, SEM has the ability to assign relationships between unobserved constructs (latent variables) and observable variables. The relationship model between variables can be seen in Figure 1.

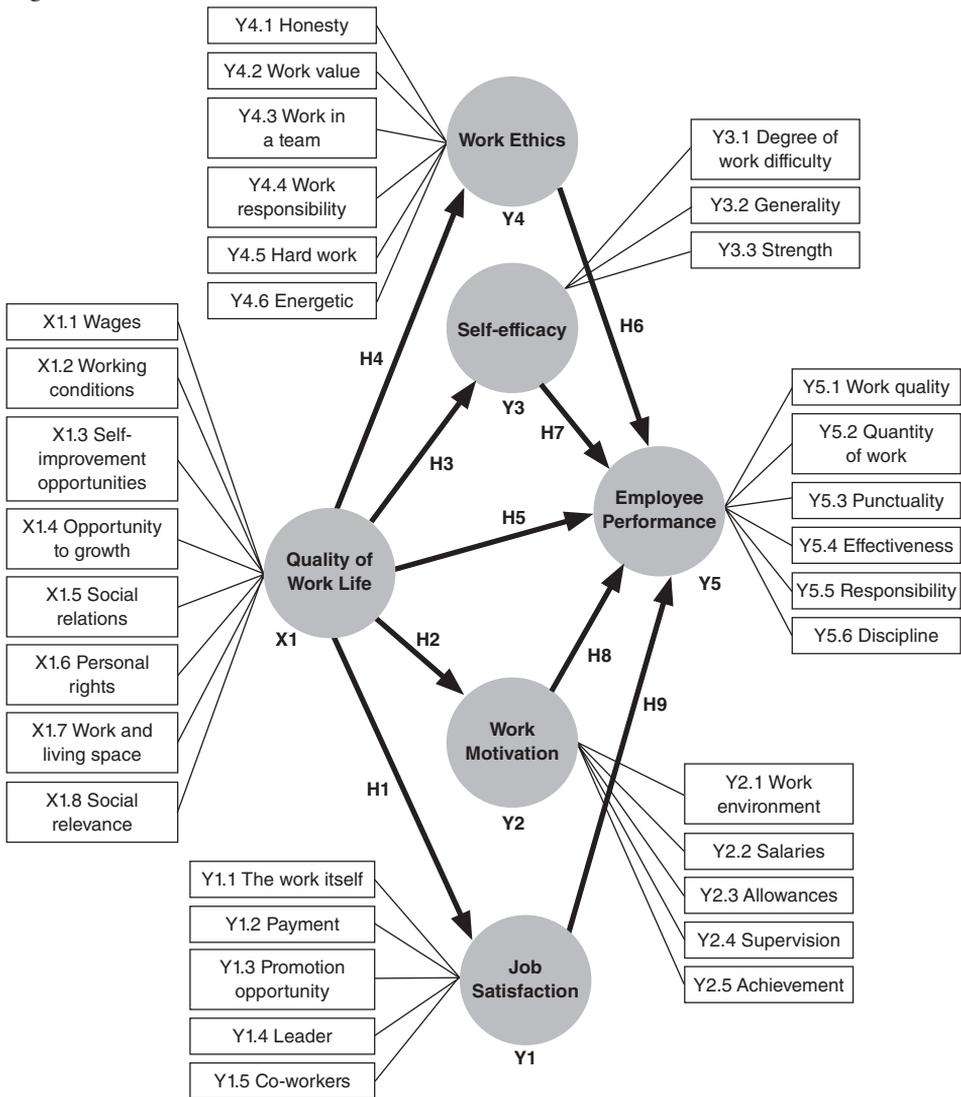


Figure 1. Structural model between variables

Research Findings

This study involved 150 employees from 15 hotels in Lombok, Indonesia. The number of male and female employees designated were equal. The age range of the employees was 25 to 45 years old. The job positions selected as respondents were hotel frontliners (receptionist and bellboy), housekeepers, waiters, kitchen staff, and general managers. The profile of the respondents is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Respondents' profile

Aspects of Profile	Information	Number of Respondents	Percentages (%)
Age	25–30 years old	47	31
	31–40 years old	68	45
	41 years old and over	35	23
Marital status	Married	126	84
	Single	24	16
Gender	Male	75	50
	Female	75	50
Level of education	Secondary education	23	15
	Diploma I–IV	95	63
	University graduate (S1)	32	21
Hotel department	Front office	44	29
	Housekeeping	36	24
	Food and beverage	53	35
	Accounting	17	11

The validity and reliability tests were conducted on the questionnaire items distributed in this research. There were 36 questions in total in this research; all of the questions were tested. The validity and reliability of the instrument was tested using the Cronbach's alpha—all of the variables were tested, and the results of all variables were above 0.80 which is considered high (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). The results portrayed that the Cronbach's alpha value for the whole item is valid for 0.853.

A normality test was conducted before further analysis of the model. Each of the items from the six variables was measured to confirm and evaluate the instrument. The values of skewness and kurtosis were used to check the normal distribution, and they ranged from -1.324 to 1.719. The values of skewness and kurtosis for each variable can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3. Normality test score

Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
Quality of work life (QWL)	-1.120	1.583
Job performance	-0.942	1.418
Work motivation	-1.258	1.361
Work ethics	-0.725	0.982
Job satisfaction	-1.324	1.719
Self-efficacy	-0.871	0.383

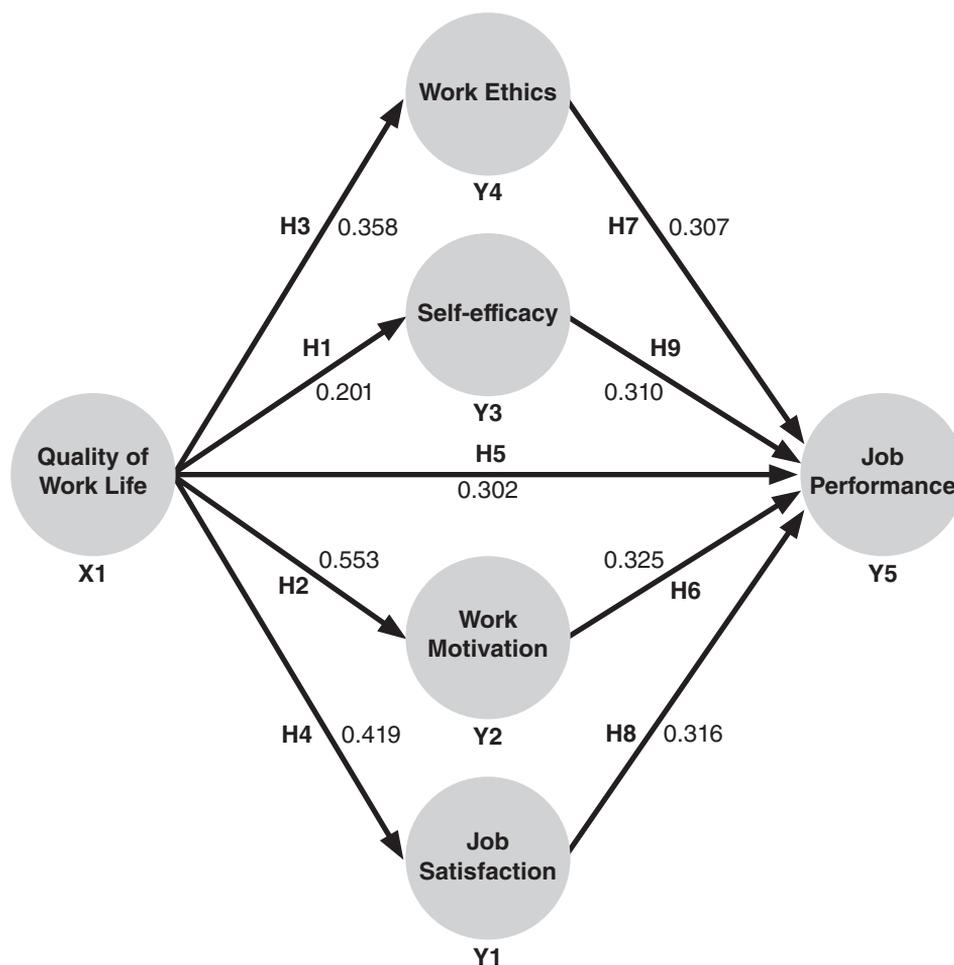


Figure 2. Correlation between quality of work life, job performance, work motivation, work ethics, job satisfaction, and self-efficacy in the structural model

After obtaining the results of the direct influence of each research variable, the total value of the influence of each research variable was assessed. The calculations in this research were done using SPSS AMOS version 22 software. The model of this study was tested as a whole through the overall model fit test or goodness of fit index (GFI). The value of the test showed the suitability between the covariance matrix of the sample and the estimated population covariance matrix. The value of the GFI can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4. Goodness of Fit Index model value

Goodness of Fit Index	Cut-off Value	Model Results	Explanation
Chi-square (X^2)	Expected to be small	178.436	Good
Probability	>0.05	0.152	Good
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	≤0.08	0.020	Good
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	≥0.90	0.915	Good
Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)	≥0.90	0.905	Good
Discrepancy minimum per degree of freedom (CMIN/DF)	≤2.00	1.193	Good
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	≥0.95	0.992	Good
Comparative fit index (CFI)	≥0.95	0.997	Good

Table 5. The effects between quality of work life, job performance, work motivation, work ethics, job satisfaction, and self-efficacy (direct effect)

Hypotheses	Path Directions	Regression Coefficient	C.R.	Estimate
H1	Quality of work life → Job performance	0.315	2.204	0.302
H2	Quality of work life → Work motivation	0.573	6.932	0.553
H3	Quality of work life → Work ethics	0.362	4.653	0.358
H4	Quality of work life → Job satisfaction	0.432	5.233	0.419
H5	Quality of work life → Self-efficacy	0.215	2.953	0.201
H6	Work motivation → Job performance	0.353	4.735	0.325
H7	Work ethics → Job performance	0.322	4.122	0.307
H8	Job satisfaction → Job performance	0.334	4.452	0.316
H9	Self-efficacy → Job performance	0.325	4.305	0.310

From the results in Table 5, the outcome of hypotheses testing was indicated as follows:

1. The QWL has a significant and positive effect on the job performance of hotel employees in Lombok,
2. The QWL has a significant and positive effect on the work motivation of hotel employees in Lombok,
3. The QWL has a significant and positive effect on the work ethics of hotel employees in Lombok,
4. The QWL has a significant and positive effect on the job satisfaction of hotel employees in Lombok,
5. The QWL has a significant and positive effect on the self-efficacy of hotel employees in Lombok,
6. Work motivation has a positive and significant effect on job/employee performance of hotel employees in Lombok,
7. Work ethics has a positive and significant effect on job performance of hotel employees in Lombok,
8. Job satisfaction has a positive and significant effect on job performance of hotel employees in Lombok, and
9. Self-efficacy has a positive and significant effect on job/employee performance of hotel employees in Lombok.

The direct influence of QWL on job satisfaction was indicated by the results of the standard coefficient value. The estimated value was 0.419; it means that QWL affected the employees' job satisfaction by 41%. The attempt by the hotel management to improve employee job satisfaction was accomplished by enhancing the implementation of QWL in hotels, such as ensuring employee career pathways, appropriate payments, and promotion. Chaturvedi and Yadav (2011) also approved that there was a constructive effect between job satisfaction and QWL.

The effect of QWL on work motivation was indicated by the result of 0.553, which means that QWL had a positive and significant effect on increasing the employees' motivation by 55%. The results of the research by Baleghizadeh and Gordani (2012) also confirmed the findings of this study that QWL affected work motivation.

The effect of QWL on self-efficacy was revealed by the outcome of 0.201, while QWL had a positive effect on increasing self-efficacy by 20%. The results of this study were the same as those of Mensah and Lebbaeus (2013) who found that there was a strong and significant correlation between QWL and employee self-efficacy. On the contrary, the study by Coelho, Antloga, Maia, and Takaki (2016) showed that there was no strong significant correlation between QWL and self-efficacy.

Furthermore, the direct influence of QWL on work ethics was reported with a

value of 0.358, while QWL had a positive influence on increasing the employees' work ethics by 35%. This result was supported by research done by Kumari and Dutta (2019); based on their correlation data analysis, it was found that there was a significant correlation between QWL and work ethics.

The direct effect of QWL on job performance was confirmed by the result of 0.302, which means that QWL had a positive effect on increasing the employees' performance by 30%. The results of research done by Rahma and Widiartanto (2015) showed that QWL had a significant effect on employee performance.

The direct effects of job satisfaction, work motivation, self-efficacy, and work ethics on job performance were 0.316, 0.325, 0.310, and 0.307, respectively. These results confirmed that work motivation, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work ethics had a significant effect on the employee performance of the hotel employees in Lombok. The outcomes of the analysis displayed that job satisfaction had a significant effect on individual performance, confirming that the higher the level of job satisfaction that the employees experienced, the greater the level of job performance they showed.

Discussion

This study fills the gap that has not been studied by previous researchers. Previous studies explored two or three relatively common variables and involved respondents from an organisation or a company. Meanwhile, in this study, two variables—self-efficacy and work ethics—were rarely used in previous studies. Moreover, the respondents used in this study were focused on the employees of the hotel industry, and the data was analysed using structural equation modeling (SEM) to assign relationships between latent variables and observable variables. The research findings prove that quality of work life (QWL) is quite influential on the job performance, job satisfaction, work motivation, self-efficacy, and work ethics of the hotel employees in Lombok. The outcomes of this study also reveal that job satisfaction has a positive influence on the employees' job performance, confirming that individual performance increases if the level of job satisfaction is high. This result strengthens the theory by Angle and Perry (1981) and Riketta (2002). The result of this study confirms that self-efficacy has a positive effect on the employees' performance at the hotels in Lombok. Kusnoto and Sitorus (2016) also supported that a higher level of job performance is caused by a higher level of individual self-efficacy. The results of this study support the theory of self-efficacy by Bandura (1997), and they concur with the research results by Noviwati (2016) which stated that self-efficacy had a positive and significant relationship with performance.

Based on these findings, hotel management needs to improve several aspects of QWL, such as by providing fair and appropriate salaries and providing a work environment, work equipment, work hours, as well as physical working conditions

that minimise the risks of disease and accidents to employees. Hotel management also needs to provide employees with opportunities for training and continuing education in order to enable them to develop their skills in getting jobs done more effectively and efficiently, and also provide opportunities for the employees to be promoted. For example, in order to support QWL in the hotel industry, hotel management should instil professionalism among employees by integrating it as culture in management trainings. Based on the results, it is recommended that hotel management should improve QWL in hotels by conducting job evaluation and reward management. Hotel management should have a reward system for the employees to avoid issues related to unfair rewards. In order to manage employee work stress, it is necessary for hotel management to establish an assistance programme for the employees. This will help the employees to reduce their stress levels that affect their job performance. Satisfaction is one aspect that makes the employee feel motivated in doing their job well. It is recommended for hotel management to hold an annual programme for employees in the form of training. For example, hotel management could establish interpersonal support training, self-management training, social skills training, assertive training, and character-building training.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the results of the study prove that quality of work life (QWL) has a significant and positive effect on the job performance, work motivation, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and work ethics of hotel employees in Lombok, Indonesia. Furthermore, the results of this study confirm that job satisfaction, work motivation, self-efficacy, and work ethics have a positive effect on employee performance of hotel employees in Lombok.

The effect of QWL among employees in the hotel industry reveals that QWL has a significant influence on job performance and other variables, which is a similar finding in previous studies. From the results of this study, the QWL in the hotel industry contributes to better work performance among employees and helps to improve their productivity, motivation, work ethic, self-efficacy, and satisfaction. Therefore, hotel management should consider implementing quality of work life (QWL) programmes. This study has its limitations in terms of the variables used and the scope of area in Lombok explored, and it only involved the employees in the hotel industry. For future research, it is suggested to study other variables which are not mentioned and included in this study, and to involve respondents from different industries to discover new findings related to QWL. For future studies, data can be collected from other types of hotels in Indonesia in order to improve the pool of data. Moreover, in future studies, it is recommended to obtain data using a longitudinal design study that analyses the relationships between variables based on data collected over a longer period of time.

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Empirical Paper

Leadership Styles for a Sustainable Homestay Programme in Langkawi

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Abstract: The establishment of a homestay programme in Malaysia acts as a strategy to develop rural communities. Malaysia's Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture (MOTAC) as well as Ministry of Rural Development (MRD) aim to improve the standard of living of rural communities through the programme by enabling them to generate additional supplementary income. Ironically, homestay operators have found it difficult to generate sufficient supplementary income due to the weak leadership style of homestay leaders in sustaining the programme, thus undermining the main objective of the programme. Hence, qualitative research on leadership was undertaken with the main purpose of exploring the most effective leadership style in the homestay programme. Interviews were conducted with 10 hosts and three leaders from homestay programmes in Langkawi, Kedah. Purposive sampling was used to select the informants. The study found that the homestay leaders had their own leadership styles of influencing hosts to strive to achieve the mutual goals of the programme. As leadership is deemed a critical component in sustaining the homestay programme, the number of leadership courses should be increased regularly. Such an initiative will enable the MOTAC, MRD, and relevant agencies to ensure the sustainability of Malaysia's homestay programme under the leadership of dynamic leaders.

Keywords: Homestay programme, Langkawi, leadership style, qualitative, rural community, sustainability

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Introduction

The development of the homestay programme in Malaysia is a positive response to the government's objectives to help rural communities eradicate poverty. This emphasis is consistent with the government's objective of encouraging locals to host guests at their homes and take part in homestay activities to improve the living standards of the rural population (Kayat, 2011). The objectives include: (1) sharing the benefits of tourism with all communities by promoting the participation of rural people in the tourism industry, (2) increasing the income and living standards of villages, where the wealth generated by the tourism sector can be enjoyed in common by all levels of society, and (3) creating tourism entrepreneurs among rural communities (MOTAC, 2015). These objectives explain the purpose of the homestay programme in Malaysia, which is to reduce poverty among rural communities.

The rural communities manage the homestay programme, thus their participation in the programme is necessary and vital. Sufficient efforts by homestay leaders to influence hosts are required, as participation is voluntary (Balasingam, Bojei, Awang, & Mohd Radzi, 2017; Mohd Nor & Kayat, 2010). According to Madanchian and Taherdoost (2017), an in-depth understanding of the leadership style of a leader in an organisation helps the organisation to grow. They posited, therefore, that more studies were needed to acknowledge the importance of good leadership styles practised by leaders in organisations, in view of sustaining organisational growth. Failure to accomplish the goals of the homestay programme impedes its growth, and the homestay leader will be considered incompetent in sustaining the programme (Bachok, Hasbullah, & Rahman, 2018). Previous studies found that the failure to sustain the homestay programme was associated with a lack of effective leadership style on the part of homestay leaders (Kunjuraman & Hussin, 2017; Mohamad Nor & Awang, 2017; Mohamad Nor, Awang, Ismail, Samdine, & Afandi, 2019; Pusiran & Xiao, 2013; Yusof, Ibrahim, Muda, & Wan Mohd Amin, 2012), which in turn could hamper efforts to achieve the first goal of the sustainable development goals (SDGs), that is, poverty reduction.

Literature Review

Early ideas of leadership opined that it could be found in one's genes, which determined how an individual behaves and reacts to his or her surroundings (Bass, 1985). Khan, Nawaz, and Khan (2016) agreed that a leader possesses the ability to make good deals, mobilise followers, be enthusiastic, and draw on powerful communication skills in the pursuit of goals. Even so, the leadership style of the leader was seen to be affected by the style he or she found fitting (Igbaekemen, 2014; Rukmani, Ramesh, & Jayakrishnan, 2010; Ukaidi, 2016) and the context in which he or she led (Obiwuru, Okwu, Akpa, & Nwankwere, 2011).

The numerous theories of leadership refer to various leadership styles. Five of the most prominent and often discussed styles of leadership are autocratic leadership, democratic leadership, *laissez-faire* leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership. Autocratic leadership is the leadership style in which the leader has a great degree of authority to make judgements and influence subordinates to obey stipulated rules. The autocratic leader is confident in the position to the extent that all decisions are made by them (Ukaidi, 2016). The second leadership style is democratic leadership, in which the leader focuses on people and their personal growth (Puni, Ofei, & Okoe, 2014). While the autocratic leader is quick to make decisions, the democratic leader dwells on an issue and seeks the consensus of his or her members before a final decision is made (Gachingiri, 2015). A democratic leader trusts his or her followers, which is said to engender their creativity and willingness to propose suggestions for the development of the organisation (Barbuto & Cummins-Brown, 2007). The third leadership style is *laissez-faire* leadership. The *laissez-faire* leader has a low degree of authority and depends solely on his or her employees to operate tasks that have been delegated. This type of leader stands back from leading the organisation and manages it less overtly, thus allowing the followers to make choices about their actions (Rao & Zaidi, 2020). However, this leadership style is unsustainable for followers who find it difficult to work without the direction of a leader (Bojadjiev, Hristova, & Mileva, 2019). The fourth leadership style is transactional leadership. The transactional leader focuses on the status quo of an organisation, whereby he or she motivates the members either by exchanging rewards or imposing punishment (Dartey-Baah, 2020). The transactional leadership style was revised in 1985 by Bass, who claimed that this style reflected a general method of managing, arranging, and planning for the short term. Thus, in regard to the need for rapid change, the transactional leader promotes the followers' compliance through both rewards and punishments (Rao & Zaidi, 2020). The fifth style of leadership is transformational leadership. A transformational leader is a role model for his or her employees. This leader encourages the employees to think critically and to seek innovative methods in approaching tasks, resulting in the organisation's outstanding performance (Kinya, Kihara, & Mwanzia, 2018). Therefore, a transformational leader is required in organisations that focus on solving problems efficiently but strategically by integrating feedback from all employees (Asiimwe, Kavoo-Linge, & Sikalieh, 2016). The discussions on these common leadership styles explain the need for leaders to evaluate and adapt their leadership styles to better suit the circumstances, the organisation, and the particular followers (Barbuto & Cummins-Brown, 2007; Obiwuru et al., 2011; Rukmani et al., 2010).

In the context of the homestay programme, hosts can obtain supplementary income and benefit from the programme when the leaders have an effective leadership style. In a situation where the hosts are no longer able to generate supplementary

income from the programme, they appear to withdraw (Kunjuraman & Hussin, 2017; Mohamad Nor & Awang, 2017; Nor et al., 2019; Pusiran & Xiao, 2013). Withdrawal will lead to a lack of participation from villagers in the homestay programme and, thus, the objective of the homestay programme in Malaysia to encourage rural communities to participate in tourism activities in order to generate a supplementary income will remain unfulfilled. Therefore, to achieve the goals of the Malaysian homestay programme set by MOTAC, a leader who effectively manages the homestay programme and influences the homestay participants to continuously generate supplementary income through the programme is the driving force behind the success and sustainability of these homestays. When selected to lead, a homestay leader needs to carry out his or her responsibilities accordingly. This leads to the objective of this study, which is to explore the most effective leadership style of homestay leaders to sustain the homestay programme in Malaysia, specifically the homestay programmes in Langkawi, Kedah, towards realising one of the SDGs, that is, no poverty by 2030.

Officially established in 1995, the Malaysian homestay programme aimed to increase the economic growth of rural communities and provide visitors to homestay villages with the unique experience of staying with a homestay host. The ongoing programme encouraged the participation among the rural population in tourism activities (MOTAC, 2015). The development of the Malaysian homestay programme received the support of the government, including efforts to integrate and enhance the programme in the Rural Tourism Master Plan. To date, the government continues to channel financial assistance towards the development of homestay programmes. In the 2019 budget, the Ministry of Finance (MOF) announced the allocation of RM500 billion in loans to upgrade facilities in homestay programmes in every state (MOF, 2018). Additionally, in partnership with the Ministry of Rural Development (MRD), the Institute for Rural Advancement (INFRA) offers basic training programmes for homestay participants. The training programmes serve to equip the homestay participants with the requisite information and skills to increase their understanding of the potential of the homestay programme in generating supplementary incomes.

Throughout the years since the inception of the homestay programme, the increase in the number of homestay participants suggests that the rural population is becoming increasingly aware of the role homestays play in generating additional income and enhancing lifestyles and living standards (MOTAC, 2020). In December 2019, the number of registered homestay villages was 219, with a total of 4,210 registered participants, up from 3,994 participants registered in 2017 which was an encouraging increase of 5% (MOTAC, 2020). This put the number of rooms available for tourists at 5,956 units. However, the total income received from the homestay programme had decreased by 2%, from RM30,124,466.06 in 2017

to RM29,662,211.60 in 2019. This finding was contrary to the purpose of the programme, which was to help the rural communities gain additional supplementary income. The failure of the homestay programmes to sustain economic growth was attributed to numerous reasons, as follows:

- a lack of community involvement (Jamal, Aminuddin, Sumarjan, & Chik, 2018; Yusof et al., 2012),
- a lack of knowledge and skills (Amin, Salleh, Muda, & Ibrahim, 2013; Hashim et al., 2015; Jamal et al., 2018; Kunjuraman & Hussin, 2017),
- poor service quality (Hashim et al., 2015; Ismail, Hanafiah, Aminuddin, & Mustafa, 2016; Kunjuraman & Hussin, 2017),
- a lack of promotional activities (Hashim et al., 2015; Kunjuraman & Hussin, 2017),
- competition with unregistered homestays (Mapjabil et al., 2015; Mohamad Nor & Awang, 2017; Tavakoli, Mura, & Rajaratnam, 2017), and
- a lack of homestay regulation and monitoring (Hashim et al., 2015; Kunjuraman & Hussin, 2017; Mohamad Nor & Awang, 2017).

The situation faced by the Malaysian homestay programme contrasted starkly with the government's initiative to cultivate an entrepreneurial spirit among rural communities by encouraging them to generate supplementary income through the homestay business. Hence, effective leadership is necessary to ensure that the task can be done, alongside guidance to achieve the set objectives of the homestay programme (Kayat, Zainuddin, Ramli, & Kasim, 2016a, 2016b).

Materials and Methods

A qualitative approach was used to obtain rich and appropriate data for this study. This was deemed an effective method for obtaining in-depth responses from the informants, based on information provided and understanding of the issues raised (Stenbacka, 2001). A semi-structured interview was used to collect the information on the most effective leadership style in the homestay programme. Based on the results obtained, the researcher then assessed the degree to which the leadership style of the homestay leader assisted the homestay hosts in gaining supplementary income.

Three active homestay programmes in Langkawi, Kedah, were selected for this study, viz. (1) Homestay Desa Wang Tok Rendong, which is located in Mukim Kuah, (2) Homestay Kampung Padang Lalang, located in Mukim Ayer Hangat, and (3) Homestay Pulau Tuba, also situated in Mukim Kuah. The informants were all participants of the homestay programme. They were registered with the MOTAC and had taken homestay programme courses organised by the MRD in collaboration with several related agencies. The informants were divided into two

categories, namely (a) homestay leaders, who led a homestay programme in a village, as well as (b) homestay hosts, who received tourists in their homes and participated in homestay activities. Purposive sampling was chosen for this study. From the three homestay programmes, a total of 13 informants—comprising 10 homestay hosts and three homestay leaders—were interviewed.

Semi-structured interview questions were developed for the purpose of data collection. Two sets of interview questions were designed; one set for the homestay leaders and one for the homestay hosts. The interview questions were developed based on document analysis methods and a review of the literature on leadership styles and homestay programme development. The two sets of interview questions each had five parts. Part One consisted of questions about demographics, covering the informants' gender, age, marital status, education level, average monthly income, and duration of participation in the homestay programme, along with a final question concerning the length of time as a leader specifically for homestay leaders. Part Two consisted of opening questions, where the informants were expected to share briefly about their background, the reason for participating in the homestay programme, and the purpose of the programme in the village. Part Three consisted of five sections that covered leadership style. In this part, the informants were given closed-ended questions. The items explored the leadership style practised by the leaders and were categorised into five areas, namely: (1) focus, (2) characteristics of a leader, (3) decision-making, (4) supervision, and (5) position of followers. Part Four consisted of questions on the organisational performance of Langkawi's homestay programme. In this part, the items were categorised into three sections, which are: (1) objective achievement, (2) use of resources, and (3) financial sufficiency. Lastly, Part Five consisted of closing questions, in which the informants were asked to express their hopes for the development of the homestay programmes in their villages. Note-taking was also employed to check for consistency with the tape-recorded interviews.

The interviews with each informant took between 30 and 90 minutes. After obtaining permission from the informants, all interview sessions were held in the yard area of their homes and recorded. The interview sessions were successfully concluded within two weeks (from 19 August to 2 September 2019). Atlas.ti was used to handle the data collected from the interviews and the analysis of the recordings. All files were moved to the Atlas.ti web application. Memos were also created, as this move helped the researcher in the writing process (Hwang, 2007).

Results and Discussion

This segment presents the qualitative data analysis results of the information gathered via semi-structured interviews with the respondents from three Langkawi homestay programmes, which have been named Homestay Programme A (HPA), Homestay

Programme B (HPB), and Homestay Programme C (HPC), respectively. One host from HPA stated that there were numerous challenges which affected the hosts of the homestay business, including a declining number of tourists. According to the host:

Many tourists used to come here, and we were earning more money then. But (from) 4 to 5 years ago, (there are) a little less (tourists) lately. (Host from HPA)

When asked if the homestay programme had achieved its target, the same host was of the opinion that the homestay participants were not able to earn a supplementary income because “the tourist arrivals in this village is lower”. However, as far as leadership style was concerned, the leader of HPA was committed in overseeing the homestay programme, as he was serious about improving and promoting the programme according to the priorities of MOTAC and the efforts of the relevant ministries and agencies. The leader of HPA encouraged the homestay hosts to promote rooms and other services and products to attract visitors, such as selling traditional handicrafts and home-made biscuits. This was consistent with Dube (2020) who stated that the use of local products could encourage supplementary income, thereby contributing to achieving the first goal of the SDGs, namely poverty reduction.

One host from HPB said that the lack of visitors discouraged the homestay hosts from continuing to rely on the homestay programme to generate supplementary income. According to the host:

We want to draw tourists (to our village), but tourists do not want to come here. It is easier to earn money by renting out the house. Here, if you were to rent out your home, you can get more money. With the homestay (programme), we would need to wait for people to come here. The response (from visitors) is much less now. Homestay hosts have been less involved in this. (Host from HPB)

A leader from HPB reported that the homestay programme did not enable the hosts to generate sufficient supplementary income, as “fewer people ... coming here”. The leader suggested that the distance to the village was a factor which discouraged tourists from coming to the homestay programme. The leader added that the locals were able to earn more income from other small businesses because the homestay programme was perceived as an ineffective platform to help the local people to generate supplementary income. This homestay leader also realised that a lack of power to influence and lead the homestay programme has made tourists more inclined to visit the beach and stay at nearby chalets. This competition with other forms of tourist accommodation posed a serious struggle for the majority of registered homestay operators. Hence, the leader has opted to rely on the Chairman

of the Homestay Programme on Langkawi Island to disseminate information and also knowledge related to the homestay programme. In the case of the leader of HPB, this study found that, with a non-dynamic leader, the implication was the villagers' perception that the homestay programme was not an ideal platform for the purpose of reducing poverty in their rural community, especially among the homestay participants.

The leader of HPC argued that the net revenue from the homestay programme activities was disappointing, as "visitors rarely come here". One of the hosts shared that the homestay programme failed to help the homestay participants generate supplementary income, and this has weakened their spirit to continue engaging in this programme. The host explained that "often it seems like it is not worth it to participate in the homestay (programme) since no tourists (come) here". As a result of this scenario, the hosts of the homestay programme no longer regarded it as a source of income for them. The findings of the interview with the leader of HPC suggested that in general, the leader was more concerned about the lack of support from hosts in making the homestay programme a success. Another host stated that lack of support from the homestay leader led to the problem of rivalry with other tourist accommodation providers. These were the unregistered "homestays" operated by villagers of the same village, which resulted in a loss of supplementary income for the homestay participants who were registered. The host further reiterated that the leader should actively promote the side businesses ran by the homestay operators, and not only focus on filling up the homestays. In the context of tourism, a good leader possesses knowledge and experience, avoids conflicts, and focuses on group interests over self-interest to ensure tourism activities continue to benefit local people (Xu, Zhang, & Tian, 2017). The host added that a dedicated leader was needed to sustain the homestay programme and to benefit the villagers, especially the registered homestay participants. According to the host:

That is what I have said to the leader; when people come here, we have to tell them that we have traditional delicacies (kuih) made by the locals. He (the leader) did not want to say it. I have told him this a few times. (Host from HPC)

The unregistered homestays referred to room rental businesses that were not registered with MOTAC, but applied the term "homestay" for their business. The room rental rates offered by these businesses were much lower than the room rates of the registered homestay hosts. The lower rates excluded board (food and beverages) and tour packages to some popular locations in the local area, which were provided by the registered homestays. The findings of this study suggested that "illegal homestays" could have an adverse impact on registered homestay operators (Nor et al., 2019). Such

room rental businesses defeated the purpose of the Malaysian homestay programme and, therefore, harmed the income source of registered homestay operators. An implication of this was the possibility that homestay programme participants would be discouraged from continuing to participate in the programme and plan to withdraw (Kunjuraman & Hussin, 2017; Mohamad Nor & Awang, 2017; Nor et al., 2019; Pusiran & Xiao, 2013). This finding, however, contrasted with the study findings by Balasingam and Bojei (2019). In their quantitative survey of 354 homestay operators in Perak, Johor, Kedah, as well as Negeri Sembilan, Balasingam and Bojei reported that the homestay operators were not affected by the mushrooming number of other tourist accommodations in their areas, such as budget hotels, motels, and even chalets. Nonetheless, the current study aimed to offer more detail, in that it was conducted qualitatively using a semi-structured interview process. It aspired to provide insight into homestay issues, particularly in-depth knowledge of the leadership styles adopted by homestay leaders and how homestay hosts viewed their respective leaders' leadership style.

The leader of HPA expressed frustration over the rapidly growing number of illegal homestays in and around the area or along the roads leading to the homestay village. According to this homestay leader, registered hosts might be affected by the growth of unregistered homestays across the region:

It is illegal signage. While not in the area, there are illegal homestays in the villages. Unauthorised homestay activities are a significant problem. This affects the real homestays. (HPA leader)

The leader of HPA also expressed concern for the homestay participants by holding a conversation at a meeting, in which it was stated that information pertaining to the homestay programme and its operations should only be disseminated through efficient interaction with homestay participants (Kayat et al., 2016a). At the meeting, the leader indicated that he was involved in making decisions with the homestay hosts. It was also clear that the leader was keen to gain new perspectives and fresh ideas from the hosts. The findings of this study suggested that it was incumbent upon the leaders to determine suitable measures, in order to enable the hosts to remain involved in homestay activities that could generate supplementary income. As a result of this interaction, the followers were more confident about the tasks assigned to them, and as Yahaya et al. (2014) noted, this made followers more responsive towards incoming issues in an organisation. This cooperation which existed between the leader of HPA and the hosts suggested that local communities could serve as an impetus to successfully pursue sustainable development, particularly in achieving “no poverty” among rural communities (Dube, 2020).

In general, therefore, it seemed a dynamic homestay leader recognised that each programme had its own unique talents and abilities and, consequently, each leader had the potential to operate a successful homestay programme in the village. As a result, the hosts would show support and interest in continuing to manage the homestay programme and to receive tourists from within and outside the country. Thus, it was deemed that homestay leaders with effective leadership styles were needed to lead the programme and influence the hosts, in view of ensuring the sustainability of the programme (Amin et al., 2013; Mohamad Nor & Awang, 2017; Razzaq et al., 2011). The results of this research supported the idea that an organisation's performance and success depended on the leadership style of the leader, who takes into account the skills and abilities of the employees in the organisation (Madanchian & Taherdoost, 2017).

The situation for homestay programmes has worsened in the light of the global Covid-19 pandemic. In response to an email, the leader of HPA indicated that steps would be taken to encourage homestay hosts to operate small businesses as a means to create supplementary income, such as selling *kuih* and other local delicacies. This response showed that the homestay leader was carrying out the duties of a leader, ensuring that the hosts were able to generate supplementary income despite the adversity. The leader also showed great effort to take the best direction by collecting ideas from the hosts on how to get things going in the midst of adversity. When the leader is dynamic, he or she would encourage the hosts to engage with their resources and capabilities in the homestay programme activities. The results of this research supported the idea that leaders who were actively involved in the organisation and inspired their followers to engage in the organisation's activities were considered dynamic leaders (Manning & Robertson, 2002). Hence, by having a dynamic leader who also promoted the hosts' active engagement in the programme, it was found that such a homestay programme was more successful and sustainable.

Conclusion

The involvement of rural communities in the Malaysian homestay programme is an essential strategy by MOTAC to help local people in rural areas to generate extra supplementary income, in line with the zero poverty goal of the SDGs. This study shows that hosts who are supported and motivated by their homestay leader are more dedicated to run their homestay programme. These hosts tend to generate more supplementary income through selling handmade handicrafts or other home-made products. Hence, it is recommended that further research be undertaken qualitatively using additional methods, such as observation or focus group discussions (FGDs).

The study discovers that each homestay leader has his or her own leadership style in managing and sustaining the homestay programme. In addition, the study results show that there is an effective leadership style which is able to motivate the homestay participants to generate supplementary income. The analysis of the semi-structured

interview responses shows that three important characteristics or elements that make a dynamic homestay leader are:

- 1 Flexible—the leader adjusts the leadership style according to the current situation, while the hosts are open and willing to accept the situation,
- 2 Proactive—the leader is active in managing the programme and the hosts who are actively involved in homestay activities react positively to the efforts shown by the leader, and
- 3 Adaptable—the leader and the hosts are able to make (short-term) changes, following the current needs of the programme.

Thus, the term “dynamic leadership” is suitable in the homestay context, where leaders are expected to inspire followers to fulfil the homestay programme’s objectives and to achieve sustainability for the benefit of the local people. The interdependence between the leader and the hosts in handling the homestay business is key to sustaining the homestay programme as a platform for rural communities to generate supplementary income and to improve local standards of living, thus fulfilling the zero poverty goal of the SDGs. Hence, a dynamic leader is one who actively includes the hosts and is flexible in handling the homestay programme by making constructive changes, when and if necessary, to sustain the programme. With a dynamic leader overseeing the homestay programme as well as leading and influencing the hosts, the programme can be more sustainable, thereby accomplishing the first goal of the SDGs, which is eradicating poverty among rural communities. Hence, it is proposed that further quantitative research explores the leadership styles of homestay leaders by including elements such as flexibility, proactiveness, and adaptability. It is suggested that these elements are included to understand effective leadership styles in the homestay programme context.

The findings of this study also show that the sustainability of the homestay programme depends on how effective the leaders are in terms of leadership style. An effective leader increases the homestay participants’ attachment to the programme and commitment to overcome any situations they encounter. Thus, policymakers should work together with industry players to improve the knowledge and skills of homestay participants. As leadership is critical in sustaining the homestay programme, regular leadership training and technical support in the field of entrepreneurship should be implemented. Moreover, inclusion of all 17 goals of sustainable development in homestay programme courses or workshops can be made available to accomplish the goals of sustainable development, especially in eradicating poverty among rural communities. This opportunity to gain knowledge alongside a syllabus that embraces SDGs will strengthen the homestay participants’ faith in carrying out their responsibilities with the available resources and skills.

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Empirical Paper

Community Participation Model for Visitor Management at Sade Traditional Village, Lombok, Indonesia

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Abstract: Visitor management (VM) is an essential component of destination management that should be adopted to minimise tourism risks and to improve the quality of visitor experience in rural destinations. Based on the rural tourism concept, the local community plays an imperative role in VM. However, local community participation in VM remains an issue in real-world application according to some scholars. Most studies on VM in the past did not give much attention to local community participation for rural destinations. To fill this gap, a qualitative research was conducted using in-depth interviews and observations related to the VM model practised by the local community at Sade Traditional Village in Indonesia. The research objective is to investigate a community participation model for VM based on three aspects namely regulatory measures, visitor experience enhancement strategies and community participation. The results show that Sade practices a unique VM model with the integration of four group roles (local tourism management, guide, entrepreneurs, and residents) for the selected aspects. The outcome has been positive for the local economy, social and environment. Although the community participation model explored in this study can be a working model for rural destinations with traditional village concepts, further research is still required to explore similar models suitable for destinations with other concepts of rural tourism.

Keywords: Community-participation, rural tourism, sustainable tourism, visitor management

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Introduction

Tourism continues to be a booming global industry contributing to significant economic development. Indeed, studies have shown that tourism can be a substantive source of foreign exchange earnings, employment opportunities, as well as tax revenue for a country (Fleischer & Felsenstein, 2000; Goodwin, 2008; Nugroho, Pramukanto, Negara, Purnomowati, & Wulandari, 2016). The promising economic returns has also prompted a growing trend in rural tourism development in which villagers capitalise on their village environment and culture as a source of income (Nugroho et al., 2016; Viljoen & Tlabela, 2007). In fact, tourism also results in multiplier effect and non-economic benefits for rural communities including employment opportunities for locals, the development of locally owned small and medium enterprises, capacity development and improved access to public infrastructure and services (Kennedy, Monica, Maria, & Carlos, 2013). This is in line with Sustainable Development Goal 8 that assures decent work and economic growth for all including communities that inhabitate less-advantaged rural areas. However, despite these promising advantages, negative impacts as a result of excessive number of tourists visiting rural areas without proper visitor management system should also be taken into consideration. In fact, several studies have revealed drawbacks and adverse impacts of uncontrolled and unmanaged mass tourism which could lead to negative socio-cultural and environmental impacts (Albrecht, 2016; Aronsson, 2000; Weaver, 2006). Consequently, destination management, especially visitor management (VM) that oversees visitor behaviour should incorporate highly-developed holistic measures in the form of regulations, communication, and community participation to minimise these potential negative consequences (Albrecht, 2016; Glasson & Therivel, 2013; Mason, 2005).

VM is imperative for rural tourism to prevent irreversible damage to the rural environment and social values that are regarded as the core resources of tourism. When rural landscapes, natural environments as well social values are damaged due to uncontrolled mass tourism, a rural destination might lose its essence and appeal. In other words, the protection of resources is essential through proper visitor management with the local community as the key player. In fact, to achieve sustainable tourism, local community participation should shift from merely as “beneficiary participators” to “makers and shapers” of tourism development initiatives (Saxena & Ilbery, 2010). This form of community participation appears to be the most desirable in tourism development, whereby the stage of citizen control is attained, in reference to Arnstein’s “ladder of citizen participation” theory (1969). Indeed, the local community should assume an essential role with maximum involvement and control over development decisions since this development affects their livelihoods (Saxena & Ilbery, 2010). Nevertheless, community participation remains problematic in VM

due to various issues encountered (Kebete & Wondirad, 2019; Saxena & Ilbery, 2010; Tosun, 2000). Sadly, most VM studies in VM have not given much attention to local community participation in rural destinations (Beunders, 2006; Beunen, Regnerus, & Jaarsma, 2008; Leung, 2018; Worboys, G. L., Lockwood, M., Kothari, A., Feary, S., & Pulsford, 2015). Hence, the present study was carried out to explore a rural tourism VM model run by a local community in a traditional village which could be a reference for similar concepts in other rural tourism destinations.

The present study was conducted at Sade Traditional Village in West Nusa Tenggara Province, Indonesia. Sade is very popular thanks to its unique traditional house architecture, Sasak culture and lifestyle which has been carefully retained over generations. The village attracts large numbers of domestic and international tourists, ranging from 300 – 1000 tourists a day. Based on the baseline study, we found that the Sade community is able to oversee the overall tourism management including visitor management which qualifies it as a good model to be explored and documented. Given this, the present qualitative study was carried out to explore the community participation model at Sade by looking at three core aspects of VM (regulatory measures, experience enhancement, and community role and participation). The study also examined the tourism impacts on the economy, social and environment in terms of sustainability. In addition, the study is expected to add to the existing knowledge on tourism development by drawing a tourism community participation model which could be adopted by developing countries, especially Indonesia which has a high rural poverty rate (Idrus & Rosida, 2020; Rosida, 2018). Thus, rural communities could benefit economically from sustainable tourism and have the opportunity to protect their environment and social values as important resources with the help of an effective VM model.

Literature Review

VM is considered a vital component of sustainable tourism (Mason, 2005). Indeed, VM is an important indicator of sustainable destination management criteria (GSTC, 2013). Glasson and Therivel (2013) defined VM as a concept that enables the management of visitor behaviour, type, timing and use of resources by visitors. VM also includes measures to regulate number of visitors, length of stay, size of groups as well as educating and communicating with visitors (Glasson & Therivel, 2013). These definitions of the VM concept appear to emphasise on the “hard” version of VM. Indeed, Mason (2005) also suggested that strategies emphasising on regulatory management such as control of visitor numbers and its aggregates are regarded as a hard strategy (Mason, 2005). “Hard” VM appears to be a useful strategy for destinations which have been negatively impacted by the exploitative activities of mass tourism. In particular, risk management and crowd control are important to prevent negative effects on resources and tourists (Mason, 2005).

Another category is soft VM encompassing education, interpretation and the utilisation of marketing strategies (Kuo, 2002). It is believed that increasing the knowledge and experience of visitors about destinations through the application of soft VM strategies as mentioned above will effectively lead to more long-lasting benefits (Kuo, 2002). Indeed, Kuo (2002) emphasised that education and interpretation not only results in fewer negative impacts but also better behaved visitors. This is because soft VM strategies could influence people's attitudes and values which is far more effective than the regulatory measures of deterrence and enforcement (Blackstock, White, McCrum, Scott, & Hunter, 2008).

Both "hard" and "soft" VM strategies are useful as tools to minimise negative tourism impacts. However, each strategy should be complementary to one another and used accordingly based on circumstances. This is to ensure a quality experience for visitors while assisting the local community in achieving their overall tourism objectives (Albrecht, 2016). Indeed, the integration of soft and hard VM strategies according to the needs and situation of each destination should be regarded as the best approach. Thus, the combination of visitor education and regulatory framework in VM seems to be more effective and efficient with regard to the destination's needs and condition.

The coordination and collaboration between stakeholders in VM is commonly expressed as community participation. Albrecht (2016) suggested that several dimensions ought to be taken into account in VM including the integration of supply and demand management, the collaboration of resources and functions, stakeholder cooperation especially the local community, as well as destination management goals and purposes. This will also ensure visitor satisfaction for an overall tourism experience which is very special, emotionally charged, highly memorable, potentially life-altering, exceptionally vivid and filled with long-lasting memories (Jefferies & Lepp, 2012; Kim, 2010). Hence, scholars highly recommend partnerships and collaboration between related stakeholders for VM in a particular destination to increase visitor acceptance and attain sustainable development (Pfueller, Lee, & Laing, 2011; Wyman, Barborak, Inamdar, & Stein, 2011). Therefore, in reference to the aforementioned theories and conceptions of VM, we integrated three core aspects of VM as the basis of the present study: VM regulatory measures to lessen or prevent negative impacts (economic, social and environmental dimensions), experience enhancement strategies, and community participation and collaboration (Albrecht, 2016; Glasson & Therivel, 2013; Jefferies & Lepp, 2012; Kim, 2010; Larsen, 2007; Mason, 2005; McArthur & Hall, 1996; Pfueller et al., 2011; Wyman et al., 2011).

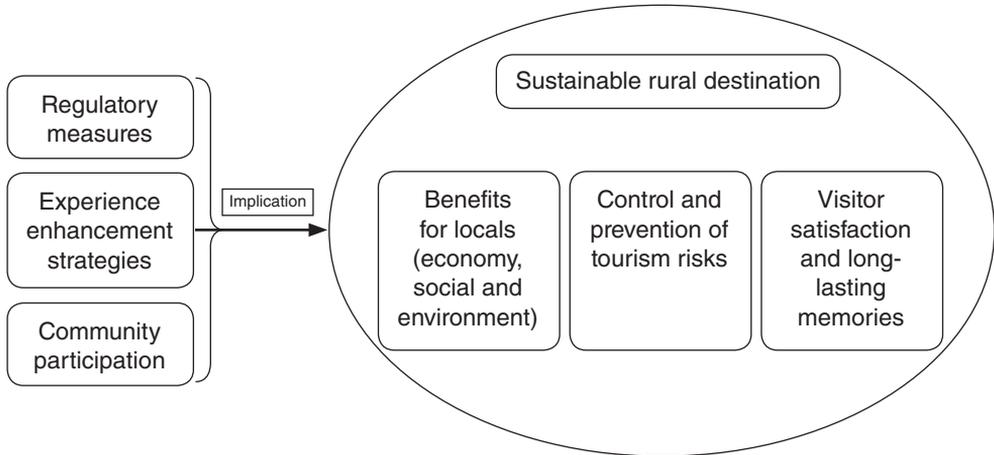


Figure 1. Core elements of visitor management for rural destinations, modified from sources (Glasson & Therivel, 2013; Jefferies & Lepp, 2012; Kim, 2010; Larsen, 2007; Mason, 2005; McArthur & Hall, 1996; Pfueller et al., 2011; Wyman et al., 2011)

To attain sustainable tourism, community participation is essential. In fact, a sustainable destination requires a system that enables the involvement of tourism stakeholders including the government, industries and the local community in destination planning and management (GSTC, 2013). In the case of rural tourism, the local community should be the key player to plan and manage a destination in a way that matches their resources, capacities, needs and values. In this regard, Henderson (2000) demonstrated how essential the bottom-up approach in destination management is as it takes into account the views and the involvement of the host community and local industries. However, in the real world, local community participation in VM faces a number of hurdles.

In fact, several studies on VM in various destinations have demonstrated that the local community is often the supporting stakeholder instead of the main stakeholder. An exploratory qualitative study by Kebete and Wondirad (2019) on a VM model in Zegie Peninsula, Northern Ethiopia revealed a lack of local community participation whilst the government assumed the role of the main key stakeholder in decision making. Another study on VM tools for protected areas in Croatia by Petrić and Mandić (2014) showed that VM practices in zoning, limitation of free access, dispersion of tourist flow, and price differentiation also lacked local support and participation. Similarly, the issue of limited local participation in VM was observed in Santiago de Compostela, Spain which adopted two VM schemes including

accessibility (traffic regulation, signage, limitations to specific activities, dispersion of tourist flow, and land use) and the use of economic tools (pricing, taxes, incentives, booking system, information management, and market control) (Pérez Guilarte & Lois González, 2018). Based on the studies above, we could conclude that local community participation is still considered lagging in VM. Hence, Sade presents a good opportunity to explore a good model of VM which involves the maximum involvement of local community in the context of rural tourism.

Materials and Methods

This is an in-depth qualitative study on the community participation model for VM at Sade Traditional Village in Indonesia. The study sample was selected using the purposive sampling technique. Purposive sampling means selecting a sample based on relevant criteria that can answer the research questions. In this case, the subject of the study was the local community that plays various roles in VM and can be classified into four groups: local tourism management, guide, entrepreneurs, and common residents. After conducting the baseline study, these four groups were selected based on their involvement and understanding about the implementation of VM.

For an in-depth study of the community participation in VM, two participants for each group, with the total number of eight participants, were selected for face-to-face interviews based on similar daily routines and activities. Data were collected using in-depth interviews and field observations. In the interviews, participants were asked open-ended questions related to the three main aspects of VM which comprises regulatory measures, visitor experience enhancement strategies and the role of local communities in VM practices (Glasson & Therivel, 2013; Jefferies & Lepp, 2012; Kebete & Wondirad, 2019; Kim, 2010; Larsen, 2007; Mason, 2005; McArthur & Hall, 1996; Pérez Guilarte & Lois González, 2018; Petrić & Mandić, 2014; Pfueller et al., 2011; Wyman et al., 2011). The field observations were carried out in three stages: before, during and after the in-depth interviews. The first observation stage formed the baseline study observing the pattern of VM implementation before the in-depth interviews were conducted while the second and third stages were carried out to validate the patterns observed to match with the in-depth interview data.

For data analysis, the primary data collected through in-depth interviews were reviewed, examined and classified into three main themes (three aspects being studied). Next, data reduction and coding were done to categorise the findings which were then linked and matched to the observation data before conclusions about the VM model pattern were drawn. The research findings were then classified into the three main themes and the social, economical and environmental impacts were discussed from the perspective of sustainability.

Study Site: Sade Traditional Village

Geographically, the study site is located at Sade Hamlet (*Dusun Sade*), Rambitan Village, Pujut Sub-district of Central Lombok District, West Nusa Tenggara Province. It has been extensively developed as a tourism destination due to its unique combination of social-culture and environment. It is more well-known as Sade Village, rather than hamlet since it has been designated as a “tourism village” in accordance with Article 7 of Central Lombok Regency Regulation No. 7/2011.

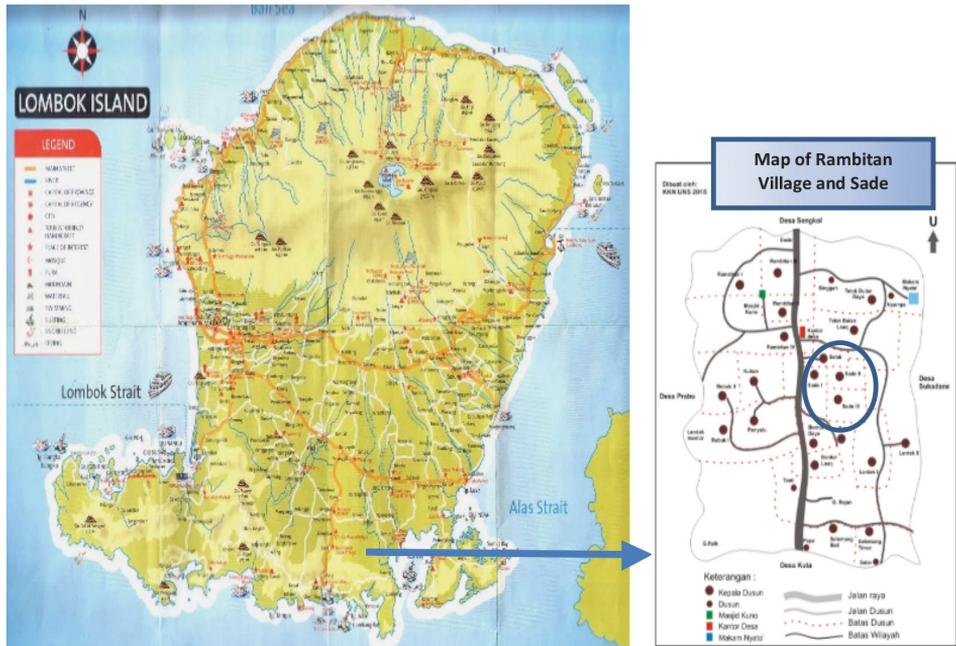


Figure 2. Study site: Sade Traditional Village

Sade’s population is 758 people from 187 households. The main livelihood is agriculture. For generations, the majority of men have worked as farmers and the women as weavers. The rice fields are usually located outside the village with a dry land cropping pattern of rice and soybeans. Based on the interviews with Sade residents, those who are not farmers or not involved with the activities in Sade live outside the village. Some also work as migrant workers.

To preserve the environment in Sade, the locals abide by a local wisdom referred to as “*kemalik*” for guidance. Mansur (2018) explained that *kemalik* refers to the forbidden entry into forests for the purposes of destroying or violating the environment which is believed to bring disaster or bad luck. If the forest is destroyed

or any tree is cut, the perpetrator is obliged to pay a customary fine. This consequently has led to the preservation of the natural environment in Sade.

According to an assessment of Sade by Siregar (2018):

1. There is good accessibility and available means of transportation to reach Sade especially via Lombok International Airport and through sea as well as land transportation. The road quality is well maintained due to the development of the Special Economic Zone around Kuta Mandalika Lombok. According to Wulandari (2002), only 20% of land in Sade is built area, whereas the rest of the area remains as open and green space. The built area consists of 150 houses, 2 mosques, 1 meeting hall, 5 communal bathrooms, and 1 rice barn.
2. With regard to socio-culture, the kinship system in Sade is patrilineal and supported by the patrilocal settlement system. A household usually consists of the father, mother, and children, which often includes one of the married children, relatives, or housemaids. When a male child is married, he will usually build a new house near his parents' house (patrilocal).
3. The leadership system at Sade is that of the rare authentic Sasak ethnic community (the native ethnic of Lombok Island). Administratively, Sade is led by a village head elected by the people. As a traditional village, Sade is led by Mak Loka' Tua who lives in the community mosque. In conducting customary ceremonies, he is assisted by Tua Loka' that consists of Pembekel, Pemangku, Kyai, and Penghulu.
4. Wulandari (2002) stated that the cultural landscape of the Sasak village in Sade consists of: a) traditional house; b) village open spaces: individual open space planted with different kind of plants, and communal open space used as a playground; c) rice barns; d) *berugak*; e) mosque; f) meeting hall; g) old mosque (*wetu telu* mosque); h) ancestral cemetery; i) public cemetery j) communal bathroom and well; k) buffalo house; l) rice field; and m) field.
5. The core tourism attraction is the daily activities of the locals.
6. The houses are the second main attraction for tourists to enjoy in Sade Village. The traditional houses are called "*Lumbung Pare*". The shape is similar to a mosque, but it features parts of a regular house. The houses also represent the characteristics of the Sasak tribe, which are humbleness and simplicity. The construction of the Sasak tribe's traditional house in Sade utilises natural resources found easily around the village area. The roof of the building uses reeds (*alang-alang*) which can reduce the heat of the sun during the day and can provide warmth at night. The use of woven bamboo as walls provides an advantage against air circulation problems. The floor is made of clay mixed with buffalo dung, straw ash, and lime. The use of lime is to remove the unpleasant odor of the buffalo dung. A mixture of clay, buffalo dung and lime makes the ground floor as hard as cement. Their ancestors had inherited this way of making floors (Fadly, 2008).

7. Another attraction that people could enjoy in Sade Village is the traditional attractions of Lombok. For example, a beautiful dance that is often performed is *Cupak Gerantang*. As an alternative, tourists can enjoy *Presean Dance*. The locals even own a traditional musical instrument called *Gendang Beleg*.

Results and Discussions

VM Regulatory Measures and Experience Enhancement Strategies at Sade Traditional Village

The results revealed that Sade Traditional Village adopted several regulatory measures for VM. For crowd control, various measures are implemented to assure the safety and protection of the natural heritage including traffic regulations, compulsory local guides to control tourist movement and one-gate system entrance. The use of traffic regulations is also practised in other destinations such as Santiago de Compostela, Zegie Peninsula, and a protected area in Croatia (Kebete & Wondirad, 2019; Pérez Guilarte & Lois González, 2018; Petrić & Mandić, 2014). The unique aspect about traffic regulation in Sade is that each group of visitors has to be accompanied by a local guide in order to assure the protection of property as well as the safety of the local community and tourists. In addition, this safety guarantee contributes to the overall quality of the visitor experience. However, regulations concerning other aspects such as length of stay, group size and number (Glasson & Therivel, 2013) are yet to be established here. Another form of regulatory measure is related to finance, in particular the pricing strategy (Pérez Guilarte & Lois González, 2018). In this regard, Sade adopted a donation slant for entrance fee and local guide fee instead of a fixed price. This seems to be a commendable strategy that has resulted in a significant amount of income for the destination. Fixed pricing is only utilised for the parking charges and price of souvenirs sold within the village.

With regard to the enhancement strategies for visitor experience, local guides are well-equipped with the knowledge and interpretation about the traditional houses, local cultures, and local history. The guides also inform visitors about prohibited and permitted activities. This strategy seems effective in educating tourists to prevent negative impacts as argued by Kuo (2002). In fact, the education and awareness brings about a positive facet to the visitor experience as their knowledge about the destination is enriched. In fact, the participants from the local guide group claimed that tourists whom they accompany appear to be satisfied with the information and interpretation provided and there have not been any complaints from them about the overall activities at the village.

Another strategy for experience enhancement is the weaving activity with local craftsmen. Tourists can take the opportunity to try weaving or buy local products as souvenirs. This is an essential component of visitor management in which

collaboration between local guides and craftsmen (who are also entrepreneurs and sell their products) could enhance visitor experience and quality of visit.

Community Participation and Roles in VM

The research findings revealed that Sade has a unique community participation model for VM which had developed organically through the involvement of all the community groups. Grounded on strong cultural and social values of togetherness and kinship has enabled a perfect harmonisation of local involvement in VM. To expound, each group of the community has taken an essential and active role in the implementation of VM, thus assuring the positive impacts of tourism development benefits all the locals. In reference to VM (Glasson & Therivel, 2013; Jefferies & Lepp, 2012; Kim, 2010; Larsen, 2007; Mason, 2005; McArthur & Hall, 1996; Pfueller et al., 2011; Wyman et al., 2011), we can conclude that the local community at Sade has taken essential roles related to the three core aspects of VM: regulatory measures to avoid negative impacts, experience enhancement strategies, and stakeholder participation and collaboration.

Further, based on the findings, the local community at Sade is the only key actor in VM. Based on Arnstein's ladder of participation theory (1969), the community seems to have reached the highest level of participation or "citizen power". This is because all the groups in the Sade community have assumed their roles as decision maker, key executor, experience enhancer, and attraction provider (Figure 3). In addition, the active roles of each group have been weaved seamlessly together for an effective VM. The integrated roles complement one another creating "a solid and perfect wheel". This means, when a part of the wheel goes missing, the VM implementation might lose its effectiveness which could negatively impact the overall tourism development.

In Sade's tourism management, the customary leader is the main person taking the lead of the overall planning and who also acts as the regulator and controller. The tourism regulation here is based on local and social values as well as the local wisdom adhered to by the Sade community. This includes regulations related to permitted and prohibited tourism activities for tourists. This approach is in line with the visitor management concept of Mason (2005) as well as Glasson and Therivel (2013) who regard regulations that minimise risks as an essential VM component. Moreover, the profit-sharing scheme and role of each community group are also decided based on these same social values, with the customary head as the torchbearer. In addition, the tourism management group also acts as the controller for the overall implementation of VM. As a part of tourism management process, the community gathers at the meeting hall once every month for evaluation.

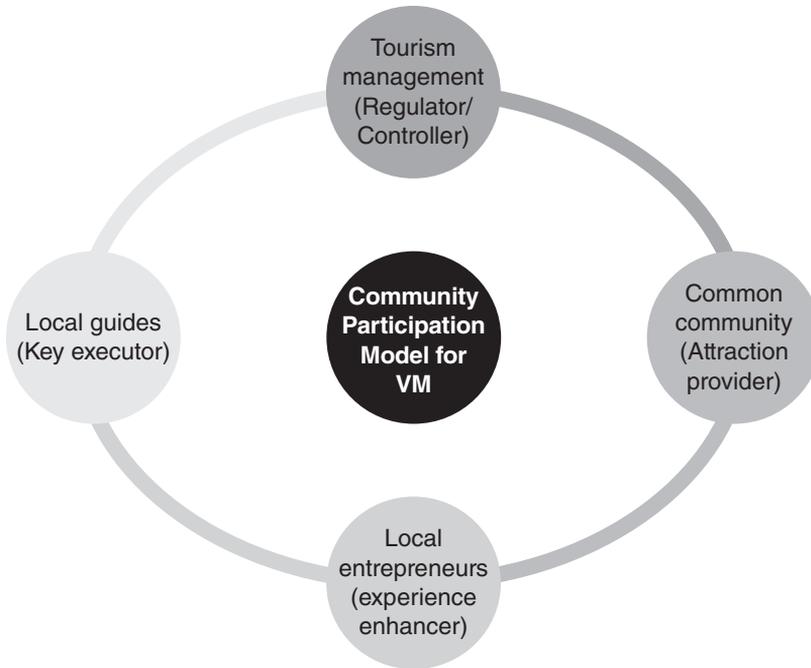


Figure 3. Sade's community participation model for visitor management

The second group, that is, local guides act as the key executor of VM. The guides escort tourists from the entrance gate till the exit gate for three main purposes: safety, interpretation, and visitor experience. Sade adopted the one-gate system to assure the safety of the locals and protect local property including traditional houses, possessions, cultural heritages as well as visitors' belongings. The local guides are the key person for the overall tourism information and interpretation in the village. Visitors are required to have a guide accompany them during their visit to explain about the attractions of the village. Most of the guides can speak English although there is still room for improvement. The interpretation and companionship provided by the local guides enrich further the tourists' overall experience.

Local entrepreneurs as the third group involved in VM are experience enhancers who offer products or services to tourists; something to buy besides something to see and do. Indeed, according to Mottiar and Tucker (2007), small-scale entrepreneurship by local communities could significantly contribute to the overall development and operation of any destination. Local entrepreneurs at Sade make and sell weaving products and traditional handmade handicrafts in small stalls in front of their houses. Each stall is normally owned by an extended family that sells its handmade crafts at the stall. This is a great initiative of the local community. However, to improve

destination competitiveness, its local entrepreneurs should be more responsive in adapting to new demands in order to compete in saturated markets (Gomezelj & Mihalič, 2008; Komppula, 2014).

The last group which also plays an important role is the attraction providers. This group comprises members of the community who have offered up their traditional houses and environment as the main tourist attractions for the benefit of the community. Based on the interviews, 10 of the existing 50 houses have been turned into the main attractions with access controlled by the local guides. The rest of the houses are additional attractions to support the overall visitor experience, although some particular houses are considered as restricted areas, in particular during ceremonial days.

Implications of the VM Model on the Economy, Socio-culture, and Environment

Premised on sustainable development for all, the sustainable tourism concept is a win-win solution that has been developed to maximise the benefits and minimise the drawbacks of mass tourism. The many definitions of sustainable tourism by scholars are derived from the Brundlant Report (Weaver, 2006). According to Weaver (2006), sustainable tourism includes measures to minimise the negative impacts of tourism and maximise its positive impacts on development. Another definition by Swarbrooke (1999) paints sustainable tourism as an economically viable industry which should not partake in destroying resources on which the future of tourism highly depends on including the physical environment (natural resources and landscape) as well as the social fabric of the host community. The common theme in both definitions is that sustainable tourism should benefit not only tourists or investors but also the host communities in three core aspects encompassing economic, social and environment. Hence, for the present study, the effects of tourism activities and the visitor management model on the economy, socio-culture as well as environment were also examined.

As one of the fastest growing industries in the world, tourism has and continues to significantly contribute towards economic growth (Fleischer & Felsenstein, 2000; Goodwin, 2008). Rural tourism as a significant economic opportunity should be capitalised as an additional income source by the local communities through the diversification of activities (Viljoen & Tlabela, 2007). The findings revealed that the local community in Sade Traditional Village are well aware of the economic opportunities of tourism development to help them boost their household incomes. Indeed, the division of roles (tourism management, guide, entrepreneurs, and common communities) enables the community to actively partake in the tourism activities. Each group undertakes a particular role to complement and support each other to achieve the economic objectives of the village through tourism development.

This corroborates with Albrecht (2016) and Irshad (2010) who stressed that collaboration and community participation is an integral part of VM to reach the tourism goals and purpose of a destination.

The main income source of the locals here is guide fee, entrance fee, and sales from weaving products and handicrafts. For the entrance fee, there is no standard fee but instead constitutes a donation based on the tourists' willingness and generosity. This approach is a soft version of visitor management with a flexible pricing strategy; although, sometimes this generates confusion amongst tourists as to the appropriate amount to donate. However, as the donations have proved to be sufficient to provide an additional local income, this presents a key strategy for successful rural tourism that can significantly augment the local economy (Irshad, 2010). In addition to donations as entrance fees, locals also act as tour guides to earn additional income although the fee is also not standardised.

Each guide, on average, earns about IDR 50,000–100,000/day depending on the number of guests or tourists. Approximately, 50 tour guides take turns to escort tourists. The amount of money received from the tourists, especially local and domestic tourists, ranges from IDR 20,000–50,000. From this amount, each guide allocates half of the fee to the management fund. Similarly, the local entrepreneurs earn a variable income through the sale of handicraft products. The last group, that is, the attraction providers receive the trickle-down economic benefits of the overall tourism activities.

Although more innovative and creative efforts can further improve income generation, undoubtedly, tourism has contributed to the welfare of the local community through the diversification of income. This has helped diversify the local economy especially as the majority of inhabitants have previously relied on agriculture or migrant work as the main means of livelihood. With the development of the tourism village, the local community can have an alternate source of income which has helped them move away from migrant work. In short, tourism has contributed to Sade's economic development through the diversification of income and livelihood.

The economic benefits of tourism in Sade village have also to a certain extent provided some social benefits by helping the locals to remain with their families instead of becoming a migrant worker. This also accords them opportunities to practise and manifest their social values, traditions and cultural activities in their families and community. Another social benefit that can be seen at Sade is the access and opportunities made available for taking advantage of tourism benefits. Through the division of roles among members, the community participation here is reflective of the highest degree of participation, in reference to Arnstein's citizen participation ladder theory; in other words, the local community has full control over tourism development including visitor management (Arnstein, 1969). The local community

here is the key stakeholder that carries out tourism development from management to operation and is guided by the local wisdom and prevailing customs. Thus, in terms of social development, the local community at Sade has also benefited tremendously through its tourism development in a sustainable manner.

Table 1. The economic benefits for Sade’s local community

Community groups	Tourism roles	Economic benefits
Tourism management	Regulation, decision makers, controllers	Management fees (entrance donation / fee and other shared fees from tourism activities)
Local guides	Key executors in visitor management	Guide fees from tourists
Local entrepreneurs	Enhance experience	Sales from weaving products and handicrafts
Common communities	Main attraction providers (traditional houses)	Management fees

In regard to environmental benefits, according to the participants, there has been a positive change to the surrounding environment. Prior to tourism development, Sade Village did not have a proper waste management system. The waste from community’s livestock and other wastes were left unmanaged and uncontrolled. Tourism development here helped the community to connect with the local authorities and improve the waste management system. Additionally, the local community has become more aware of keeping the environment clean so that tourists could enjoy the beauty of the village in a clean and comfortable environment. While the waste management system has yet to adopt 3R (Reduce, Reuse, and Recycle), waste is now disposed out of the village through facilities provided by the local authorities.

Conclusion

This study explored and discussed the unique model of community participation for VM in Sade Traditional Village from the perspective of three VM core aspects (regulatory measures, enhancement strategies for visitor experience, community roles and participation). The findings reveal the the integrated and inseparable roles of each community group, created a perfect model of VM that minimises risks and maximises economic benefits. The findings also highlight the positive changes towards sustainability in terms of economy, social and environment. Indeed, the model can be further strengthened and improved through more creative measures especially in the pricing strategies to avoid overtourism. This is especially essential as the rural tourism concept advocates small-scale operations with an emphasis on

quality tourists rather than quantity. This should be taken into consideration by Sade as well as rural destinations, especially in formulating pricing strategies that attract more quality tourists with less risks as opposed to an excessive number of low-quality tourists. In addition, although the community participation model shown in this study could be a working model for traditional villages, further research is needed to explore other community participation models appropriate for other concepts of rural destinations in developing countries.

Acknowledgement

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Empirical Paper

Tourism and Internship: Challenges Faced by University Students during the Enforcement of MCO in Malaysia

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Abstract: It is an established fact that the COVID-19 pandemic has had a considerable effect on employment in the tourism and hospitality industry. From the perspective of universities, this problem has brought several repercussions to student interns because their positions as interns have become highly vulnerable during this time of crisis. In this regard, this paper aims to investigate the challenges faced by student interns during the implementation of Movement Control Order (MCO) 1.0 in Malaysia. The analysis of this paper focuses on UUM student interns majoring in Tourism Management. The experiences of 25 practicum students were gathered through semi-structured interviews and the interview transcripts were analysed using content analysis. The findings of this paper suggest that all tourism practicum students have been physically or psychologically affected to a certain degree by the enforcement of the MCO. Among the difficulties encountered by practicum students during the MCO include early termination, working from home and working outside of their job scope. Overall, the findings of this paper offer insightful thoughts for tourism internship by highlighting key aspects in managing practicum students during times of crisis. For future studies, it is important for researchers to explore the long-term effects of lockdowns to university students, particularly on their future careers in tourism, which strongly requires industry exposure.

Keywords: COVID-19, internship, MCO, tourism

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Introduction

With the rapid development of the tourism industry, sustainable tourism has and continues to receive immense attention from scholars and practitioners in the field.

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It is believed that the sustainability concept first emerged as a part of efforts to minimise the negative impacts of the tourism industry on environmental resources (Zolfani, Sedaghatc, Maknoona, & Zavadskasd, 2015). Literature shows that the concept of sustainable tourism has expanded from a focus on environmental protection to one that incorporates the economic, social and community aspects. From a holistic perspective, the United Nations Sustainable Development Summit has proposed 2030 Agenda which features the component of human resources as a part of its 17 goals (Baum et al., 2016). This aspiration is reflected through its eighth goal, which revolves around the promotion of decent work and employment growth (UNDP, 2021). As the tourism industry commonly boosts employment opportunities, it is generally believed and accepted that it encourages sustainable development (Zolfani et al., 2015).

In terms of employment, tourism is a significant source of job creation for many countries, particularly for the middle and low income nations (Breisinger, Latif, Raouf & Wiebelt, 2020). In Malaysia, the tourism industry provides employment opportunities and businesses to more than 3.7 million Malaysians and remains one of the main contributors to the country's GDP, with an estimation of 15.3% (MOTAC, 2020). Therefore, it is crucial to analyse the impacts of this health pandemic on employment in the tourism industry. In fact, Baum (2018) argued that there are limited studies in the field of sustainable tourism that focus on the employment aspect. Thus, this paper aims to fill in the gap by exploring the implications of the COVID-19 pandemic for tourism employment by concentrating on student interns majoring in tourism management. This paper focuses specifically on students undertaking the Bachelor of Tourism Management (BTM) offered by the Department of Tourism, School of Tourism, Hospitality and Event Management, Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM).

Internship or practical training is considered the hallmark or integral component of a bachelor's degree programme for many university students (Stauffer, 2020). In fact, many students of universities and other institutions of higher learning look forward to the opportunity of acquiring hands-on experience so that they can put into practice what they have been studying for three to four years. Unfortunately, due to the pandemic, thousands of students have had to stay at home rather than participate in the internship programmes they had initially planned to undertake ("Students lose internships", 2020). Not only do students due for their practical training are seriously impacted and unable to move forward, those majoring in tourism and leisure studies are also affected as well. One of the main reasons is the dying tourism industry as there is virtually no work available due to the pandemic and travel bans/lockdowns imposed ("Students lose internships", 2020). Therefore, companies and employers have had to cancel nearly all internship and practical training engagements as they have been severely affected by the pandemic.

From the students' perspective, the outlook of this scenario is not very promising

as they are forced to postpone their internships or carry out alternative forms of assessments. As described by Parrett (2020), potential interns and graduates are left scrambling because of cancelled internships and diminished job opportunities. Many students are stuck in unforeseeable situations and face the risk of not being able to graduate on time (Stauffer, 2020). This scenario has left many practicum students in a state of uncertainty and some of them expressed their concern and were not sure how to prepare for their future as this predicament will affect their career and financial stability.

For many practicum students who were allowed to continue their internships, they have to face the probability of not getting fully paid or not being paid at all. It is extremely important for many of these students to find paid internship programmes as for some, this is the only way for them to support themselves before graduating (Stauffer, 2020). The situation is getting harder for students as the spread and impacts of COVID-19 worsen and the number of internship opportunities decline (Parrett, 2020). In fact, it is predicted that this current situation will pose challenges for future interns and job seekers.

Although some organisations have transferred their internships online, other tourism related companies such as Disney Parks located in Anaheim and Florida have terminated their existing internship programmes on short notice. As a result, these interns have had to pack and leave these parks within one week (Martin, 2020). Corresponding to the global situation, students currently undergoing their internships in Malaysia are experiencing a similar fate. Therefore, this paper aims to investigate to what extent the implementation of the MCO as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic has impacted the practical training experience of students majoring in Tourism Management in their last semester.

Literature Review

In terms of research, scholars in the field of tourism and hospitality education have carried out studies on internship programmes for an extended period of time due to their importance to the field (Robinson, Ruhanen & Breakey, 2016). Literature on internship dates back to the 1970s. For example, in 1979, English and Lawison argued that internships had not been widely recognised by academic institutions or perceived as part of the scholarly domain even though various positive feedbacks had been highlighted. Nevertheless, the significance of internship has been gradually recognised over the years. Nowadays, it represents a crucial part of the contemporary academic curriculum which can add a competitive advantage to those taking part in the programmes (Donina, 2015).

Over the years, various terms have been used to refer to “internship” in literature. Some of the words previously used include vocational training, sandwich placements, cooperative educational placements, industrial experience, industrial

placement, supervised work experience, or industry placements (Busby, Brunt & Baber, as cited in Robinson et al., 2016). An internship can be described as “a short period of practical work experience wherein students receive training as well as gain invaluable job experience in a specific field or potential career of their interest” (Zopiatis & Theocharous, 2013, p. 34). Regardless of the various terms adopted, for students studying at the tertiary level, internship simply means obtaining practical work experience before graduation.

The present literature demonstrates that internship is one of the key characteristics of tertiary tourism programmes around the world from Europe to America to Asia. Many scholars recognise that relying solely on theoretical knowledge is insufficient as the practical component is equally important in today’s workplace (Felicen, Rasa, Sumanga & Buted, 2014), particularly in the tourism and hospitality industry. In fact, one of the ways students can enhance their soft skills is by participating in an internship programme (Jawabri, 2017). Therefore, the development of university academic programmes which incorporate internships makes it easier for students to transition into the working life (Felicen et al., 2014).

In addition to the high value placed on academic achievements, nowadays, tourism and hospitality companies also expect entry-level managers that they hire to be equipped with sound practical skills (Schoffstall, 2013). Studies show that those who have participated in internships or relevant job experiences are twice as likely to get hired after graduation (Gallup Study, cited in Stauffer, 2020). Another reason why internship programmes are required is because tourism is a service industry which involves a high level of contact with customers. In addition to knowledge, skill set plays another vital part in providing excellent services or operating businesses in this sector (Koc, Yumusak, Ulukoy, Kilic & Toptas, 2014).

Internship programmes are well-known for providing considerable benefits to the stakeholders involved. In this regard, Walo (2001) highlighted that internship offers advantages to three primary stakeholders: students, universities or higher education institutions, and the industry players. For tertiary students, it can offer them opportunities to learn, and particularly for those pursuing travel and tourism studies, they can take advantage of this chance to promote themselves to potential employers (Losekoot, Lasten, Lawson & Chen, 2001).

From the employers’ perspective, internship programmes give them access to a large number of potential employees in the job market who are supposedly committed and passionate (Walo, 2001). This is because these students have specifically chosen tourism and hospitality as their major in universities and other higher education institutions, including vocational education. The interns can also offer tourism and hospitality organisations new ideas and useful recommendations as they have familiarised themselves with the theoretical and academic aspects of the business before undertaking their practical training.

Further, internship allows organisations or businesses to network with universities, therefore providing them opportunities to choose among the best students to join their companies, as well as getting extra help from interns during peak periods with minimum pay or for free. Companies which offer internship programmes also project a good image to the public and demonstrate social responsibility (Donina, 2015). The author further explains that academic institutions can benefit from internship programmes as the programmes help institutions develop and offer courses which meet the needs of the industry. This is because industry players who participate in these internship programmes provide feedback on their curriculum and open doors for university staff to network.

A study by Fong, Lee, Luk & Law (2014) analysed the factors that influence students of tourism and hospitality management in choosing internship employers. Their findings revealed that there are objective and subjective factors which come into play when selecting internship employers. Objective factors include competitive remuneration, organisational brand, experience with the company as a consumer, and commuting distance to the workplace. This research further elaborated that friendly colleagues and organisational brand are two subjective factors which can also determine the choice of internship employers among students.

Moreover, findings from Lu and Wang's study (2018) uncovered that internships can boost students' entrepreneurial spirit. This is because upon completion of their internship, many students have claimed that their interpersonal and communications skills, as well as problem-solving abilities have improved tremendously and they are more likely to be able to spot business opportunities. These are all necessary skills for people who want to be successful in running their own businesses. Therefore, if students are able to sharpen their soft skills and be proactive in identifying business opportunities, they may potentially open their own small business after graduation.

However, in evaluating the satisfaction level of a particular internship programme, employers' satisfaction bears more weight than the performance of the interns. The way a course has been structured and the management of the training programmes also contribute to the assessment (Jiang & Zhang, 2016). In analysing student satisfaction from hospitality internships in Greece, Marinakou and Giousmpasoglou (2013) found that on the whole, students have favourable perceptions towards their practical training. However, these authors further revealed that factors such as positive working environment, the learning experience, social interactions with mentors and staff, and work settings are among the factors which shape student satisfaction with the internship. Although the positive aspects of an internship are commonly cited, there are also a number of criticisms associated with it. Among others, the disadvantages of internship include the fact that some students are only doing it to acquire credits offered by the university while others have to get another job or income source to fund their internship programme as they are not paid (Stauffer, 2020).

In the context of Malaysia, there have been several studies on hospitality internship. For example, a study by Soffi, Mohamed, and Che Ishak (2020) investigated some of the main challenges encountered by internship coordinators in public universities who manage undergraduate hospitality programmes. Problems associated with attitude, manipulation, placement, sexual harassment and student preparedness are among the key issues identified in this research. Moreover, Ruslan, Mohamad, Juhari, and Karim (2019) investigated factors that influence internship satisfaction among hospitality undergraduates in public universities. Based on the analysis of three independent variables, the study found that organisational environment is the most critical factor in determining the satisfaction of hospitality students during their internship programmes. This is followed by job characteristics and contextual factors. One of the key features of evaluating internship performance during practical training is feedback from employers. Chiu, Mahat, Rashid, Razak, and Omar (2016) evaluated UUM students' performance in terms of knowledge and skill competency during their industrial training programmes based on their employers' perspectives. The analysis was conducted on various academic programmes offered by UUM, including tourism and hospitality management. Based on the employers' assessment, the UUM student interns received a good evaluation for their practical skills, leadership and discipline. However, these students needed to improve their communication skills and learn to adjust to the new working environment.

Based on this literature review, it is evident that there is quite a number of researches in the area of tourism internship. Nevertheless, it is now crucial to look into how a health crisis like the COVID-19 pandemic which led the Malaysian government to enforce MCO, has impacted students' practical training in the field of tourism. In actual fact, the pandemic is far from over at this moment but there are many valuable insights that can be derived from findings of this study, especially pertaining to students' perspectives and experiences while undertaking practical training during this difficult period.

Materials and Methods

This study adopted a qualitative approach to assess the challenges faced by student interns during the enforcement of MCO 1.0 in Malaysia early last year. It was considered the most suitable approach to uncover a deeper understanding relating to the experiences of practicum students who had to undergo their internships during this difficult period. Interview is one of the main research methods often adopted in gathering qualitative data (Jamshed, 2014). Thus, the semi-structured interview was chosen as the method to obtain data for this study. Edwards and Holland (2013) stated that a semi-structured interview can be described as a process in which researchers prepare a list of questions they want to ask the interviewees. However, the

interviewees are free to choose how they respond to these questions. Nevertheless, the researchers also have the opportunity to engage in further discussions with the interviewees for clarification.

Interview Protocol and Pilot Study

Before the start of the data collection process, an interview protocol was first developed. Firstly, interview questions were developed according to the research questions. As the primary aim of this research is to explore challenges faced by practicum students during the enforcement of MCO 1.0, several interview questions related to this issue were carefully designed. To ensure their validity, the interview questions were designed based on the literature review and reports from the mass media regarding problems faced by student interns due to the lockdown measures imposed by various countries as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. The main questions developed for the semi-structured interview mainly revolve around key challenges encountered by student interns involving termination of employment and psychological impacts.

To improve the interview questions, a pilot study was carried out with three students undergoing their practical training with a hotel, a travel agency and a government agency, respectively. Based on their responses, a few additional questions related to issues of working from home (WFH) and working outside of job scope were added to the existing list. The appropriate procedures and strategies on how to approach and conduct interview sessions with practicum students were then formed. During the pilot study, the researcher was also informed that some students might prefer to be interviewed in the Malay language rather than English, while some of them would prefer to use both languages. One of the reasons cited was that they feel more comfortable expressing themselves in their first language. Therefore, the researcher developed the interview questions in both versions of Malay and English. After the interview sessions were conducted, the interview scripts written in Malay were then translated into English.

The Data Collection and Analysis

Participants were selected from UUM's Bachelor of Management (BTM) students who were scheduled to undergo practicum training from Feb to June 2020. Approximately 60 BTM practicum students were initially shortlisted as participants in this study. However, after the initial contact, only less than half of them agreed to participate in this study. In fact, several students could not be reached or contacted.

Eight students were interviewed face-to-face when they came to submit their final practicum reports to their academic supervisors at UUM's Sintok campus in July 2020, while 17 other participants were interviewed through telephone calls.

The interview transcripts from the semi-structured interviews were analysed using content analysis to uncover the main themes related to the research topic. As described by Downe-Wamboldt (1992), content analysis is a tool which allows the researcher to offer logical and unbiased findings and enables them to generate a rational conclusion from the written, spoken or visual communication forms. It is considered suitable to be used in the assessment of interview scripts. The coding in the content analysis process is the problems encountered by students during the MCO. During the content analysis process, all the problems mentioned by the participants were listed. Next, these listed problems were classified into several themes based on some of the key questions developed from the literature review stage and pilot study. Among the main themes of difficulties encountered by practicum students during the MCO include early termination, working from home, working outside of job scope, psychological impacts and report writing.

To validate the findings of this study, the data collected from the semi-structured interviews were validated with practicum students from related fields. In fact, interviews with other university practicum coordinators, particularly in the fields of hospitality management and event management, were also carried out by the researcher to validate these findings.

Results and Discussion

MCO and Initial Challenges: Working From Home and Beyond Job Scope

All 25 practicum students who were interviewed mentioned that they had been impacted by the MCO to a certain degree. The challenges cited by the participants ranged from having to work from home, working beyond their job scope, that is, beyond that of tourism and hospitality, and facing early termination of their internship. One of the earliest repercussions, as mentioned by the participants, was that a majority of employers had asked their student interns to work from home. Out of 25 practicum students interviewed, 20 students told the interviewer that they had been granted permission to work from home by their employers immediately after the announcement on MCO. However, half of the students claimed that they had to familiarise and adapt quickly to the new working environment. During the initial stages of the MCO, WFH was relatively new even for the permanent employees, and these students were not clearly briefed on the expectations of their organisations.

Four participants reported that they were asked by their companies/employers to perform work outside of their job scope (i.e. beyond that of tourism and hospitality) during and after the MCO period.

One student who worked at a travel agency claimed:

“I had to help my practicum company to do some of its side businesses during the MCO. For example, I was asked to do promotion, take orders, and sometimes arrange for delivery for its fruit business. I was very worried as I was supposed to learn and expand my knowledge on the practical aspects of travel and tourism management”.

Another student asserted:

“The travel agency I worked with was involved in the sanitation business, and I was asked by the supervisor to organise some of its activities. I was very concerned as organising sanitation activities was definitely out of the scope of tourism management”.

These two students further elaborated that their employers justified the change as they had to run other businesses in order to survive during the difficult MCO period.

Early Dismissal and Psychological Impact

Three participants indicated that after the MCO period was extended further into the third and fourth phases by the Malaysian government due to the severity of the COVID-19 pandemic, they were terminated by their practicum organisations. The three terminated students had been working at a hotel, a resort and a tourist attraction, respectively. Their supervisors had explained to them that they needed to close their operations as they were not allowed to accept customers during the MCO period. Despite the justification given, these practical students who were released from their internship attachment were greatly disappointed and were thrown into a state of panic as they had hoped to gain valuable experience from their practical training.

Two practicum students who had the opportunity to work with a well-known hotel also expressed their disappointment. One student who worked with a hotel in Sabah voiced his frustration:

“I had a high hopes in my internship programme. I thought I was lucky to be selected to do my internship at this famous hotel. I was looking forward to learning and gaining experience in many departments in the hotel industry.”

Another student who was terminated by another hotel in Kuala Lumpur also expressed his disappointment:

“I was looking forward to completing my internship programme with this renowned hotel. I was assigned by my supervisor to work with the VIP customers

of this hotel before I was terminated. In fact, I was the first practicum student from my batch who was terminated after the government announced the MCO. I felt like my dreams had been shattered as my internship programme had been cut short”.

Moreover, the participants also admitted that after they had been terminated by their respective practicum organisations, they were concerned whether they would still be able to graduate on time.

During the interviews, it was revealed that there were several challenges faced by the students who were given an early dismissal. Having lost their internship positions, they also lost their financial security and came under immense pressure to find new temporary accommodation. One student admitted:

“I had to do part-time jobs after I was terminated as I had to support myself and continue to pay for my apartment rental. Not only that, I was not even allowed to go home to Penang at that time”.

Another practicum student who was working with a tourist attraction site in KL claimed:

“I was in a lot of stress as I had no income to support myself and had to wait for a while before I was allowed to go back to my hometown in Kelantan. It was really tough for other practicum students and myself at that time”.

These two students shared their difficulties of being stranded far away from their homes and not allowed to return to their hometowns due to the interstate travel restriction during the MCO.

Another key finding that emerged from the interview was the psychological impact, as participants felt very unfortunate that the COVID-19 pandemic and MCO 1.0 coincided with their practicum training. Additionally, more than half of the participants highlighted their concerns and expressed their worries for their future careers. One participant lamented:

“I don’t think I will be able to get a proper job in the near future due to COVID-19”.

Another bemoaned:

“I have been waiting to start my career in the tourism and hospitality industry since the day I got accepted to study tourism management course at UUM 3 years ago. Now my hope and dream of an ideal career in this field is ruined”.

Furthermore, one male student shared his concern:

“I was hoping that I can get a good job after finishing my study so that I can help my family. Now I’m not sure of my future anymore”.

Similarly, another participant expressed his frustration:

“The 2020 practicum batch is an unlucky group of students ... how could this happen as I was about to graduate after years of hard work”.

In general, most, if not all, the students who participated in this study felt that they were an unlucky group as they should have gained maximum training, exposure and experience in the industry and then graduating in 2020. A few participants claimed that it should have been the best year for them as university students. Many of those worried about their future and career path discussed this matter with their friends who were experiencing a similar fate as well as their academic supervisors. These findings clearly demonstrate that these students require motivation, discussion or counselling in regard to their difficult practicum experience during the MCO.

Practicum Report and Logbook Writing

The participants also expressed their concerns related to report and logbook writing, which are two of the most important criteria in the evaluation and grading of practicum. A majority of the participants interviewed disclosed that they were unsure of what to write in their logbooks and were unable to produce a good practicum report as their working experience had been cut short due to MCO. Both categories of students, those who had been terminated early and those who were lucky enough to resume their practicum, consistently expressed similar concerns. This is because writing their daily logbook was a challenging task as there were limited duties assigned to them during MCO. For example, one student claimed:

“Although I was supposed to be working from home, my employer just gives me a few simple tasks to be done at home”.

Another student revealed:

“I thought I was fortunate as the travel agency I was attached to for my practicum called me back to resume my internship as the company is located in the green zone and was allowed to start operating towards the end of my practicum period. However, my employer mostly asked me to do documentation tasks”.

Moreover, many participants claimed that the writing of their final report was not an easy task because those who received an early dismissal had only approximately one month's experience at their workplace, while those who were able to resume their practicum had only about two months of working experience.

Discussion

To a certain extent, the findings of this paper represent the present scenario throughout the world as maintained by Parrett (2020), Stauffer (2020) and "Students lose internships" (2020) in recent literature. They claim that many student interns are struggling to find a place to continue their practical training. This verifies that the predicament with tourism internship is not exclusive to Malaysia. On the bright side, at least UUM's Tourism Management students have had the opportunity to experience practical training for approximately a month before the implementation of the MCO in Malaysia which required all non-essential businesses to stop operating.

From the psychological perspective, it is important to assure the students and make them realise that despite their internship being terminated or shortened, it is not the end of the world. Their safety was the main priority of their university's management during the MCO period. However, it is normal for students to be disappointed and sad as internship is an experience many undergraduates eagerly look forward to. This is evident when Stauffer (2020) stated that for bachelor's degree programmes, internship is the hallmark for many university students in which they look forward to putting into practice what they had studied for three to four years.

Thus, it is highly important to address the psychological impacts of the crisis experienced by students rather than just the direct consequences such as losing internship posts and working experience. One of the vital lessons learnt from this health crisis is that relevant university authorities should be able to provide emotional and motivational support to students when necessary. In addition to empathy, students who encountered difficulties should be motivated so that they will still strive to produce a good final report for their assessment.

In this regard, students should not use the hardships encountered as an excuse to submit a weak report or work of low quality to their academic supervisors. From the perspective of sustainable human resource management, this is crucial to continuously produce top quality tourism graduates for the job market. Although some of the students may consider jobs and tasks outside the tourism and hospitality field as unattractive, in actual fact, they can learn important lessons from this crisis and equip themselves for survival in the future. The findings of this paper offer valuable knowledge to institutions of higher education as to how they can prepare future practicum students in the event of a crisis.

In order to check the validity of the findings, practicum coordinators from related courses such as Hospitality Management and Event Management Programmes, were consulted to verify if their students experienced similar problems during MCO 1.0. Feedback received from these coordinators confirmed that their practicum students also encountered similar difficulties in terms of early dismissals, unpaid leave, work from home and difficulties in producing a good report. In fact, the Hospitality Management coordinator informed the researcher that a considerable number of their practicum students were terminated as many hotels had not been allowed to operate during the MCO period.

Conclusion

This study investigated the challenges that tourism student interns had to experience due to the enforcement of MCO 1.0 in Malaysia. Several challenges were identified based on the experiences of practicum students majoring in Tourism Management, scheduled for their internship from February to June 2020, which coincided with the enforcement of the MCO. The majority of the students had to spend most of their internship period working from home, while some received an early dismissal, and some had to perform tasks outside their job scope, i.e. beyond that of tourism and hospitality. Several students also voiced their concerns relating to report and logbook writing as there were very few duties assigned to them during the period of the MCO. Although many of the students interviewed expressed their unhappiness regarding the spread of COVID-19 globally and nationally, which had shortened their practical training experience last semester, several useful lessons can be gained from this health crisis such as safety being a priority in life. Overall, this paper explored the sustainability aspect from the perspective of human resource management in tourism by delving into how practicum students had been impacted by the enforcement of MCO 1.0 in Malaysia last year. The insights gained are valuable for future researchers to investigate further the long-term effects of the COVID-19 pandemic and lockdowns to university students, particularly on their future careers in tourism, which highly require industry experience.

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Empirical Paper

The Traditions of the Gumantar Indigenous Community Amid the Onslaught of Modern Culture

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Abstract: This research aims to explore and study the traditions of the Gumantar Village people as local cultural wisdom of the past in the midst of the development of modern culture. The research methods used to collect the data were in-depth interviews, observation, and documentation. By using qualitative descriptive data analysis, the research results obtained were in the forms of descriptions of traditions, customs, and conditions of cultures, such as the traditions and customs that are harmonious with the religion they believe in; the structure and institutions of collective and collegial indigenous people in making customary decisions; the harmony of customary law and state law; the traditional house as local wisdom that is strong and well preserved; the customary forest as an asset with an area of 7.6 hectares that can be a source of needs for customary villages; the natural resources, traditional arts, and traditional games that are still used in traditional events; the livelihoods of the people as farmers and their devout Islam observance; and the friendly and polite characteristics of society in receiving guests. The traditions of the Gumantar Village community are existing iconic traditions, which are used as an area of research from various dimensions of natural and pristine culture.

Keywords: Tradition, culture, customary village, strike modernisation

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Introduction

Sustainable development goals (SDGs) has uprooted the 2030 Agenda to change the world and to address the challenges faced by mankind in ensuring prosperity, economic prosperity, and environmental protection. This is in contrast to the conventional development agenda which focuses on limited scope and dimensions (Pradhan, Costa, Rybski, Lucht, & Kropp, 2017). The SDGs provide a holistic and multidimensional view of development, including tourism development for the welfare of society, the environment, and local culture.

The development of tourism showed a significant increase, as seen from the data from the West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) Tourism Office. The data showed that 2,469,026 tourists have visited West Nusa Tenggara up to August 2018. This number consisted of 1,399,397 Indonesian tourists and 1,069,629 foreign tourists. The tourism destination on a smaller scope was a village area. As an important part of the tourism industry in China, rural tourism is an engine to revive the economy (He, 2011), as it can develop rural employment, encourage related development in rural areas, and develop and revitalise rural culture (Guo & Han, 2010). Tourism development has become one of the main forces to support rural reconstruction (Long & Tu, 2017). The proposed indicator, where rural is measured by empathy factors, namely economy, population, social and life, and location (Shen, Wang, Quan, & Xu, 2019). Community participation in development is defined as effective community participation (Supriady & Riyadi, 2005). Participation is community participation in the process of identifying problems and potentials in society, selecting and making decisions about solutions to problems, implementing efforts to overcome problems, and maintaining community order in the process of change that occurred (Isbandi, 2007). The village development process is needed to encourage participation from the village community in filling and using available natural resources, so that the community does not act as an audience in their own village (Slamet, 2003). In addition, Lane and Kastenzholz (2015) also stated that level tourism as a development strategy is appropriate for rural areas in many developed and developing countries.

North Lombok Regency (KLU) is one of 10 regencies or cities in West Nusa Tenggara Province located in the northern part of Lombok Island with a total area of 809.53 km². It is administratively divided into five districts, 33 villages, and 322 hamlets, where the Bayan District has the largest area with a total area of 329.10 km² and the smallest area is Pemenang District with a total area of 81.09 km². North Lombok Regency is a very strategic location as a tourism destination. The Lombok Strait as a sea transportation route is increasingly being used by ships to carry fuel oil from Middle Eastern countries and to transport metal minerals to Asia Pacific from Australia.

Administratively, North Lombok Regency has five subdistricts, and it has various tourism objects and attractions that have potential, namely natural tourism and cultural tourism. Natural tourism includes *Gili Air*, *Gili Meno*, *Gili Trawangan*, Sire Beach, Malimbu Beach, Nipah Beach, Medana Beach, *Montong Pal*, *Pusuk Forest* (Monkey Forest), *Gangga Waterfall*, *Senaru Waterfall*, *Tiu Teja Waterfall*, and *Mount Rinjani National Park*. Meanwhile, cultural tourism includes *Bayan Beleq Mosque*, *Segenter Traditional House*, *Bajo Traditional House*, *peresean*, *gendang Beleq*, traditional dances, gamelan art, and other arts.

North Lombok is one of the paradise tourist destinations for world tourists. It has beautiful beaches which are quite enchanting. Therefore, it cannot be denied that North Lombok's natural beauty has become a magnet for and a dream to both domestic and foreign tourists, who have visited and stopped by this district, as well as have been able to return and enjoy the beauty of the beaches that are second to none in the world. The Gili tourism area offers modernisation with artistic nuances, wrapped in local cultural diversity. Besides a number of its beauty, North Lombok Regency also benefits from its strategic position which borders the island of Bali and the access to the Banda Sea that can become a national tourist destination.

Gumantar Village, one of 20 villages designated as a tourism village by the Tourism Office and North Lombok Regency, has 15 hamlets. One of the hamlets is *Dusun Beleq Village* which has numerous natural and cultural potential that are still original and practised by the *Beleq village community*. The problem faced by the tourism village in North Lombok is: how is the existence of the traditions of the traditional village community to survive in the middle of the onslaught of modern culture? Thus, the purpose of this study is to examine the existence of the traditions of the traditional village community of Gumantar amid the onslaught of modern culture.

The SDGs have set the 2030 Agenda to transform our world amid the various challenges facing humanity to ensure prosperity, economic prosperity, and environmental protection. In contrast to the conventional development agenda which focuses on a finite set of dimensions, the SDGs provide a holistic and multidimensional view of development.

The purpose of this research is to explore and study the traditions of the *Beleq village community* as local cultural wisdom of the past in the midst of the development of modern culture.

Literature Review

Traditions

Traditions last for a certain period of time and may disappear because material objects are discarded or ideas are forgotten by society. Traditions may also reappear after a long absence due to a change and shift in active attitudes towards the past.

And if it has been formed, the tradition will change. Quantitative changes are seen in the number of adherents or supporters. Part of society can be included in certain traditions which will then affect society as a whole (Saefullah, 2007).

Tradition is a community custom passed down from generation to generation (from their ancestors) which is still being practised until now, which is judged or assumed that the existing methods are the best and right (Rais, 2012). Tradition, in the narrow sense, is a collection of material objects and ideas which are given a special meaning that originates from the past and has undergone changes. Traditions were born long ago when people established certain parts of the story from the past as traditions.

Traditional Village and Tourism Village

“Village”, according to Law No. 6, 2014, is a legal community unit that has territorial boundaries assigned to regulate government affairs, the interests of the local community based on community initiative, rights of origin, and/or traditional rights that are valid and respected in the state government system of the Republic of Indonesia. Article Number 6 of this law states that Article 6(1) Villages consist of Villages and Traditional Villages, and Article 6(2) The mention of Village or Traditional Village as referred to in paragraph (1) shall be adjusted to the designation that applies in the local area.

The competitiveness of tourism villages is inseparable from the role of the government; the community in providing excellent service will determine the competitiveness (Adawiyah & Pramuka, 2017; Polo & Frías, 2010). Rural tourism is an increasingly important activity related to the development and conservation of tourism resources as an alternative to tourism development and conservation of indigenous resources (Andriyani, Martono, & Muhamad, 2017; Gupta & Singh, 2013; Singgalen, Wiloso, & Sasongko, 2017).

In tourism development, decision-making by village heads can increase the prospects for the realisation of entrepreneurship in rural communities with the concept of community-based tourism (CBT) and independent rural tourism (A'inun N., Krisnani, & Darwis, 2015; Al-Kautsari, 2017; Almeida, 2017; Dimitrovski, Todorović, & Valjarević, 2012; Susfenti, 2016). Innovation and collaboration between the uniqueness of the village and the creativity of the local community are needed to formulate an identity or characteristics and to be able to improve the quality of village tourism products (Gede, Idrus, & Subadra, 2017).

Cultural Tourism

Sunaryo (2013, p. 26) explained that cultural tourism is a type of tourist attraction based on human works, both in the form of cultural relics and cultural values that

are still alive today. This cultural tourism needs to be developed with the aim of preserving the culture itself, so that it does not disappear along with the times. Kristiningrum (2014, p. 47) defined cultural tourism as tourism in which there are aspects or cultural values regarding community customs, religious traditions, and cultural heritage in an area. Reconstruction of buildings for earthquake victims by ignoring locality is likely to cause problems in the future (Saraswati, 2008).

Damanik (2013, p. 118) defined cultural tourism as visits of people from outside destinations that are driven by an interest in historical objects or relics, art, science, and lifestyles owned by groups, communities, regions, or institutions. Nafila (2013) defined the development of cultural tourism as consisting of four elements, namely tourism, the use of cultural heritage assets, the consumption of experiences and tourism products, as well as tourists. This strongly supports the development of sustainable cultural tourism.

Materials and Methods

The scope of this research is limited to determine the subject of research, so that there is no bias in data processing. The scope of this research is limited to the traditions of the Gumantar traditional village community amid the onslaught of modern culture, which is a real condition that occurs in the community in modern conditions and situations. The research location took place in Gumantar Village, Kayangan subdistrict, North Lombok Regency. This research used the purposive sampling technique, consisting of indigenous people, religious leaders, traditional leaders, youth leaders, women leaders, elements of village government, and academics. From the research results, qualitative data was obtained that described the condition and potential of the traditional Gumantar village community, based on observations and in-depth interviews with respondents who had indicators of ancient traditions and culture of the community; natural, cultural, and artificial potentials owned and developed by the community; community acceptance of foreign and domestic tourists; and fortifying customs and culture from the influence of modernisation.

The data collected from the observations and in-depth interviews were in the form of qualitative data (Bungin, 2007). According to Jennings (2001), a qualitative approach, a phenomenological paradigm using inductive methods, revealed the linkages of various factors to obtain findings as a basic concept for creating grounded theory with data sources, namely primary data sources (Moleong, 2000). The primary data sources in this study were the local community and customary traditions, community structure, role of customary law, traditional houses, customary forests, natural resources, occupations, and religions, as well as the attitude of the community. Data collection in this study was carried out by means of observation and interviews (Bungin, 2007) and was conducted directly with traditional community leaders, youth and women's groups, and the head of *pokdarwis* (a tourism activists group)

in Gumantar Village, in relation to the efforts of indigenous people in maintaining and preserving customs. The data collected was analysed using qualitative analysis techniques, where the researcher would reduce the data obtained in data collection activities performed by observation and in-depth interviews (Sugiyono, 2007). The results of data reduction were presented in the form of narrated descriptions, and the data presented was then concluded.

Results and Discussions

Gumantar Traditional Village Traditions

The existence of a traditional village in the Beleq hamlet contains a traditional village complex which is still used for daily life. In this village complex, there are 26 traditional houses and six *berugak* (buildings on stilts). The centre of this village is called *pegalan*, which is the axis of placement of other traditional houses. In addition, there is the *Bale Beleq*, a house which is designated for customary institutions officials. In addition, other houses are generally occupied by residents. Traditional houses have the following constructions: stone as the foundation, *galih* wood as the pillar, woven bamboo or *bedek* as the wall, reeds or coconut leaves as the roof, and *tanah* (the ground) as the floor. From the outside, the traditional house looks short, as does the door—quite short for the average Indonesian. Inside, however, the house has four levels. The room and kitchen are located on the first level, while the other three levels are used as storage for goods and crops. The door is made short so that when entering the house, people will automatically bow, which is considered a sign of respect.

The *pegalan* is not used as a residence. It is only used in certain traditional ceremonies and only certain people are allowed to enter it, such as traditional elders and other appointed people. *Bale Beleq*, which is occupied by anatomical officials, is used from generation to generation. If there is a change of customary institutions, the new official will occupy the house. All traditional houses in the Beleq hamlet are joint property.

Apart from the traditional houses, there are *berugak* in the traditional village. A *berugak* is a building on stilts that is used as a place for welcoming guests or a place to gather and sit. The stage is usually made of tied bamboo steps. A *berugak* which has four pillars is called *berugak sekepat*, and a *berugak* with six pillars is called *berugak sekenem*. Inside the traditional village complex, there is a special *berugak* called *Berugak Beleq*. This *berugak* can only be used by traditional elders when holding traditional events.

Potential Objects and Tourist Attractions

The traditional Gumantar Village has objects and attractions of natural and cultural tourism, and has been visited by many foreign and domestic tourists. Therefore,

modern life cannot be avoided anymore. Traditional institutions can serve to maintain traditions that are still presented in a sacred and unique way. The tourism potential that is still being maintained are as follows.

Waterfalls

Tiu Ngumbak Waterfall is located in the area of Mount Rinjani National Park. The water falls from a height of 40 metres and it falls directly onto the rocks, producing a stream that ripples like waves. This is why this waterfall is called *Tiu Ngumbak*, because *ngumbak* carries the meaning “choppy”.

Tiu Ngumbak Waterfall can be accessed from the Beleq hamlet. From there, visitors will travel between the coffee and cocoa gardens. In addition, visitors will use a steep and slippery road, and there is a ravine on the left as they journey towards the waterfall. After travelling this route, they will arrive at Tiu Ngumbak Waterfall, where they can enjoy its beauty and fresh air.

Customary Forests

The indigenous people of the Beleq hamlet have a customary forest called *Pawang Gedeng*. This customary forest covers an area of about 7.6 hectares. It is the joint property of indigenous people. The function of customary forests for customary communities is to serve as a resource for meeting customary needs; for example, the building and repairing of traditional houses, among other customary needs. In these forests, there are traditional houses and *berugak* which cannot be entered as one pleases. People are not permitted to use these traditional houses and *berugak* as beds or dwellings. Apart from the houses and *berugak*, there is also a sacred well that never runs out of water in customary forests. Near the well, there is a bathhouse. People are allowed to bathe there, but they have to wear traditional clothes to gain access, and they are not allowed to use soap or shampoo. This traditional clothing is a requirement of the traditional rituals of the Gumantar Village. Outsiders are allowed to enter customary forests, but entering the traditional houses and *berugak* inside is prohibited. There are many other prohibitions in customary forests. One of them is the stealing of wood. In addition, women who are menstruating are not allowed to enter customary forests.

Traditional Musical Instruments

The *gerantung* (hanging) is a traditional musical instrument that was only played during the *Maulid Adat*—Muslim religious ceremonies that contain worship which are not against the religion of Islam; traditional ceremonies are held based on the custom calendar. (There is a formula for determining the day that is different from the general public in Indonesia). A set of *gerantung* is played by 10 people.

One person played the *gerantung*, three people played the Javanese *teruna*, two people played the *kendang*, two people played the *kansi*, and four people played the *kelentang*. During *Maulid Adat*, the *gerantung* was played for two days and two nights consecutively. On the first day, the *gerantung* was played to accompany the *Elok Balang* dance. On the second day, it was played as an accompaniment that marked the end of the music. Then, it was kept to be played again the next year. Few people are able to play the *gerantung* because of the high difficulty level. In addition, in order to play this musical instrument, the performer is required to wear traditional clothes.

The *genggong* (a type of mouth harp) is another traditional musical instrument that is played by picking and blowing. It was played to entertain oneself and to relieve fatigue. This instrument was not commonly played. Nevertheless, to date, there are those who still play it. The *genggong* is made of *sago midrib* (the branches of the enau tree). The method of making this musical instrument is as follows: First, a width of approximately 2 cm and a height of approximately 10 cm are cut. Second, the part in the middle is carved to form the shape that is known as the *lidah* (tongue), as shown in the following Figure 1. This is where the sound is produced. Third, fronds are cut and dried for about two days. Finally, the dried fronds are tied with pieces of thread that are connected to a small piece of wood used as a means to pull the *genggong*. Anyone can play the *genggong*. However, playing it well is not easy; it requires special practice, so that the tune produced sounds beautiful. The *genggong* is placed on the lips, then the threads of the instrument are pulled to make the sound. The resulting tone would depend on the play of the performer's oral cavity, blown or aspirated.



Figure 1. Genggong from Gumantar Village

The People's Games

Sorong Bambu is a traditional game in the Gumantar Village which uses bamboo as the preferred tool. In this game, there are two participants, and the aim of the game is to push one's opponent across a line that has been determined by a jury. The bamboo used is usually 2.5 metres in length. This game can be played one-on-one, as well as in groups.

Sungklit is a team game played by two groups: the batter and the catcher. Each group can consist of three to five people. The tools used are a long wooden stick (functions as a bat) and a short wooden stick (for being hit). In addition, a small hole is needed as a place to put the *sungklit* "child". The batting team must complete three levels. The first level is to pry the child out as far as possible. The second level is to hit the child with the stick as far as possible. The third level is to hit the tip of the *sungklit*, then hit it as far as possible while the child is still in the air. Points gained will increase with each level that is successfully passed. If the child who was hit is caught by the catching team, then the two groups will change positions. The group that gets the most points is declared the winner. The losing group must receive a punishment, which is to carry the members of the winning group back and forth as far as the *sungklit* child is found.

Gasing (spinning top) is a traditional wooden toy. The *gasing* is made of 10 cm pieces of wood which are shaped like tubes. Playing this traditional game requires about 2 metres of rope. The rope is wound around the top of the *gasing*, and it is thrown to the ground so that it rotates. This game can be played one-on-one or in groups. The player whose top spins the longest is the winner, and the winning player is allowed to hit the opponent's top. In group games, if an opposing group admits defeat, the members of the winning group can then take turns to hit their opponents' tops.

The objects and tourist attractions of Gumantar Village as a traditional village are very complete, making foreign and domestic tourists choose to visit this village. The number of tourists that visit Gumantar Village does not make it lose its identity as a cultural village—which it preserves through maintaining its ancient traditions that are still going strong—even though the village is in an inevitable phase of modernisation due to the development of global tourism. The data on tourist arrivals in North Lombok Regency, where Gumantar Village is based, in 2018 is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Number of tourist arrivals in North Lombok Regency in 2018

No.	Months	Number of Tourist Arrivals		Total
		Domestic	Foreign	
1	January	6,505	41,866	48,371
2	February	7,976	41,834	49,810
3	March	9,434	54,349	63,783
4	April	9,634	58,677	68,311

Table 1 (con't)

No.	Months	Number of Tourist Arrivals		Total
		Domestic	Foreign	
5	May	7,822	68,989	76,811
6	June	8,844	72,828	81,672
7	July	8,993	57,147	66,140
8	August	3,221	4,197	7,418
9	September	3,383	16,463	19,846
10	October	4,752	25,130	29,882
11	November	7,543	29,817	37,360
12	December	8,892	40,341	49,233
	Total	86,999	511,638	598,637

Source: Data from North Lombok Regency (KLU) Tourism Office, 2018.

Based on the data in Table 1, the number of tourist arrivals in North Lombok Regency from January 2018 to July 2018 showed an increase every month, with the highest number of arrivals reaching 81,672 tourists in June 2018. However, in August 2018, there was a very drastic decrease caused by the earthquake that hit North Lombok, resulting in the lowest number of arrivals, that is, 7,418 tourists (Budpar, 2010).

Conclusion

Based on the results in the discussion, it can be concluded that Gumantar Village is a traditional village located in the Kayangan subdistrict of North Lombok Regency. Most of the village people work as farmers, embrace the Islamic religion, are friendly, and treat their guests well. It has beautiful natural potential and an ancient culture that is still being practised till today, despite modernisation. Community traditions and customs integrate seamlessly with the religion embraced by the local community, supported by a neat structure of customary community institutions that have clear duties and functions in making decisions through collegial collective methods, such as the head, stakeholders, *raden* (the functionary who plays an important role for the health of the people, especially working to circumcise boys), *pemekel* (an institution that plays a role in the field of customary law; a *pemekel* works like a judge), and descendants.

The role of customary law is very strong and highly obeyed by the community, so much so that violating it is considered a great taboo. Thus, customary law can act as a medium for solving cases before they enter the realm of state law. A traditional house with a distinctive and unique architecture that is well preserved and complete has proven to be strong at the time of the earthquake that devastated North Lombok.

Pawang Gedeng or the customary forest with an area of 7.6 hectares is a natural resource that can meet the needs of indigenous village communities, and cultural resources such as arts and traditional games are still staged in traditional events.

It is recommended to conduct research on hidden and divine traditions, customs, and cultures that can provide inspiration and motivation that is open-minded to other researchers to carry out research, thus deepening the understanding of the traditions, customs, and cultures from various perspectives of the study. Other scholars can participate in similar research in different dimensions, so that the scientific repertoire in the tourism sector is not limited to one object of study.

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Empirical Paper

A Multi-perspective Survey on the Characteristics of Potentially Successful Community-Based Corporate Social Responsibility Among Five-Star Hotels in Phuket

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Abstract: Although the growth of the hotel industry has contributed to the development of Phuket, many unresolved problems remain such as poverty, low household income, inadequate education, unemployment, lack of facilities in government hospitals, and lack of water supply and electricity. As such, this study addresses this issue by identifying the characteristics for community-based corporate social responsibility (CSR) among five-star hotels in Phuket. In-depth interviews were used to elicit information from 15 community leaders which were then analysed using content analysis. Further, questionnaires were administered to elicit information from 400 hoteliers/hotel employees and 400 local residents and the data were analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The number of community-based CSR projects in which hoteliers/hotel employees participated, received by locals, and their actual needs were analysed using descriptive statistics. The study's findings identify the essential characteristics that a community-based CSR project should embody in each district of Phuket. The findings also reveal that saving the environment was the common community-based CSR that all three districts needed, in addition to several other different needs. The findings carry significant implications for the hotel industry, the government, and other sectors to create sustainable community-based CSR projects that meet the needs of each district.

Keywords: Characteristics, community-based corporate social responsibility, hotel industry, local residents

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Introduction

Bjorn Stigson, Chairman of the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) once stated, “Business cannot succeed in a society that fails” (Banyan Tree Global Foundation, 2015). Thus, all businesses, including the hotel industry strive to exercise their responsibilities as good corporate citizens in host communities by engaging in community-based corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Ertuna, 2019; Sumarsono, Sudardi, Wardo, & Abdullah, 2018).

Although the hotel industry is one of the main drivers of economic growth and prosperity in many countries, it may have not played a significant role in improving the quality of life of the local community. This can be assumed to have been largely attributable to the unilateral approach that the industry takes regarding community-based CSR. Little documented evidence exists, either in printed or electronic media, that hotels’ CSR projects take into account the local community’s perspectives and expectations. In fact, little is known about the essential characteristics of a successful community-based CSR project as existing literature on hotel CSR is mostly focused on the environmental dimension (Abaeian & Khong, 2019).

Therefore, in this paper, the researchers aim to present the essential characteristics of community-based CSR of five-star hotels in Phuket, from the perspectives of community leaders, hoteliers/hotel employees, and the local residents. For several reasons, this study is related to “Goal 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities” of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) proposed by the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). First, it focuses on the city of Phuket, which qualifies as a good case study for a sustainable city, as it is an important international tourism destination in Thailand. Second, the study explores the issue of sustainability, not from a unilateral business perspective; rather, it uses a multi-perspective approach, including the perspectives of the local residents. In this manner, it acknowledges the importance of community involvement in sustainable development, which is the third and final way that this study is related to SDG 11.

Literature Review

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

The CSR concept was first introduced in the 1950s, based on the belief that the business sector should be responsible for the environment, society, and communities (Carroll, 1991; Kotler & Lee, 2005). In 1991, Carroll introduced the pyramid of corporate social responsibility, a model that divided CSR into four components: economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic (1991). However, Visser (2008) argued that the CSR pyramid is different for developed and developing countries, because basic infrastructure and utility are still needed by people in developing countries, whereas people in developed countries have already received plenty of social welfare

from the government. Therefore, Visser’s pyramid for developing countries shows the foundation as economic, followed by philanthropic, ethical, and legal responsibilities. A comparison of CSR components in developed and developing countries is shown in Figure 1.

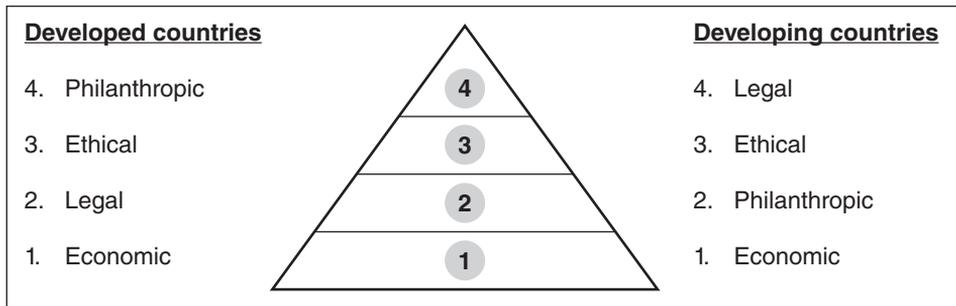


Figure 1. CSR components in developed and developing countries (Adapted from Carroll (1991) and Visser (2008))

Based on Figure 1, it can be seen that Visser’s model differs slightly from Carroll’s pyramid. Therefore, CSR practices can demonstrate contextual characteristics.

Community-based CSR

Businesses have become more actively involved in community-based CSR, because businesses prosperity tends to be linked to the well-being of the local communities in which they are located. As such, businesses can strengthen themselves by building strong healthy communities (Schaltegger & Burritt, 2018). Past studies similarly found that community-based CSR is a significant component of community development in developing countries because of an ongoing shortfall of government capability to deal with social issues such as poverty and unemployment. More often than not, people in developing countries expect businesses to perform philanthropic activities, create jobs, and enhance their quality of life, rather than activities that revolve around environmental protection or other causes (Deigh, Farquhar, Palazzo, & Siano, 2016; Fernando, Lawrence, Kelly, & Arunachalam, 2015; Ismail, Alias, & Rasdi, 2015; Morales, 2014; Simionescu, 2015).

Kotler and Lee (2005) introduced six types of corporate social initiatives (CSIs) that are useful in conceptualising CSR activities. These include (a) cause promotions: supporting social causes through promotional sponsorships, (b) cause-related marketing: making a contribution or donating a percentage of revenue to a specific cause based on product sales or usage, (c) corporate social marketing: supporting behavior change campaigns, (d) corporate philanthropy: making direct contributions

to a charity or cause, (e) community volunteering: providing volunteers in the community, and (f) socially responsible: adopting and conducting discretionary business practices and investments that support social causes. Thus, community-based CSR comprises several practices, each with its benefits and procedures. Thus, a company must select proper methods and practices that are suitable for the target communities and their available resources.

Thailand is a developing country whereby many studies similarly found that Thailand's CSR activities mostly involved corporate philanthropy (Issarawornrawanich & Wuttichindanon, 2019; Mmbali & Assawasirisilp, 2019; Shinnaranantan, Nicholas, & Siengthai, 2013).

Community Perspectives on CSR

Based on the aforementioned information, each location calls for a different emphasis in the implementation of CSR. Cera, Belas, Marousek, and Cera (2020) opined that CSR means different things to different people, depending upon situations in each area; thus each location calls for a different emphasis in the implementation of CSR. Similarly, Rashid (2018) is correct in suggesting that CSR strategies should be developed in consultation with local communities. Thus, the interpretation and application of CSR needs to be subjected to each country's individual context and situation. For a more effective community-based CSR implementation, companies must consult with the locals before designing any project. Otherwise, these community-based CSR projects may fail to meet the community needs and expectations due to the lack of attempt in understanding the community perspectives. Therefore, understanding the community's perspective is crucial to ensure that CSR initiatives match with their expectations and are more effective.

Prosperity of the Tourism Industry vs. Unsolved Problems in Phuket

The tourism and hospitality industry has assumed a significant economic role in many developing countries, in terms of providing employment, developing infrastructure, generating income, and being the largest foreign exchange earner (Okharedia, 2017). Thailand is a developing country that strongly leverages the tourism and hospitality industry as one of its main drivers for economic growth (Vanhalweyk, 2017). In this regard, Phuket is one of the main cities in Thailand that banks on the hospitality industry to lead its economic growth. The hotel industry in Phuket has massively contributed to the development of local areas, with five-star hotels playing an important role (Barnett, 2016).

Yet, Phuket still has many unresolved problems. Phuket's local community still face problems of poverty, low household income, inadequate education, unemployment, lack of facilities in government hospitals, and lack of water supply

and electricity (Phuket National Statistical Office, 2016). The major unsolved problems in Phuket are shown in Figure 2.

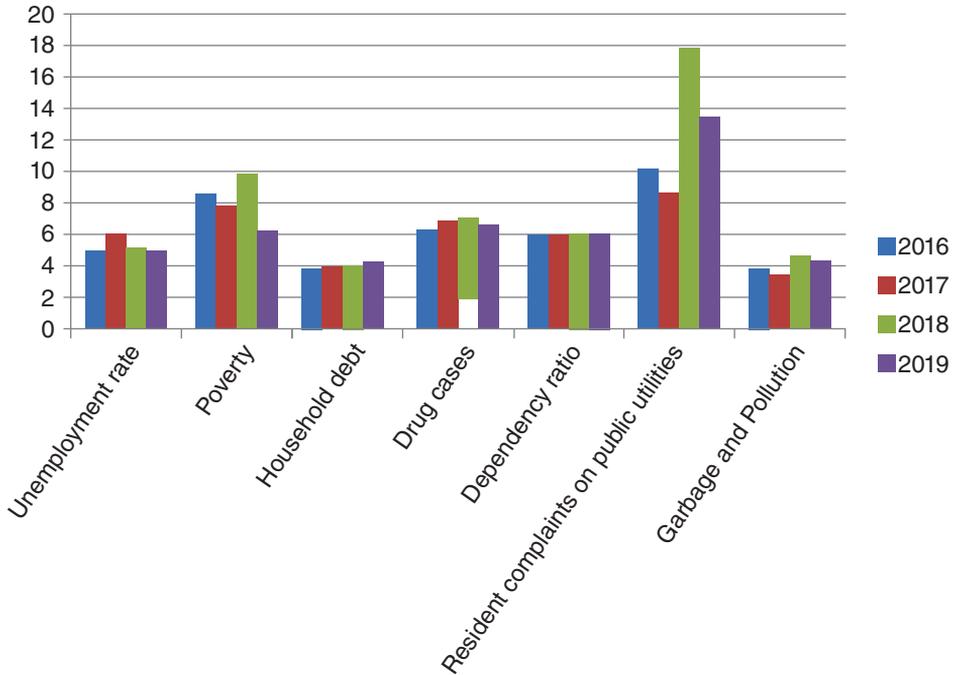


Figure 2. The major unsolved problems in Phuket (Office of the National Economics and Social Development Council, 2020)

As shown in Figure 2, the Phuket community is still facing numerous problems of unemployment, poverty, low income, household debt, drug, dependent person, inadequate public utilities, garbage and pollution.

In addition, National Statistical Office (2018) also reported that the critical issues Phuket faces include improving and promoting quality of life, creating stability of life, and caring for people's health and safety. These are urgent problems that must be addressed. Needless to say, the local government and business sectors in Phuket can promote a higher quality of life through the policies formulated and the practices adopted.

Thus, although the tourism and hospitality industry is one of the drivers of economic growth and prosperity, its efforts may have been insufficient in improving the quality of life of the local community. This could possibly be attributed to the hotels' CSR being mostly focused on the environment (Abacian & Khong, 2019). Hence, this study attempts to identify the similarities and discrepancies between the types of community-based CSR that Phuket communities received versus the types

that they need. The aim is to determine the essential characteristics of successful community-based CSR among five-star hotels in Phuket. This study focuses on the five-star hotels in Phuket because large hotels are more likely to engage in CSR activities (Siripanpong, 2018). However, even though there is ongoing five-star hotel development in Phuket (Barnett, 2019), the rate of this development does not match the need for community-based CSR on the island. This phenomenon justifies the selection of Phuket as the research area of this study.

Materials and Methods

The mixed methods approach was selected as the ideal technique for this study to collect both qualitative and quantitative data. In selecting respondents from all three districts of Phuket, the stratified sampling technique was employed.

For qualitative data, in-depth interviews were used to obtain knowledge, views, and experiences from community leaders who were recipients of community-based CSR by hotels. An interview protocol that was developed was used as the interview guide. Firstly, the researcher informed district municipality offices about the research purposes, before faxing the invitation letter and interview protocol for permission to interview the head of the division who is involved in community development, or ask for the contact details of the community leaders. For the Mueang Phuket district, an officer of the Karon sub-district municipal office helped to coordinate and make advance appointments with the community leaders. On the appointment date, five community leaders came to the office. For the Kathu district, the director of the public health and environment division, in the Patong municipality office gave useful information during the interview and also gave contact details of other community leaders. Then, a snowball sampling was applied until five community leaders in Kathu district were identified and interviewed. For the Thalang district, the researcher received contact details of the village leader in the Mai Khao sub-district, who then gave contact details of persons who can give better information about CSR that people need such as school director, foundation director, non-profit organization, etc. Thus, five respondents from the Thalang district were identified and interviewed. In total, 15 community leaders participated in the qualitative part of the study.

For quantitative data, open-ended questionnaires were used to collect data from hoteliers/hotel employees and residents. Three research assistants were employed to administer the survey, to cater for respondents who were unable to read or access the internet by themselves. A total of 217 face-to-face responses and 183 online responses were collected from local residents. In total, 400 responses were collected using the convenience sampling technique. The number of responses from residents is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. The number of responses from residents

District	Number of responses		Sample size in each district
	Face-to-face interviews	Internet-based questionnaires	
1. Mueang Phuket district	83	107	190
2. Kathu district	64	32	96
3. Thalang district	70	44	114
Total : 3 Districts	217	183	400

With regard to hotels, Phuket has 60 five-star hotels and resorts, operated by national and international brands (Tourism Authority of Thailand, 2017). However, not all of these hotels have been involved in community-based CSR. Therefore, the purposive sampling technique was used to select only five-star hotels that were involved in community-based CSR. Firstly, the researcher identified and segregated five-star hotels involved in community-based CSR from the total population by relying on published information. Secondly, if no published information existed, then phone verification was required. In total, 45 hotels were involved in community-based CSR. Thirdly, the researcher contacted the human resource (HR) managers of the selected hotels to ask for permission to survey their staff. Subsequently, 18 HR managers agreed and assisted with distributing 15 questionnaires to their staff members who had participated in the hotels' community-based CSR. In the end, a total of 232 questionnaires were returned. Subsequently, 48 respondents from several five-star hotels were interviewed using questionnaires, and these respondents were requested to share the link to the online survey with their friends who had participated in hotel CSR. The online survey gathered 120 responses. Thus, the snowball sampling was also applied. In total, 400 responses were gathered. The number of responses from hoteliers/hotel employees is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. The number of responses from hoteliers/hotel employees

District	Number of returned questionnaires			Sample size in each district
	From five-star hotels that HR managers helped to distribute questionnaires to their staff		From face-to-face interviews and online questionnaires	
1. Mueang Phuket district	1. Le Meridien Beach Resort Phuket	15	29	91
	2. Kata Rocks Resort & Residences	15		
	3. Amatara Wellness Resort	15		
	4. Club Med Phuket	13		
	5. Sri Panwa Phuket Hotel	4		

Table 2 (con't)

District	Number of returned questionnaires			Sample size in each district
	From five-star hotels that HR managers helped to distribute questionnaires to their staff		From face-to-face interviews and online questionnaires	
2. Kathu district	1. Phuket Marriott Resort & Spa, Merlin Beach	15	35	133
	2. Swissotel Resort Kamala	15		
	3. Hyatt Regency Phuket Resort	15		
	4. Wyndham Sea Pearl Resort Phuket	15		
	5. La Flora Resort Patong	8		
	6. Amari Phuket	15		
	7. Grand Mercure Phuket Patong	15		
3. Thalang district	1. JW Marriott Resort & Spa Phuket	15	104	176
	2. Renaissance Phuket Resort & Spa	12		
	3. Banyan Tree Phuket	15		
	4. Dusit Thani Laguna Phuket	10		
	5. Twinpalms Phuket Resort	9		
	6. Sala Phuket Resort and Spa	11		
Total : 3 Districts	232	232	168	400

Therefore, in summary, 15 community leaders, 400 residents, and 400 hoteliers/hotel employees participated in this study.

Results

Based on the community leaders' point of views, the hotels' community-based CSR that communities received were categorised into five types, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Types of hotel community-based CSR that communities received

Community-based CSR activities	
1. Donation	Hotels donated money, foods, drinks, cloths, supplies, and in-kind for the disabled people and elderly in nursing homes, disadvantaged children in orphanages, and residents in disaster-affected areas.

Table 3 (cont)

Community-based CSR activities	
2. Education	Hotels provided scholarships, learning equipment, and also donated money for developing school buildings and facilities.
3. Environment	Hotels were involved in environmental protection work such as clean-up of beaches/canals/communities, implemented waste separation tanks, recycled material project, and promoted the protection, restoration, and conservation of ecosystems and natural resources.
4. Health and life care	Hotels donated money and bought sports facilities for public parks to motivate people to exercise. Many hotels also organised marathons for charity and to raise funds for special causes.
5. Job and labor skill development	Hotels were involved in hiring locals and supporting labor skill development.

The hotel community-based CSR activities participated by hoteliers/hotel employees and classified by district, are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Community-based CSR activities, participated by hoteliers/hotel employees, classified by district

No.	Community-based CSR that hoteliers/hotel employees participated	Mueang Phuket District		Kathu District		Thalang District		Total	
		Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent
1	Saving energy/ environment	36	12.8	58	25.3	111	38.3	205	51.25
2	Developing community facilities/ Religious sites	6	2.1	41	17.9	3	1.0	50	12.5
3	Marathon	1	0.4	7	3.1	15	5.2	23	5.75
4	Donation	20	7.1	16	7.0	39	13.4	75	18.75
5	Health/ Life care	4	1.4	5	2.2	9	3.1	18	4.5
6	Education	8	2.8	10	4.4	17	5.9	35	8.75
7	Support for special occasions	22	7.8	6	2.6	28	9.7	56	14

Table 4 (con't)

No.	Community-based CSR that hoteliers/ hotel employees participated	Mueang Phuket District		Kathu District		Thalang District		Total	
		Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent
8	Helping victims of natural disasters	3	1.1	38	16.6	139	47.9	180	45
9	Planting trees	11	3.9	15	6.6	77	26.6	103	25.75
10	Animal conservation	17	6.0	2	0.9	13	4.5	32	8
11	Improving working skills	4	1.4	8	3.5	6	2.1	18	4.5

From the locals' point of views, the hotels' community-based CSR that locals received classified by district, are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. The number of hotels' community-based CSR activities that locals received classified by district

No.	Hotels' community-based CSR that locals received	Mueang Phuket District		Kathu District		Thalang District		Total	
		Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent
1	Supporting community products	12	4.3	5	2.2	8	2.8	25	6.25
2	Saving energy/ environment	76	27.0	39	17.0	43	14.8	158	39.5
3	Planting trees	11	3.9	1	0.4	6	2.1	18	4.5
4	Education	14	5.0	2	0.9	10	3.4	26	6.5
5	Animal conservation	32	11.4	15	6.6	3	1.0	50	12.5
6	Campaigns against drugs and sexual harassment	1	0.4	15	6.6	6	2.1	22	5.5

Table 5 (con't)

No.	Hotels' community-based CSR that locals received	Mueang Phuket District		Kathu District		Thalang District		Total	
		Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent
7	Health/ Life care	1	0.4	2	0.9	4	1.4	7	1.75
8	Donation	2	0.7	2	0.9	76	26.2	80	20
9	Marathon	6	2.1	24	10.5	8	2.8	38	9.5
10	Developing community facilities/ Religious sites	2	0.7	8	3.5	1	0.3	11	2.75
11	Collaboration networks: Received collaboration networks	1	0.4	2	0.9	2	0.7	5	1.25
12	Job creation/ Employment	56	19.9	56	24.5	2	0.7	114	28.5
13	Helping victims of natural disasters	5	1.8	43	18.8	1	0.3	49	12.25

From the locals' point of views, the hotels' community-based CSR that locals need, classified by district, as shown in Table 6

Table 6. The number of hotels' community-based CSR activities that locals need, classified by district

No.	Hotels' community-based CSR that locals need	Mueang Phuket District		Kathu District		Thalang District		Total	
		Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent
1	Supporting community businesses/ Generating income for communities	15	5.3	9	3.9	11	3.8	35	8.75

Table 6 (con't)

No.	Hotels' community-based CSR that locals need	Mueang Phuket District		Kathu District		Thalang District		Total	
		Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent
2	Job creation/ Employment	16	5.7	11	4.8	5	1.7	32	8
3	Saving environment / Keeping clean	64	22.8	29	12.7	45	15.5	138	34.5
4	Education	19	6.8	7	3.1	8	2.8	34	8.5
5	Animal conservation	7	2.5	20	8.7	49	16.9	76	19
6	Health/ Life care	13	4.6	45	19.7	4	1.4	62	15.5
7	Developing tourist attractions in communities	11	3.9	9	3.9	6	2.1	26	6.5
8	Drug prevention	4	1.4	64	27.9	3	1.0	71	17.75
9	Donation	11	3.9	18	7.9	4	1.4	33	8.25
10	Public utilities/ Quality of life development	17	6.0	2	0.9	5	1.7	24	6
11	Improving the quality of lives for poor people	7	2.5	8	3.5	4	1.4	19	4.75
12	Improving working skills	15	5.3	14	6.1	6	2.1	35	8.75

Based on the tables above (Tables 3 – 6), the results of the qualitative and quantitative data on hotels' community-based CSR initiatives that hoteliers/hotel employees participated/ communities and locals received/ communities and locals need, based on district, will be discussed next.

For the Mueang Phuket district, the results showed that donation, cleaning beaches/ communities, creating activities during special occasions, saving energy/ environment, job creation, and animal conservation were the community-based CSR initiatives from hotels that communities and locals received. These results were in line with the three highest frequencies of community-based CSR initiatives that hoteliers/ hotel employees participated, which included saving energy/ environment, support

for special occasions, and donation. However, the highest frequencies of hotels' community-based CSR that communities and locals require were infrastructure/ public utility/ quality of life development, job creation, saving environment/ keeping clean, and education/ learning facilities.

For the Kathu district, the results showed that donation, education/ learning facilities, cleaning beaches/ communities, job creation, helping victims of natural disasters, and saving energy/ environment were community-based CSR initiatives that communities and locals received from hotels. These results were in line with the three highest frequencies of community-based CSR initiatives that hoteliers/hotel employees participated, which included saving energy/ environment, and helping victims of natural disasters. However, the highest frequencies of community-based CSR initiatives from hotels that communities and locals need were education/ learning facilities, drug prevention, health/ life care, and saving environment/ keeping clean.

For the Thalang district, the results showed that education/ learning facilities, donation, cleaning beaches/ communities, supporting community products, and saving energy/ environment were the community-based CSR initiatives that communities and locals received from hotels. These results were in line with saving energy/ environment which received one of the highest frequencies of community-based CSR initiatives that hoteliers/hotel employees participated. However, the highest frequencies of community-based CSR initiatives that communities and locals need were animal conservation, saving environment/ wastewater treatment/ keeping clean, and supporting community businesses/ generating income for communities.

The highest frequencies for community-based CSR initiatives received by the communities and locals in all three districts are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. The highest frequencies of hotels' community-based CSR initiatives received in all three districts

District	Donation	Cleaning beaches/ communities	Saving energy/ Environment	Education/Learning facilities	Animal conservation	Supporting communities during special occasions	Helping victims of natural disasters	Job creation	Supporting community products
Mueang Phuket	■	■	■		■	■		■	
Kathu	■	■	■	■			■	■	
Thalang	■	■	■	■					■

■ Mueang Phuket district

■ Kathu district

■ Thalang district

Based on Table 7, the highest frequencies of hotels’ community-based CSR initiatives received in the three districts in Phuket are for donation, cleaning beaches/communities, and saving energy/environment. The highest frequencies of hotels’ community-based CSR initiatives that communities and locals in all three districts need are shown in Table 8.

Table 8. The highest frequencies of hotels’ community-based CSR initiatives that all three districts need

Districts	Saving environment/ Keeping clean	Education/ Learning facilities	Animal conservation	Job creation	Supporting community products	Drug prevention	Health/ Life care	Infrastructure/ Public utility/ Quality of life development
Mueang Phuket								
Kathu								
Thalang								

■ Mueang Phuket district ■ Kathu district ■ Thalang district

The highest frequencies of hotels’ community-based CSR initiatives that all three districts need (see Table 8) were used to derive the essential characteristics of a community-based CSR project. The results are as follows: For the Mueang Phuket district, the essential characteristics that should be included in a community-based CSR project are saving environment/ keeping clean, education/learning facilities, job creation, and infrastructure/public utility/quality of life development. For the Kathu district, the essential characteristics that should be included are saving environment/keeping clean, education/ learning facilities, drug prevention, and health/life care. Meanwhile, for the Thalang district, the essential characteristics are saving environment/ keeping clean, animal conservation, and supporting community products.

It can be concluded that some activities that communities and locals need were not part of the community-based CSR activities that they received or hoteliers/hotel employees participated. Therefore, it can be assumed that the hotels never carried out such initiatives, or they might have organised such activities but residents and hoteliers/hotel employees cannot remember them. Therefore, such activities should be carried out in the future to meet the needs of communities and locals. However, some activities that the communities and locals need were already a part of the

community-based CSR that they received; thus, hotels should still carry out those activities because they are still needed. The needs of each district for community-based CSR by hotels are shown in Figure 3.

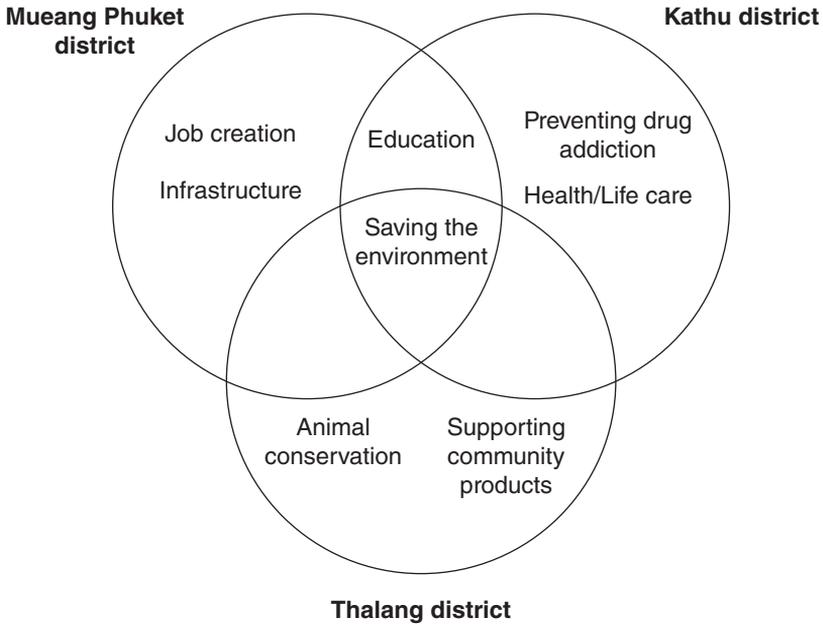


Figure 3. Community-based CSR initiatives by hotels needed in each district

Figure 3 shows that saving the environment was the main type of community-based CSR that all three districts need. Meanwhile, both the Mueang Phuket and Kathu districts need educational support. Apart from that, all three districts highlighted different needs.

Discussion

The community-based CSR activities in which hoteliers/hotel employees participated / received by locals/ needed by locals were consistent with the six types of corporate social initiatives (CSIs) proposed by Kotler and Lee (2005). These include (a) cause promotions, in which hotels are involved in raising awareness or fundraising for a specific cause, such as hosting a marathon to raise funds for hospitals. In (b) cause-related marketing, hotels are involved in donating a percentage of their revenue to a specific cause, such as donating 10% from every guest's bill to create new coral reefs. In (c) corporate social marketing, hotels are involved in inspiring and supporting behaviour change such as by releasing captive-bred baby

sea turtles, creating campaigns to increase traffic discipline on public roads, and raising awareness among drivers and motorcyclists. In (d) corporate philanthropy, hotels are involved in direct charitable activities such as donating money to schools, temples, and people who were affected by disasters such as tsunami as well as donating money and supplies to disabled children and elderly adults in nursing homes. In (e) community volunteering, hotels send their employees as volunteers to help communities and societies clean canals and plant mangrove forests. In (f) being socially responsible, hotels are involved in other socially responsible practices to reduce community problems and support community development by purchasing local materials/products and employing locals.

Three CSR activities that all three districts received were donation, cleaning of beaches/ communities, and saving energy/ environment. Regarding donation, Shinnaranantan et al. (2013) highlighted that Thailand's CSR activities mostly involve corporate philanthropy such as charity, donations, and community involvement. Further, Issarawornrawanich and Wuttichindanon (2019) strongly believed that CSR is a part of philanthropy in the Thai culture. Without a doubt, the concept of CSR in Thailand is rooted in philanthropy ideals. To elaborate, the concept of CSR has been prevalently practised in the Thai society since long ago in the form of the religious practices of Buddhism. The practice of giving is a part of the Thai culture and Buddhist tradition of merit-making, which is usually carried out through philanthropy, charity, sponsoring, volunteering and sharing (Mmbali & Assawasirisilp, 2019). Therefore, this could be one way of explaining the study's finding in the Thailand context. The interview results revealed that most hotels carried out community-based CSR activities that focus on the environmental dimension, which is consistent with the survey results on the main community-based CSR that communities and residents received in all three districts. This is line with Abaeian & Khong (2019) who found that hotels' CSR activities mostly tend to focus on the environment as they generate a positive business efficiency impact.

Interestingly, the most common community-based CSR that all three districts need was saving the environment/keeping it clean. The aforementioned findings are inconsistent with Fernando et al. (2015), who found that people in developing countries expect businesses to do philanthropic activities, create jobs, and enhance quality of life, rather than protect the environment or other causes. They also contradict the CSR pyramid introduced by Carroll (1991), which proposes relative weightings for economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic responsibilities. Moreover, they are also inconsistent with Visser's idea, which advocates that the foundation should be economic responsibilities, followed by philanthropic, ethical, and legal responsibilities. Thus, it can be assumed that although Phuket is a province in a developing country, the people in Phuket are paying more attention to environmental protection rather than to their personal needs such as financial help or better quality of life.

Apart from the environmental dimension, the communities and locals in all three districts highlighted different needs. This correlates with Cera et al. (2020) and Rashid (2018) who believed that CSR means different things to different people, depending upon the situation in each area; thus, each location will require a different emphasis in the implementation of CSR. Which in turn, underscores the importance of investigating community perspectives.

Conclusion

Local communities may face the same or different problems. It is important to find the actual problems and address them effectively. The challenge for businesses to carry out CSR is determining suitable CSR activities for the specific society in which they operate. Thus, community-based CSR activities should be developed in consultation with local communities because sustainable community development cannot succeed without engaging local participation. Phuket is one of the most popular tourist places in Thailand but many problems still remain such as poverty, slum, and lack of utilities. In order to create sustainable communities, “Goal 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities” of the SDGs states that every section should work in a participatory manner. Thus, the target community should be engaged.

The present study identified the ideal characteristics of community-based CSR activities among five-star hotels in Phuket based on wide-ranging insights from key stakeholders, which included community leaders, hoteliers/hotel employees, and the local residents in all three districts of Phuket. There are a number of implications of the present study for stakeholders. Firstly, the top management or decision makers in the hospitality industry as well as other industries can obtain up-to-date and comprehensive information about the essential characteristics of a good community-based CSR project for each district. In this way, the current problems in each area can be addressed, which in turn could encourage a positive attitude amongst the local community towards the participating organisation.

Secondly, the essential characteristics of hotels’ community-based CSR in Phuket have been empirically obtained from the perspectives of relevant stakeholder groups. Thus, the local communities of Phuket can expect to receive more valuable and efficient community-based CSR projects. This also adds to the existing literature because findings from studies in developed or even in developing countries do not always apply to other developing countries and cultures. For example, even though Fernando et al. (2015) found that people in developing countries expect businesses to help them in the economic and social aspects, the findings of this study have shown otherwise; the people of Phuket expect assistance in environmental protection instead.

Thirdly, the findings of this research have filled the gap of knowledge that exists on community-based CSR in the hotel sector because most studies on hotel CSR have been mostly focused on the environmental dimension and not community-

based CSR (Abaeian & Khong, 2019). Finally, the local authority of Phuket, the government, and other private sectors can use these research findings to plan for effective community and society development projects in each area. In conclusion, this study benefits all concerned stakeholder groups, especially Phuket's local communities, because it can help resolve community problems and develop these communities in sustainable ways.

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Empirical Paper

Female Tour Guides in Lombok, Indonesia: Their Existence and Barriers

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Abstract: This research focuses on the existence and obstacles faced by female tour guides in Lombok Island, West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) province. The data was collected through questionnaires, in-depth interviews, participatory observation, and documentation. Twenty-five female tour guides and 10 tourism stakeholders were selected by purposive method. The research results revealed that the motives and reasons behind women wanting to work as tour guides were to help the family financially, to spend spare time, to increase experience, and to perform self-existence. Several factors that inhibited female tour guides were classified into internal and external factors. Internal factors are individual factors within themselves, which encompass physical conditions, knowledge, skills, and attitudes. External factors are outside factors such as religion, sociocultural factors, government policies, the law and regulations, as well as the general perceptions about women's role as housewives and that their main duties are taking care of the household, the children, and their husband.

Keywords: Tour guide, women, Lombok, challenges

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Introduction

Lombok Island is located in West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) province, Indonesia. It is one of the world's tourism destinations, and its existence is starting to be acknowledged due to its natural beauty and cultural tourism. The growth of the tourism industry in

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West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) has increased to 22% in 2017, which is a 3% increase, compared to 2016 when it was at 19% (Department of NTB Tourism, 2017). The increase in the number of tourists visiting Lombok encourages the growing interest in investment in the main tourism industry, especially in accommodation, restaurants, transportation, travel agencies, recreation centres, gift shops, and other creative industries. Tourism activities create job opportunities through various types of related businesses that are accessible to both men and women. One of the most appealing jobs or professions is that of a licenced tour guide, who is responsible for handling all activities carried out by tourists while visiting a tourism destination. The existence of tour guides is beneficial for tourists, as the service enables them to experience tourism and learn more about the places visited and their history, local culture and knowledge, and travel experiences and recommendations of others.

Based on data collected in 2018 by the Indonesian Tour Guide Association (HPI), West Nusa Tenggara (NTB), 50 female tour guides in Lombok—a mere 0.03% of 1,500 tour guides in total—received their licence that year. In terms of quantity, the number of female tour guides is still relatively low. However, despite the dismal numbers, female tour guides in fact contribute significantly to tourism development in Lombok. Female tour guides have a special position in the travel industry. They are also considered an attraction by travel agents in selling their products. Putri Indira Suari, Susrami Dewi, and Leli Kusuma Dewi (2016) stated that the existence of female tour guides from a local area (Tabanan, Bali) is rare and unusual in Alas Kedaton. This phenomenon of female tour guides has become one of the tourism attractions in Bali. Meanwhile, in Lombok, female tour guides are viewed differently. They are seen as unusual labour. In this case, their existence tends to be perceived negatively by the community. From the perspective of the local people in Lombok, women are not supposed to work or have a job to earn money for the family. In other words, their main role is merely as housewives, whereas the men are responsible to work and earn money for the family. Therefore, this study investigates these contexts.

In fact, Baledu Tours and Travel offers women guide services on their travels as an additional attraction for their online promotional material. On the contrary, female tour guides in Lombok are far from being considered to be featured on any promotional material. This study, thus, provides valuable insight to promote female tour guides as a valuable component of the services provided to customers. Meanwhile, gender roles do not seem to be an inhibiting factor for women in their role as entrepreneurs in the tourism sector (Costa, Breda, Pinho, Bakas, & Durão, 2016), although they do experience multiple workload conflicts, negotiation of domestic duties with partners, and tension resulting from workloads (Duffy, Kline, Mowatt, & Chancellor, 2015). Each country has a different view towards women workers in the tourism sector. Obadić and Marić (2009) stated that working practices and attitudes related to women's employment in the hotel industry are strongly influenced by the legislative

approaches and cultural differences in each country. According to Boonabaana (2014), women working in the tourism sector have a broad implication on the sector and on gender equality. It can be stated that female workers who work as tour guides in Lombok are also facing the same problem as in other countries, especially when they work in the tourism sector. This study is, therefore, relevant to female tour guides who are undergoing similar problems.

In performing tour guiding activities, women guides also encounter various challenges and problems, from both internal and external sources, including social and cultural aspects. It appears to be difficult for female tour guides to develop competency, considering the limited opportunities available to them. This is especially so in terms of the ability to balance work hours with their personal matters and also to take care of domestic issues with uncertain work hours. In addition, after work hours, they spare their personal time to bring guests to shopping centres or other places at night, thus creating social stigma towards women guides. Furthermore, the aspects of Occupational Safety and Health (OSH) should also be considered for female tour guides. Few research concerning female tour guides in Lombok have been conducted. Hence, to enable women to participate properly in the tourism sector as tour guides, in-depth research is needed on their existence in the tourism industry. This study is important because gender equality is a basic human right, as well as the basis for the welfare of mankind in accessing decent work to achieve sustainable tourism. This study aims to explore the existence of female tour guides in Lombok and the obstacles they encounter.

Methodology

This research used a qualitative approach to obtain comprehensive understanding of the issue. A questionnaire, in-depth interviews, participatory observation, and documentation were used as the data collection techniques. This research focused on the existence and obstacles faced by female tour guides in Lombok Island, West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) province. The locations of this research were five districts in Lombok Island, namely East Lombok, Central Lombok, West Lombok, North Lombok, and Mataram, which were identified as the operational places for female tour guides. The selection of the locations was done purposively; Lombok is the centre of tourism development in West Nusa Tenggara (NTB), providing numerous job opportunities for female tour guides. In addition, tourism practitioners and stakeholders in Lombok are open to research. The data sources were also selected purposively, with 25 female tour guides, one female tour guides association, the head of the Indonesian Tour Guide Association (HPI), three travel agent entrepreneurs, one Tourism Office representative, three academicians, and one non-governmental organisation (NGO) representative.

The questionnaire was distributed to the respondents using Google Form. A total of 18 questionnaires out of 25 were returned and of these, 15 forms were

valid and three were noted as invalid. The results obtained were then classified, summarised, and interpreted. Furthermore, an in-depth interview of 30 minutes to 1 hour was conducted with each participant in order to obtain more comprehensive responses. The results were then transcribed, analysed, and interpreted. Additionally, participatory observation and documentation were conducted concurrently with the interviews. In general, data collection was conducted for almost five months, starting from January 2020 to May 2020. Before that, the instruments and the outcomes of data collected were triangulated with the help of three to five experts. Finally, the data analysis technique used in this study was the interactive model of analysis developed by Miles and Huberman (1992). This consisted of four components of analysis, namely data collection, data reduction, data presentation, and conclusions and verification.

Results and Discussion

The results revealed that the motives and reasons for women to work as tour guides were mainly: (1) for the sake of helping their family financially, (2) to spend their spare time, (3) to increase their experience, and (4) for self-existence. Several factors that inhibited female tour guides were classified as internal and external factors. Internal factors were individual factors within themselves, encompassing physical conditions, knowledge, skills, and attitudes. External factors were outside factors such as religion, sociocultural factors, government policies, the law and regulations, as well as the general perceptions about women's role as housewives and that their main duties were taking care of the household, the children, and their husband.

The Existence of Female Tour Guides in Lombok

The reasons behind women wanting to work as tour guides were to meet household needs for those who were married (three respondents) and to help parents for those who were not married (eight respondents). Besides that, the family and the husband's income per month seemed insufficient to meet their daily needs (seven respondents). One respondent from Senaru Village under Mount Rinjani stated that she decided to become a tour guide because she did not have other skills. Her usual work was as a farmer. Apart from planting and harvesting, she had no other job or source of income. Thus, the inadequate income yielded from farming encouraged some women to work as tour guides. One of the married female tour guides in Senaru shared the following comments:

(...) I am a single parent who works for my family, specifically my daughter and parents. I like being a tour guide because I can earn some money, which I give to my parents for buying their daily needs and for my daughter's school fees. Besides guiding, I also collect harvest afterwards. (April 12, 2020)

Based on the statements, it can be noted that work as a tour guide helped these women substantially in supporting family life. Guiding and harvesting were evidently becoming two valuable work options for sustaining living conditions. At present, many women become tour guides after realising the benefits and profits they are able to gain. They perceive tour guiding as a job opportunity that does not require higher education qualifications. They believe that good communication and foreign language skills are sufficient for the job. Most of the female tour guides who were respondents got married early and have children. Working as a tour guide provides them with a very lucrative income. Under normal conditions, especially before the Lombok earthquake in 2018 and the Covid-19 pandemic which began end of 2019, the average monthly income per female tour guide was between IDR3,000,000–IDR5,000,000 (approximately MYR866–MYR1,443) during high season in July to December and IDR1,000,000–IDR3,000,000 (approximately MYR288–MYR866) during low season in October to April. This income is considered sufficient to meet daily necessities and children tuition fees. The average working duration is around 7 to 8 hours a day for tours which include a visit to beaches, small islands, traditional villages, waterfalls, and souvenir places. For shorter local tours, guiding packages of around 2 to 4 hours are available.

Another married female tour guide, who loves this job more than anything, shared the following comments:

(...) the living conditions made me very eager to work as a tour guide, although I am a woman (because it is actually not appropriate for women to work in tourism, especially a girl). I am married with three children; I realise that many people perceive me as unusual. (April 22, 2020)

Based on the statements above, it can be said that the social and cultural constructions that place female tour guides in subordinate structures are a major barrier for women to obtain job opportunities. In many Islamic countries, the number of women working as guides is very few. Masadeh, Al-Ababneh, Al-Sabi, and Allah (2018) stated that religious beliefs, social rules, traditions, and culture, as well as the overall perception of the main roles of women as a mother, wife, and housekeeper have been identified as the major obstacles, resulting in the limited participation of women in the tourism sector as tour guides.

Meanwhile, the founder of Rinjani Women Adventurer stated that the members of the organisation were interested to become tour guides because they were motivated by the financial success of some of their friends and by how well they were able to manage their time between work activities and the role as housewives.

One respondent stated that the environment as a tourism destination also greatly influenced her decision to become a female tour guide in Senaru. She stated the following comments:

(...) most of my friends here who are my age are working in the tourism industry specifically as tour guides. We interact with and meet foreigners every day. Naturally, whatever we see, think about, and do all relate back to being a service provider. And it is lovely. We have friends from around the world, we can earn some money, and we are living for our family. I feel very lucky to live here. (March 7, 2020)

Based on the statements above, it can be posited that the female tour guide and her guests interacted in a comfortable environment. The owner of a travel agency, who employs two female tour guides, has stated that female tour guides play a pertinent role in serving guests, especially families with children or guests in groups. Female tour guides are also very environmental friendly, and are always reminding guests about hygiene and keeping the tourism destination clean. In line with the trend of halal tourism development in Lombok, the demand for female tour guides has also increased, especially among female tourists from Asian countries such as Malaysia, Singapore, and Brunei Darussalam. Thus, the respondents had ambitions to become tour guides due to the small number of female tour guides available in Lombok. The 18 respondents also mentioned that being a tour guide provided them with opportunities to interact with foreign tourists, and some of these tourists were able to share positive values with them, including discipline, self-confidence, freedom of opinion, and respect for women workers.

Additionally, they were given the flexibility of choosing the tour packages for themselves, according to their abilities and availability. However, not all female tour guides carried out guiding activities solely for the motive of supporting the family financially. Other respondents said that they became a tour guide after becoming a woman migrant worker (TKW) in Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates (UAE), China, Malaysia, and Singapore. One respondent who was formerly a woman migrant worker in Singapore stated:

(...) valuable experience while I was working in Singapore as a babysitter, it was important to have skills in the English language and knowledge of the local culture. I knew the habits of Singaporeans and I also met with foreigners when my landlord took me for weekend trips. (March 28, 2020)

Based on the statements above, it can be deduced that qualifications were not necessary to be a tour guide, as was found in daily life. In other words, the education

level of female tour guides was relatively low. Some of the respondents were high school graduates, while some have not completed their high school education. One well-trained and educated female tour guide shared:

(...) working as a tour guide, especially as a woman, in my view, is not a problem at all. I graduated from tourism school. My major was a Diploma of Tour and Travel. I have been guiding for almost nine years and have faced only a few—almost none—problems so far. Being a tour guide is a great job. I really enjoy it very much. (March 29, 2020)

The opportunity to be a tour guide is widely accessible because of their foreign language skills. Before becoming a tour guide, the respondents completed guiding training to obtain their licence. They also fulfilled an apprenticeship programme to establish some working experience. The basic guiding knowledge and experience acquired made them feel confident to start a personal guiding business. Some of the female tour guides have worked professionally (13 respondents) with an education background in tourism and hospitality from a tourism school in Lombok. Some of them have worked as freelance tour guides for various travel companies, as well as permanent guides with a certain work schedule contract. At Rinjani Women Adventurer, the members have very flexible work schedules. They work according to their availability with negotiable work hours. For those who have to take care of their families, they are able to negotiate shorter work hours by taking tour packages that involve waterfall visits or soft trekking for 2 to 4 hours. On the other hand, there are those who are able to take jobs that require them to be away for 2 to 3 days, after getting their husband's and children's consent.

In Lombok, working in the tourism sector as a woman seem to be considered a non-prestigious profession. Jobs that are considered prestigious entail working in government offices and private companies, or becoming teachers, nurses, bank employees, and workers in other office-based jobs. The number of female tour guides is very limited, although the demand and need for the service is very high. The chairman of the Indonesian Tour Guide Association (HPI) revealed that female tour guides are in great demand by tourists because they are more detail-orientated, patient in serving guests, and more communicative.

Internal Barriers

To improve the quality of guiding services, tour guides who are knowledgeable, skilled, and ethical are highly needed. The guiding information or materials provided by female tour guides to tourists should be more varied and holistic. In addition to the ability to introduce the destination to tourists, tour guides should have knowledge of the concept of sustainable tourism development, with emphasis on environmental

sustainability, sociocultural factors, and the economic development of the local communities visited. An understanding of sustainable tourism is greatly needed to empower female tour guides in performing their roles in order to pay attention to environmental aspects. Female tour guides are also expected to help tourism destinations to pay attention to the needs of the present and future generations.

There has been good prospect for female tour guide opportunities in terms of the growth in the female workforce compared to the male workforce. However, this is not proportional to the appreciation of the efforts made in helping the family economy. In carrying out their work, female tour guides encounter various obstacles that stem from themselves. These internal barriers are closely related to aspects of (a) knowledge, (b) skills, (c) their attitudes as professional tour guides, as well as (d) physical barriers. Barriers related to knowledge and skills are closely linked to the low level of education that female tour guides possess compared to male tour guides. In the domestic sphere in Lombok, the opportunity for men to pursue education is greater than that of for women. In low-income families, males are still given more attention than females. One female tour guide explained her experience in guiding as follows:

(...) I speak very little English, and I rely on body language for much of the services that I deliver to guests. But this is not a problem at all. The important thing is that I smile and am hospitable to the guests, and they are very happy and satisfied with my service. There have been no complaints since I started guiding, although I just perform as how I am. (March 25, 2020)

Based on the statements above, it can be concluded that guiding is actually focused on service delivery, which is facilitated by language and hospitality. In this case, a hospitable attitude played an important role in guiding. The tendency for parents to choose sons over daughters to continue with studies still exists. Consequently, even though female tour guides are very knowledgeable about the local tourism destinations visited, they encounter constraints in explaining general knowledge such as social, political, economic, and other issues outside of tourism destination-related information. This is especially the case when interacting with tourists, as some foreign guests would often ask about other aspects unrelated to destination information. The issues enquired about are usually matters of interest to tourists that were encountered while passing through certain areas, or current issues that were being discussed. Responding to this, Respondent 2 said she would be honest and inform her guests that she did not understand the aspects being asked and that her limitation was vocabulary. This context was supported by a female tour guide's comments, as follows on the next page.

(...) I am aware that my command of English is not good. I just act naturally by smiling and being helpful. Sometimes, I ask my friend to help me understand. But, generally, I can understand and am able to guide easily.
(March 29, 2020)

Many female tour guides do not have adequate competencies related to personal and tourist safety, available safety infrastructure and facilities, and working safety components in a tourism destination. They are still incapable of creating a sense of security and comfort for tourists in the event of an accident during tourism activities. The initiative of tour guides to execute Occupational Safety and Health (OSH) procedures seems low. This occurs due to the lack of empowerment and their absence from educational activities and training on accident risk reduction. This empowerment on OSH is essential, especially when some tourism destinations lack the integration of standardised working safety facilities which could reduce the risks of accidents. Respondents 4 and 7 also noted that acquiring foreign language skills was still an obstacle. All female tour guides have received tour guide training on how to serve guests well from the government and the association. However, formal training in English and other foreign languages is very rare. Tour guides operating in Sembalun and Senaru learn foreign language skills via self-taught methods such as by reading pocket books, learning from YouTube videos, and interacting directly with foreign guests, besides being taught by volunteers from travel agencies and non-government organisations (NGOs).

Respondent 3, for example, explained that during her guiding service involving guests from Japan and Germany who were not able to speak in English well, for soft trekking across rice fields, she was only able to assist them with guest logistics without being able to explain anything. To overcome the limitations of language skills in guiding, Respondent 9 used body language or sign language. This helped her to communicate with guests, although not all explanations could be signed. The barriers in communication, especially for foreign languages, for female tour guides are indicated by the following comments:

(...) sometimes, I feel very upset when I am not able to speak English very well. Luckily, the guests have not made a big deal of this. I mostly deliver my service using body language. And they are happy regardless. (May 2, 2020)

While guiding, the female tour guides would sometimes apologise to guests for their limitations in the English language. Complaints will not surface when dealing with good guests. Some guests even teach the guides various matters, including new vocabulary in English. However, when dealing with guests who are dissatisfied with the services, the above-mentioned limitations would be the main problem, resulting

in guest complaints. Lin, Lin, and Chen (2017) emphasised that the performance of tour guides could affect tourist sentiments regarding the business image of travel agents. A professional tour guide should have the competencies to meet customer expectations. Overall, tour guide competencies are constructed by three elements, namely professional knowledge, professional skills, and professional attitudes. These three aspects have significant influence on service quality and tourist satisfaction. Indeed, this was highlighted by Lugosi and Bray (2008) on how the organisational culture of an entrepreneurial company and the role of organisation greatly affect the interaction between fellow guides.

Indonesian female tour guides have identical characteristics; they are friendly, polite, patient, motherly, gentle, helpful, and have attention to details. The problems related to attitudes experienced by female tour guides are lack of both confidence and assertiveness in deciding problem-solving initiatives during guiding services. Handling guests with different characteristics, especially complainers, could lead to stressful situations. In certain situations, especially those involving the safety and comfort of guests, decisions are more likely to be made in consultation with the men participating in the tours, including drivers or guests. This lack of confidence in dealing with guests is closely related to a lack of knowledge about the characteristics of guests from different countries and their respective cultures.

On average, Indonesian women are small in size, short, and weak compared to Indonesian men. Guiding work sometimes requires good physical conditions, especially for tours in rugged terrain which demand physical excellence. For instance, only a few women guides were able to handle the Mount Rinjani tour, due to physical limitations. This physical obstacle is not limited to navigating the steep terrain, but also includes carrying guest logistics such as drinking water and snacks. Some guests even request for help to carry tired children during treks or visits to beaches. Faced with these internal obstacles, some female tour guides can only accept their fate and, as a result, have very low motivation to overcome the various obstacles, citing time limitation for self-improvement as the main reason.

External Barriers

Lombok women adhere firmly to social norms, their faith in Islam, and local culture. Female tour guides acknowledge that issues pertaining to culture, religion and tradition, and government regulations are core external obstacles. In general, the perceived role of a wife is mainly to take care of her husband, educate her children, and organise the household to make a home as comfortable and safe as possible for all family members. It has been argued that working as a tour guide will influence family relations negatively, especially when the guide has to work till midnight. Travelling with men (co-workers and tourists) from non-Muslim backgrounds all day long, and staying overnight in their presence, are considered taboo and forbidden for female

tour guides. Yet, this is contrary to the fact that female tour guides themselves have no qualms about this issue. Only a few of them have problems with this matter. As claimed by one of the respondents:

(...) I do not care about what people think of me. Personally, as long as I do not interfere in other people's problems and I do not ever bother them, just let people be. (May 8, 2020)

The community seems to be worried that the negative effect of tourism such as sexual assault or casual sex will affect female tour guides. In practice, however, women guides are really respectful of religious and cultural values while performing guiding duties. This could minimise the stereotypes about women guides. In other words, women working in the tourism industry are no longer a threat to their family and to religious and sociocultural values, as they are able to take care of themselves and their family's image. As stated by one of the respondents:

(...) I must say that working in the tourism sector can sometimes be intense when interacting with the guests. We have had very good relationships with guests. They are very respectful of our lifestyle and culture here. As for negative image, this is very dependent on the person. (May 5, 2020)

This finding supports what Masadeh et al. (2018) have stated, that is, the most prominent reasons impeding women's involvement in the tourism industry were religion; societal rules, traditions, and culture; and the perceived role of women in the family life. Other obstacles include unsupported government and tourism association regulations and legislation for women. Respondents expect that the government and tourism associations will support and promote women's integration by issuing special regulations to prioritise women participants in various educational and training opportunities. The application of a special quota for empowering female tour guides can be a solution to encourage women's participation. Female tour guides who are equipped with sufficient competence and have the support of the government would see an increase in public awareness of their existence in Lombok.

In Lombok, the public assumption that women should work within the domestic domain and carry out tasks with low risk; requiring low concentration, little training, and little skills; and which are repetitive needs to change. Women actually have the ability to combine taking care of the household and carrying out their workloads as tour guides professionally, as long as they are given the same opportunities and trust as male tour guides.

Hu and Wall (2013), after examining tour guide management in Hainan, China, emphasised that the problems encountered in guiding tours are varied. In

2010, a Hong Kong tour guide spoke harshly to guests and ignored them over trivial matters (e.g., for not buying cigarettes at the shop recommended by the guide). The incident received public attention after a video went viral. A similar phenomenon was studied by experts; the cause was found to be ineffective training and monitoring, as well as the low professionalism of tour guides (Ap & Wong, 2001). Solutions that should be considered are enacting regulations and monitoring and controlling the performance of guides. These, however, should be implemented in different ways depending on the country's needs, including the implementation of qualification standards according to the market demand. Indonesia, Malaysia, and Singapore, for example, impose a stringent certification and licencing system by involving government bodies. Low remuneration that relies heavily on commissions and unhealthy organisational practices is another obstacle. Local organisations conduct inadequate monitoring activities of tour guides and play a less active role in improving the guides' professionalism. According to Min (2016), there have been several limitations in examining the quality of tour guide services, due to lack of service quality indicators that are useful to assess tour guides' performance.

Overall, to overcome various internal and external barriers, female tour guides must equip themselves with the ability to manage a business (business expansion) as tour operators who provide tour packages and travel management services. In addition to the financial benefits gained through businesses, they will be able to provide job opportunities for other women and men guides. To achieve this, women should be able to develop themselves formally and informally to broaden their scope of opportunities and to be more independent, creative, and confident.

Conclusion

Based on the discussions, this study concludes two main aspects. Firstly, the motives of female tour guides is basically driven by a desire to help the family financially, the intention to spend spare time, the need to increase experience, and the interest to perform self-existence. It is undeniable that the tourism sector contributes to economic benefits, especially by creating job opportunities for female tour guides due to the high demand for their services in Lombok. The women interviewed in this research stated that they enjoyed their work and benefited economically, socially, and culturally from their interactions with tourists. However, various obstacles were encountered from within themselves and their surroundings. Although the women have shown their existence through the professionalism shown in serving the tourists, gender issues remained a barrier that inhibited them from taking part in a wider sphere.

Women are allowed—and even suggested—to work within the domestic sphere, which does not require a high level of knowledge and skills. Criminalisation and

subordination are still common, particularly in terms of women's involvement in various educational and training activities organised by the government and tourism associations. Although there have been opportunities available, it seems that women were rarely prioritised, despite the fact that most of them were eager to partake in the activities. Limited opportunities for self-development and capacity-building, indeed, could result in low knowledge, skills, attitudes, and physical capability of female tour guides.

Secondly, the barriers such as internal factors are individual factors within themselves, encompassing physical conditions, knowledge, skills, and attitudes, did not greatly influence service delivery. These obstacles were overcome by the hospitable attitude of the female tour guides during their guiding activities. Moreover, external factors such as religious beliefs; societal rules, traditions, and culture; and the overall perception of women's main role as a mother, wife, and housekeeper were identified as the main barriers that explain women's limited participation as tour guides.

It is expected that the stakeholders or relevant parties will acknowledge women's existence and contribution to tourism industries by providing them with maximum opportunities to improve their quality. The recognition of their existence and the provision of opportunities for empowerment would enable women to overcome various internal obstacles, in terms of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and physical limitations. In addition, the dual role of wife and mother played by married female tour guides with children is very dilemmatic. In fact, they are expected to be smart at managing their household affairs and professional in carrying out their role as tour guides. This double burden tends to give rise to negative perceptions, especially when these women have to work outside their home for long periods with male guests. To address the issues related to external barriers faced by female tour guides, particularly of negative perceptions towards their work, it is expected that the government, tourism associations, and community or religious leaders will play a role in educating society with the aim of shaping public opinion about gender equality through government regulations and legislation.

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Empirical Paper

Assessment of Day Spa Premises Spatial Organisation, Components, and Services Towards Muslim-friendly Elements

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Abstract: The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were set up by the United Nations General Assembly in 2015 as a series of universal goals to help counter the world's urgent environmental, political, and economic challenges. The spa industry is one of the industries that contribute towards the profitability of the tourism sector and the economy. Islam is the official religion of Malaysia and approximately 61.3% of the country's population are Muslims. Hence, it makes economic sense for the spa industry to target and cater to the needs Muslim consumers. This paper addresses the need to transform spa tourism into one that practises a Muslim-friendly approach, in line with Goal 17 of the SDGs (SDG 17), which is to revitalise global partnerships for sustainable development. Two spas were selected as case studies and the method used was structured observation through inventory and analysis, on-site measurement, and in-depth interviews with an expert. The findings established that the Muslim-friendly spa design will contribute to a unique range of spatial organisation processes such as premises layout, methods of gender segregation, checklist tools for Muslim needs as well as attire, and social interaction between client and host that addresses issues related to Muslim needs. The contribution of this study is critical in the development of a concept or approach for a Muslim-friendly spa design that can serve as the foundation to fill a crucial gap in the spa tourism industry, namely that of catering to the needs of Muslim clients as well as facilitating the sustainable transformation of the spa tourism industry.

Keywords: Halal lifestyle, Muslim-friendly spa, SDGs, spa design and services, sustainable tourism development SDG17, youths

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Introduction

Tourism activities of many sorts are endorsed in Islam to achieve spiritual, physical, and social needs (Zamani-Farahani & Anderson, 2010). Looking at the growing trend of the Halal industry globally, there is a great potential for Muslim countries to increase their revenue and profit in the emerging Halal sector. The spa industry has the potential to play a key role in many areas of the SDGs, for instance, through promoting wellness and global partnerships in addition to overcoming economic challenges. The desire of Muslim tourists to discover is a major contributory factor to the rapid growth of the travel industry. Studies have shown that cultural backgrounds and similar religious beliefs are the main criteria influencing the number of tourist arrivals in countries (Ghani, 2016; Henderson, 2011; Vietze, 2012). Apart from this, the availability of Muslim-friendly services and facilities is an important factor that influences the travel destinations of Muslims tourists (World Travel Market, 2007; Battour, Hakimian, Ismail, & Boğan, 2018).

Going to a spa nowadays is no longer considered a luxury but rather a means of promoting a healthy lifestyle (Guillet & Kucukusta, 2016). According to Haden (2007), the worldwide spa industry is one of the fastest-growing divisions in the tourism industry. As such, the facilities and services offered by spas need to cater to the requirements of the different religions all over the world. Most spas today follow the concept of the conventional spa rather than the Muslim-friendly or Islamic spa concept. Muslim-friendly spa practices can be divided into three aspects: space design and planning; services and management; and products. A Muslim-friendly spa hotel must be designed for health, safety, and economics that will benefit all mankind, regardless of race, faith, or culture. Despite the rapid growth of the spa industry, research on the Islamic spa concept is still in its infancy. As reported by Yaman, Alias, & Ishak (2012), spas in Southeast Asia are strongly influenced by cultural values, and spas in Malaysia are influenced by the countries closest to it, specifically Indonesia and Thailand that are less focused on Islamic values and requirements. Thus, in March 2015, Malaysia established the MS2610:2014 Muslim friendly hospitality services—Requirements, which is the first standard in the country intended for the tourism industry that caters to Muslim travellers.

Islam as “Ad-din” or a way of life encompasses rules in every aspect of a human being. In terms of tourism values, Islamic tourism is not only restricted to the delivery of Halal food, but also includes hospitality services that fulfil the Maqasid

Shariah. Hence, this paper aims to study spa design, social interaction, and services that merge the modern spa with an Islamic point of view.

Literature Review

Spa Definition

The tourism industry in Malaysia has made great efforts to attract more tourists to visit Malaysia, especially tourists from the Middle East. An industry that has contributed positively to the country's economy is the spa industry. In recent years, the spa industry has experienced strong growth in terms of sales and the number of spas. Based on a recent Global Muslim Travel Index (2017) report, Malaysia is ranked first in terms of the number of Muslim travellers from Islamic countries among 10 OIC destinations. This indicates a huge potential and opportunity for Muslim-friendly spas to be incorporated into the Islamic tourism industry. The ASEAN Spa Services Standard (2016) defines a spa as an establishment that provides massage treatments and at least two water applications (e.g., scrubs and wraps, exercise, nutritional programmes, dietary programmes, yoga, meditation, herbal treatments, or other professional services) for the well-being of the client. The claim made by spa operators is the provision of spa treatments that use reliable water-based therapies that are delivered by qualified professionals in a relaxing environment. The word "spa" may have originated from the Greek words meaning "healing through water". It includes an element of relaxation that suggests that a spa is "a place to relax" (Garrow, 2005). The International Spa Association (ISPA, 2020) defines spas as places devoted to overall well-being through a variety of professional services that encourage the renewal of mind, spirit, and body. Ellis (2011) in defining a spa, moved away from the inclusion of water and suggested that holistic well-being rather than water-based therapies, played a key role in the spa setting.

Concept of Muslim-friendly Spa

The spa association, Spafinder Wellness 365TM, in its 2015 forecast listed the Muslim-friendly spa concept as one of the Top 10 Spa and Wellness Trends (Othman, Halim, Hashim, Baharuddin & Mahamod, 2015). Othman et al. (2015) defined a Muslim-friendly spa as a place where all the products and services given are in compliance with Islamic law. Globalisation, urbanisation, health concerns, religion, and economic growth have all contributed to the development of the Asian spa industry. From the Islamic viewpoint on spas, many factors must be considered, such whether the products used are Halal and whether the types of services offered meet the requirements of Muslims. Despite the growth in the number of Muslimah spas in Malaysia, there is no proper body or authority to verify these spas. A spa that applies Islamic spa practices is Nu'della Malaysian Holistic Spa, located at

Bangi, Selangor, which has been in operation for over 14 years (Yaman et al., 2012). However, the spa's Muslim-friendly practices are limited because the guidelines can only be used by the franchisor and its franchisees. Thus, there is a need to standardise the Muslim-friendly spa concept to produce stable and successful spas, both for the present and future. The effort to bring Islamic culture into the spa industry will benefit Muslims all over the world. Yaman et al., (2012) further pointed out that a significant difference between Islamic beauty salons and conventional beauty salons is that for Islamic beauty salons, the spatial design plan must be closed and unseen from non-muhrim's sight. In addition, Islamic beauty salons must ensure all their therapists are females, and it is advisable to employ Muslim women as the Al-Quran states that Islam does not prohibit women to enhance themselves, but it must be modest and must not surpass Islamic limits.

The Muslim-friendly spa concept should not only be limited to the services offered but should extend to the operations of the business, including the use of verses of the Al-Quran, which streamlines with Malaysia's image as the leader in the world's Halal industry. Yaman et al., (2012) stated that besides the types of services offered, segregating beauty therapists by gender, the use of rooms and the different services to male and female clients in accordance with Islamic law would make a spa attractive, especially to Muslim consumers. Unfortunately, most beauty treatment facilities and spas in Malaysia lack emphasis on Islamic concepts and values.

Recent Trends in Sustainable Tourism Issues and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

In recent years, some key issues and trends have been reported that indicate significant shifts in direction for sustainable tourism industries. There are six potentially valuable avenues for future research in sustainable tourism trends:

- (i) The emergence of sustainable tourism research and policies that focus on understanding and altering the individual's attitude, behaviour, and choice. In other words, to promote more sustainable patterns of consumer behaviour based on a remarkably narrow range of conceptual resources (Shove, 2014; Hall, 2013). Other researchers have added that consumer behaviour should consider wider social relations and socio-technical structures, including meanings, technologies, institutions, governance regimes, and systems of provision (Hall, 2016; Williams, 2013).
- (ii) The need to alter the relationships within and between social practices, social relations, and socio-technical systems. These societal relations and socio-technical systems involve broad systems of production (technologies, infrastructures, and governance processes) and consumption (norms and fashions) that may influence behavioural and consumption patterns (Higham, Cohen, Peeters, & Gossling, 2013; Iaquinto, 2015; Luzecka, 2016).

- (iii) There has been recent interest in understanding the potential pathways for social transformations to achieve more sustainable tourism (William, 2013) such as attempts to shape more sustainable practices (path creation) based on the context of previously established pathways (path dependence) (Gössling, Hall, Ekström, Engeset, & Aall, 2012; Luzecka, 2016; Scuttari, Volgger, & Pechlaner, 2016).
- (iv) The new conceptualisation of governance systems and regimes in tourism research towards how societies and social action are steered, mobilised, and regulated. This includes social rules and values, and also socio-technical systems such as the technologies of tourism provision that affect the introduction of more sustainable tourism practices (Hartman, 2016; Wray, 2015).
- (v) The growing interest in the importance of complex interconnections around social systems and between human and natural systems. These include multiple and system-wide connections, dynamic feedback within or between systems, and contextualised root causes (Leyshon, 2014; Lowe, Phillipson, & Wilkinson, 2013; Calgaro, Lloyd, & Dominey-Howes, 2014; Espiner & Becken, 2014; Mai & Smith, 2015; Scherrer & Doohan, 2014).
- (vi) Issues related to ethics, religion, and politics which often seek to understand society such as any oppressive, exploitative, and alienating features that affect transformative and progressive change (Bramwell & Lane, 2014; Jamal & Camargo, 2014; Hof & Blázquez-Salom, 2015)

By far, the biggest trends in sustainable tourism issues are in relation to SDG 12 (which is to ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns) and SDG 16 (which refers to promoting peaceful and inclusive societies, through building inclusive institutions on systems of governance). There are very few discussions on issues related to ethics and religion as well as strengthening global partnerships (SDG 17)

Materials and Methods

Research Design

A qualitative approach was adopted to give a supplementary in-depth analysis of this research. For the purpose of data collection, a multi-method technique was used to ensure that sufficient data was collected from various sources of evidence to reinforce the findings robustly. This particular approach was chosen because the nature of this research was primarily based on observational research, interview, and social phenomenon. This research aims to assess the spatial design, components, and services of targeted day spas in Malaysia in establishing a Muslim-friendly spa. Two day spas located in Selangor were targeted in this research: Lanna Thai Spa and Ayur-V Spa. Lanna Thai Spa operates inside the Wangsa Walk Mall while Ayur-V Spa is located in the Prima Gombak Entrepreneur area. The qualitative approach

used in this research consisted of on-site observation covering the spatial design, spa components, and types of services offered by the spas as well as an expert interview with a Muslim scholar.

Site Selection

The ASEAN Spa Services Standard (2016) identified six types of spa. The type of spa that is the focus of this research is the day spa because day spas are the most frequented and most accessible to clients. Lanna Thai Spa and Ayur-V Spa were the day spas selected for this research as both spas offered different themes: Lanna Thai Spa offers Siamese spa services whereas Ayur-V Spa's services are based on the traditional ayurvedic practices of India. Thus, the different client experiences from both spas will enhance the findings of this research. The size of the spa also influenced the results as day spas are generally smaller than the other types of spas in the market. Being smaller in size enables easier coverage of the aspects under investigation and a better understanding of the spas' spatial design, spa components, and services.

Structured Observation Through Inventory and Analysis

Observation has been recognised as an instrument for collecting data for more than one hundred years (Kawulich, 2012). Structured observation, which is observation that is conducted in a specific area (Goodall, 2015), was selected as one of the methods for this research. The inventory and analysis of the spa were conducted through structured observation. A structured observation checklist was created based on previous studies that used on-site observation of targeted spa (Table 1). The observation took about two-and-a-half hours. As proof, images of the selected aspects were captured using a camera for approximately 45 minutes. The observation checklist assisted in ensuring the parts of the spa that needed to be accessed. As the focus of this study concerns the conceptual framework for Muslim-friendly spas, thus the observation checklist covered Islamic aspects such as: hygiene; segregation of spaces; segregation of services based on gender; beverages and products; entertainment; prayer facilities; and host dress code (see Table 1).

Table 1. Observation checklist

Elements	Requirement	References	Compliance (Evidence reviewed)		Remarks
			Yes	No	
Hygiene					
Cleanliness and hygiene	Assure that the place is clean and well-maintained	MS2610:2015			

Table 1 (con't)

Elements	Requirement	References	Compliance (Evidence reviewed)		Remarks
			Yes	No	
Spaces					
Gender segregation in terms of space planning (private areas)	Assure that there is proper male/female separation	JAKIM guidelines & MS2610: 2015			
Must provide changing facilities in treatment areas that give clients privacy	Assure there are changing rooms inside the treatment areas	Malaysia spa rating by Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture (MOTAC)			
Provide musalla	Assure there is musalla or prayer room provided at the spa	Yaman et al., (2012)			
Spaces are properly covered and not too dim/dark	Assure that spaces are completely covered and not transparent	Malaysia spa rating by MOTAC			
Services					
Gender segregation in terms of services	Assure that there is proper service separation for male/female clients	MS2610: 2015			
Services forbidden under Islamic principles not offered	Assure there are no services offered that contradict Islamic principles	Yaman et al., (2012)			
Akhlaq-trained staff/friendly staff	Assure therapists have good akhlak and are friendly	JAKIM (2012)			

Table 1 (cont)

Elements	Requirement	References	Compliance (Evidence reviewed)		Remarks
			Yes	No	
Use of Quranic verses before starting any treatment	Assure the use of Quranic verses before starting any treatment	Yaman et al., (2012)			
Halal beverages and products					
Halal food and drinks	Assure that only Halal foods and drinks are served	MS2610: 2015			
Halal sources/ products	Assure that the products have a Halal logo	MS2610: 2015			
Entertainment					
Appropriate channels/ music/ magazines	Assure the entertainment available are appropriate	JAKIM guideline			
Prayer facilities					
Provision of qiblat direction	Assure qiblat direction is provided and clearly marked	MS2610: 2015			
Complete prayer facilities	Assure complete prayer facilities are provided	MS2610: 2015			
Prayer time information	Assure that prayer times are properly displayed	MS2610: 2015			
Dress code					
Therapists cover their awrah	The hosts cover their awrah properly	Yaman et al., (2012)			

On-site Measurement

On-site measurement was done to obtain the measurement of every area of the spa. This took approximately one hour.

In-depth Interview with an Expert

The value of interviews has long been established in social science studies (Alshenqeti, 2014). The interview helps researchers to examine people’s perspectives or opinions in greater depth and is influential in eliciting data (Kvale, 2006). We interviewed Mufti Wilayah (Islamic State Counsellor) to obtain a better understanding and viewpoints regarding spa premises from the Islamic perspective. The interview, which took approximately 35 minutes was recorded the using a recorder to capture the data collected more efficiently and appropriately. The recording method is very beneficial and more precise as the researcher can fully focus on the interview session and verbatim transcripts can easily be produced.

Results and Discussion

Public and Private Areas of the Spas

The results of this study revealed several key findings related to the selected day spas. In regard to spatial design, all aspects of the spas’ interior space design were covered. The identification of public and private areas of the spa was very important to ensure the privacy aspects were well-protected.

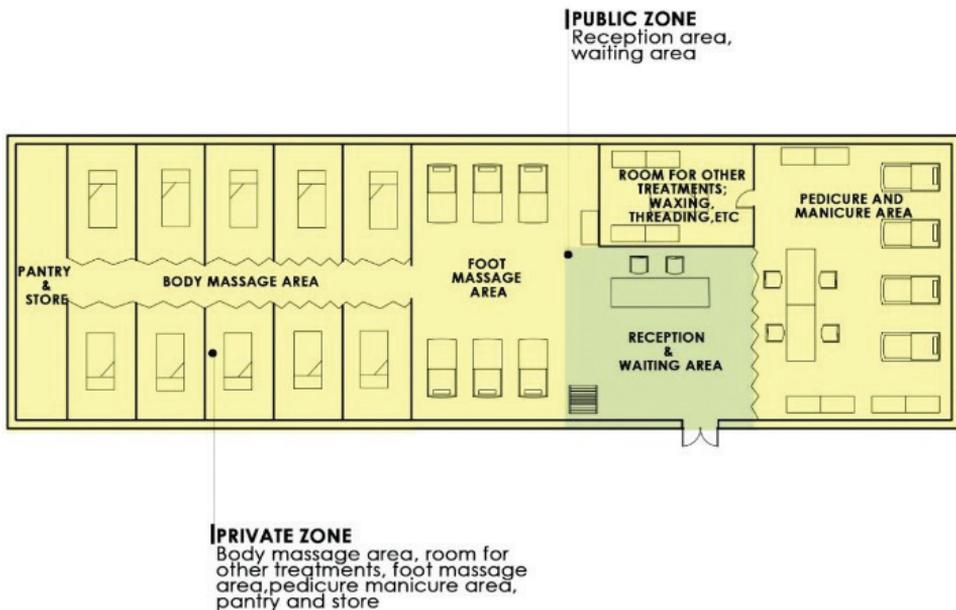


Figure 1. Public and private areas at Lanna Thai Spa

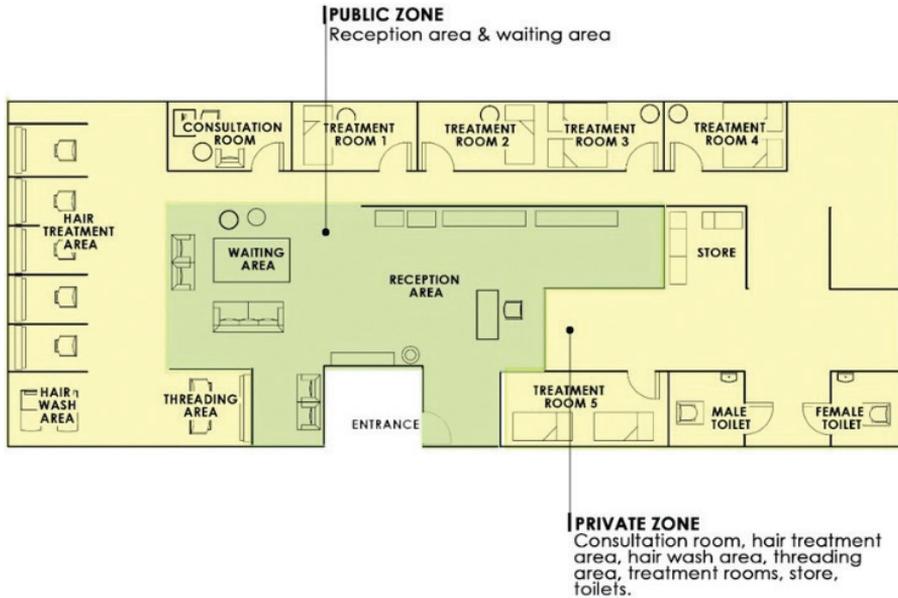


Figure 2. Public and private areas at Ayur-V Spa

The yellow colour indicates the private areas of Lanna Thai Spa (see Figure 1). At Lanna Thai Spa, the private areas consist of areas for clients to undergo treatments that require privacy such as body massage area; foot massage area; a room for other treatments like waxing and threading; and the pedicure and manicure area. Meanwhile, the green colour indicates the public areas. A public area means an area that is accessible to the public. The public areas in Lanna Thai Spa are the reception area and waiting area. It was noted that the foot massage area is close to the public area, without any partition wall to block the view from outside. Apart from that, outsiders were able to see the pedicure/manicure area as the area is separated only by a glass wall and transparent curtain. In summary, the space division that segregates public and private areas of the spa does not guarantee the clients' privacy level.

The public and private areas in Ayur-V Spa were then assessed (see Figure 2). As can be observed, the reception area is located near the waiting area. There is no issue regarding the reception area. However, the waiting area is situated near the hair treatment, hair wash, and threading areas. For the hair treatment area, a curtain was used to block the view from the public area. Unfortunately, because the hair wash area is not placed together with the hair treatment room, a client has to walk out from the hair treatment room to go to the hair wash area. In addition, the hair wash area is exposed to public view. As for the threading area, there is only partitioning made of slatted wood, which exposes it to public view.

In conclusion, the privacy aspect was insufficiently addressed in the spatial designs of both spas. In Islam, privacy is an important aspect and the level of privacy provided by a spa should preserve the awrah of clients and secure privacy for Muslim clients. For instance, the primary function of walls, doors, windows, or screens is to avoid visual interference for women’s privacy and intimacy (Mortada, 2003; Abdul Rahim, 2008). Clients’ privacy must be secured through well-designed space division, careful selection of screening materials, and appropriate sequencing of treatment services. Abdul Rahim (2008) concluded that space segregation between public and private domains could avoid any interference of privacy life between Muslims.

Total Built-up Area of the Spas

Table 2 shows the total built-up area of Lanna Thai Spa. The spa consists of seven components: the reception area, waiting area, pedicure/manicure area, foot massage area, body massage room, waxing and threading area, and store/pantry area. The total area of the spa is approximately 89 m². The body massage area is divided into 10 rooms and each room is about 3 m². The size of each body massage room is small and inappropriate for serving the client. The body massage room area needs to be enhanced to ensure the client’s comfort during a massage session. The second largest area of the spa is the pedicure/manicure area, which measures about 17 m². The foot massage area is about 14 m² and comprises six massage chairs. The size of the waxing and threading room is estimated at 9 m². As for the store and pantry area, the size is about 9 m². The reception area and waiting area occupy the smallest area, at approximately 5 m² each.

Table 2. The overall built-up area at Lanna Thai Spa

No.	Space	No. of space/ divisions	Area of each space (m ²)	Total area (m ²)
1.	Reception area	1	5	5
2.	Waiting area	1	5	5
3.	Pedicure and manicure area	1	17	17
4.	Foot massage area	1	14	14
5.	Waxing and threading room (treatment room)	1	9	9
6.	Body massage room	10	3	30
7.	Store and pantry area	1	9	9
Total				89 m ²

Table 3. The overall built-up area at Ayur-V Spa

No.	Space	No. of space/ divisions	Area of each space (m ²)	Total area (m ²)
1.	Reception area	1	38	38
2.	Waiting area	1	36	36
3.	Consultation room	1	7	7
4.	Treatment rooms 1–4	4	7	
	Treatment room 5	2	5	38
5.	Hair treatment room	5	4	20
6.	Hair wash area	1	5	5
7.	Threading area	1	5	5
8.	Store	1	5	5
9.	Toilets	2	4	8
10.	Others (walkway)	–	–	108
Total				270 m ²

Table 3 shows the total built-up area of Ayur-V Spa. A total of 10 components were identified: reception area, waiting area, consultation room, treatment rooms (5 units), hair treatment room (5 units), hair wash area, threading area, store, toilets (2 units), and others (e.g., walkway). The total area of the spa is approximately 270 m². The largest area allocation of the spa is the pathway or walkway area inside the spa, which is about 108 m². The treatment rooms and reception area occupy the largest space designed for the spa, with each measuring about 38 m². The reception area is also used to display the main ingredients and products used for the spa treatments. The spa has five treatment rooms, with one room measuring approximately 10 m² while the other four rooms are about 7 m² each. The second largest space in the spa is the waiting area, which is about 36 m² and is large enough to cater to the number of clients at any one time so clients felt comfortable while waiting for their treatment. The third largest area is the hair treatment room, which is about 20 m². This room is divided into five compartments that are approximately 4 m² each, which is rather small and could give clients an unsatisfactory experience. There are two toilets in the spa, one is a male toilet and the other, a female toilet. Each toilet is about 4 m² in size. The consultation room is estimated at 7 m² whereas the other areas such as hair wash area, threading room, and store have an area of about 5 m² each.

Comparing the reception and waiting areas of both spas, Lanna Thai Spa only allocated about 5 m² for each of the areas, which is considered small. Apart from that, there is only one seat provided for clients, which is inadequate. On the other hand, Ayur-V Spa allocated more than enough space for its reception area and

waiting area at 38 m² and 36 m², respectively. Ideally, the reception area and waiting area of a spa should cater to the number of clients it can serve at any one time. As for treatment rooms, Lanna Thai Spa only allocated about 3 m² to 9 m² for each of their treatment rooms while pedicure, manicure, and foot massage services were not allocated specific treatment rooms. At Ayur-V Spa, the area of the treatment rooms are approximately 4 m² to 7 m² each; and the hair treatment room, hair wash area, and threading room are also categorised as treatment rooms.

Space allocation inside a spa is crucial but this was not emphasized in both the spa designs. Treatment rooms should be of an appropriate size since the area is the main area where spa operations are done. The treatment room is set up to deliver the various kinds of spa treatments such as massage, simple body treatment, and it is recommended that treatment rooms should have a minimum size of about 12.3 m² (American Spa, 2004). The American Spa (2004) also recommends a minimum size of 11 m² for treatment rooms. Both sources cited 11 m² to 12 m² as the minimum size for a spa treatment area. The University of Texas at San Antonio's UTSA Space Planning and Use Policy (2011) stipulates that space allocation for a reception area or waiting area should be at least about 11 m². The clients' comfort level will be affected if the areas in a spa are too small.

Spa Components and Segregation

It was observed that Lanna Thai Spa does not provide any changing rooms for their clients. Clients change their clothes inside the treatment room so there is no guarantee that a client's awrah would be preserved. In addition, the areas of certain sections of the spa are inadequate. From the plan view of the spa, it can be seen that the reception area and waiting area are placed near the private areas such as the foot massage area and the pedicure/manicure area. There is no proper barrier or partition to separate the public and private areas. The foot massage and pedicure/manicure areas can be easily seen by people in the reception and waiting areas. In addition, Lanna Thai Spa's treatment rooms are not segregated by gender, which means there is no specific area for male and female clients when receiving spa treatments and both genders can freely utilise any area of the spa. Consequently, clients do not have much privacy.

Ayur-V Spa was also found to be lacking in terms of privacy and hygiene. For instance, Ayur-V Spa's treatment rooms are also not segregated by gender, which means there are no specific sections for male and female clients. Apart from that, the first component of the spa, which is the reception area, is located at the front of the spa and is large enough to function as a public area and product promotional area. As with Lanna Thai Spa, Ayur-V Spa also does not provide changing rooms for their clients and there is no proper wall partitioning to block the private areas.

In addition, the hair treatment rooms are located adjacent to the waiting area. However, the size of the waiting area is adequate and conducive for clients who are waiting for their turn to be treated. The next component is the consultation rooms, which are commonly used for consultation between clients and therapists about the treatments. Another component is the treatment rooms, of which there are six. These rooms are either single-bedded or double-bedded. The rooms were found to be inadequately maintained and fell short in terms of hygiene aspects. As for the hair treatment rooms, all five rooms are located in front of the waiting area. The rooms only had curtains to block the view and sometimes the curtains were not fully drawn. Meanwhile, the hair wash area is situated next to the hair treatment rooms and threading area. The space was found to be poorly maintained and looked dirty. The threading room is also one of Ayur-V Spa's interior components. Ayur-V Spa's store is located in the back area and also functioned as the spa's laundry area. The area was poorly maintained and unorganised. There are two toilets inside the spa that are separated by gender and which are only for the use of clients. These toilets were found to be poorly maintained and smelt unpleasant.

As observed, both spas did not provide changing rooms for their clients. According to the Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture Malaysia (n.d.), one of the minimum requirements for star-rating of a spa is that every spa must provide changing facilities in treatment areas that provide customers with privacy. In terms of gender segregation, this was absent in both spas. For instance, in Malay Muslim traditional houses, the segregation aspect between genders, female and male domains, and visual privacy are important aspects in designing Shariah-compliant houses (Abdul Majid, Denan, Abdullah, & Mohd Noor, 2015). Thus, the privacy aspect is a major concern in the design of Muslim-friendly spas. The space design of a spa should incorporate Islamic influences that reflect and support the requirements of Shariah. Meanwhile, the toilets inside Ayur-V spa were very dirty and not well-maintained. Based on the ASEAN Public Toilet Standard (2016), toilets should be free from bad odour by ensuring there are no dirty areas inside the toilet that can affect users' comfort.

Circulation

The circulation or human traffic patterns of both selected spas are shown in Figure 3 and Figure 4.

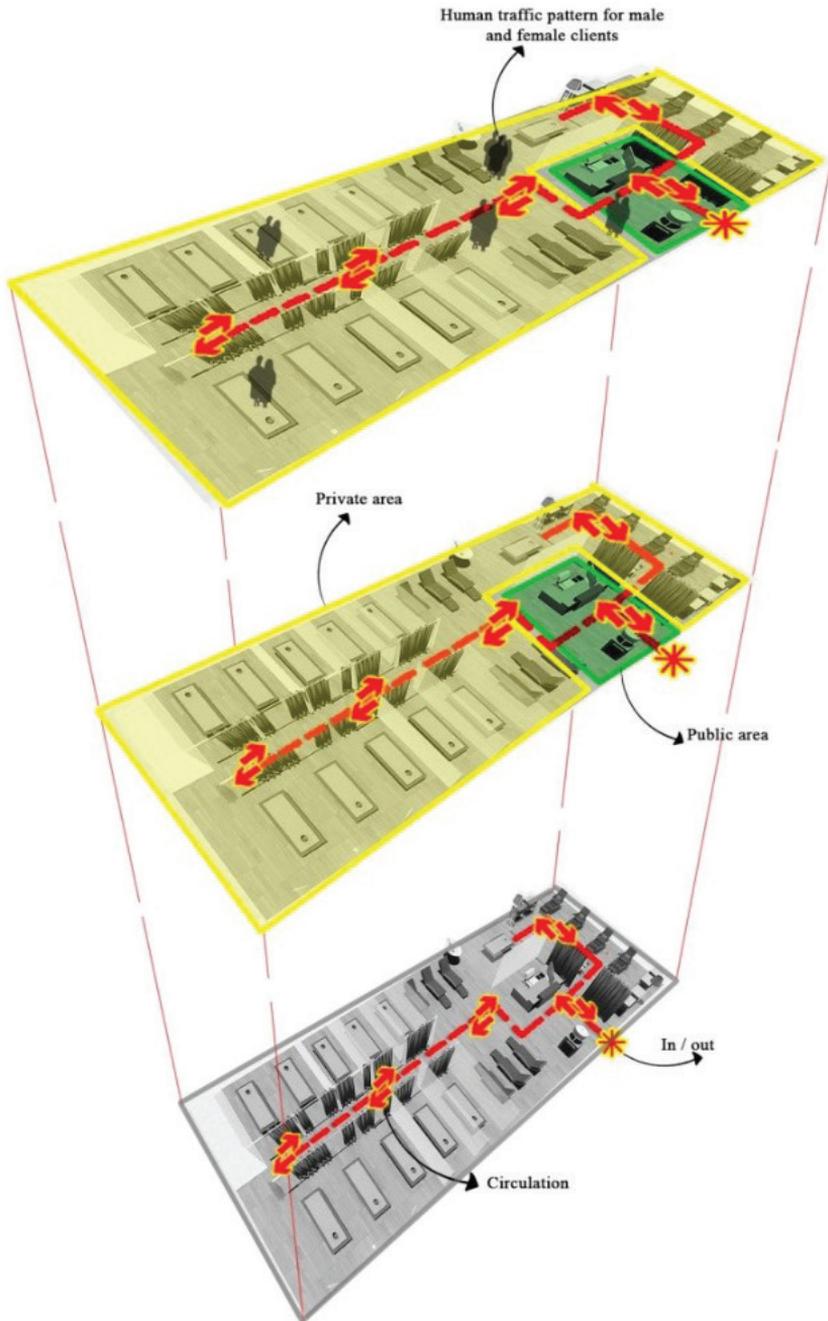


Figure 3. Circulation at Lanna Thai Spa

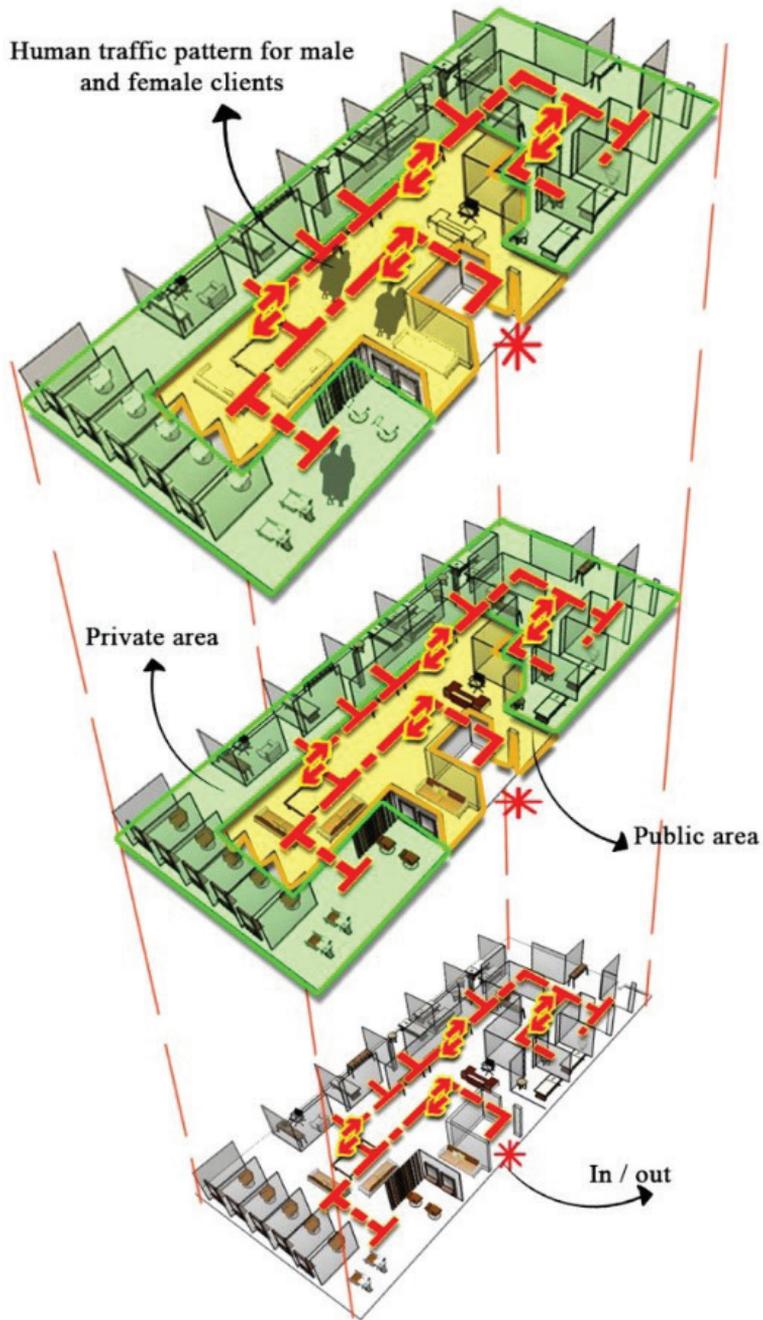


Figure 4. Circulation at Ayur-V Spa

Both Lanna Thai Spa and Ayur-V Spa have only one entrance. Clients and staff use the same main entrance to enter and exit. Men and women share the same spaces and circulation since the spa areas are not gender-segregated. Due to these non-segregation issues, the level of privacy at the spas is very poor, especially from the perspective of Muslim clients. The private areas of the spa should be gender-segregated. Allowing male and female clients to move freely inside the spa is very discomforting for Muslim clients. This issue would be a major concern in designing a Muslim-friendly spa.

In Islam, the concept of *Muamalah*, which means the relationship among mankind, needs to be implemented in spatial design. For example, this concept is reflected through practising gender segregation for the entrances of houses, such as male and female guests using different entrances and spaces (Abdul Majid et al., 2015). Thus, the spa design of a Muslim-friendly spa needs to consider the *Muamalah* concept, such as designing entrances and spaces based on gender segregation.

Products, Social Interaction, Service Quality, and Management

The researchers in this study had undergone the treatments at the spas to observe their social interactions with clients. From our findings, the therapists at Lanna Thai Spa did not seem very friendly and helpful. The communication between the host and clients was unsatisfactory, and the treatments and promotions available were not properly explained to clients. The therapists served clients of both genders, which meant female therapists could meet with male clients and vice versa. This practice contradicts Islamic guidelines. Secondly, some of the services offered by the spa, such as threading services like eyebrow trimming, are forbidden by Islam. Thirdly, in terms of spa management, there were insufficient therapists, which led to clients waiting about 30 minutes to one hour for their spa treatment. Other than that, the therapists' attire did not conform to the Islamic dress code. From the operational aspect of the spa, there is no specific training given to their therapists. Most of the staff were hired based on their working experience in the spa industry. Surprisingly, the treatments were done correctly in accordance with procedure, and all treatments were performed manually. Most of the products used at the spa did not display a Halal logo. The spa therapists were not able to convincingly explain about the products they used and merely claimed that the products used were common products such as essential oils to massage the body and foot. This causes Muslims to feel doubtful about using their products. Hence, the therapists' attitude and the spa operations could be improved by having proper spa management training. All the issues above lead to an unpleasant spa experience for the clients, especially Muslim clients.

As for Ayur-V Spa, the therapists were very friendly and helpful. Before starting the treatment, the clients were requested to have a proper consultation with the

therapists, who would explain and suggest the suitable treatment needed by the clients. Proper consultation will contribute to client satisfaction. Regrettably, there was no gender segregation between therapists and clients, so there was no restriction on female therapists providing consultation to male clients and vice versa. The spa offered a variety of treatments, for instance, threading, bleaching, waxing, henna design, facial, body scrub, black hair henna, head lice treatment, hair spa, and herbal sauna. Threading, bleaching, and black hair henna are services offered at the spa that are forbidden in Islam. The spa had insufficient therapists and clients had to wait about 30 minutes to one hour for their treatment. Furthermore, the spa's therapists did not undergo proper training. The therapists' attire was also not in conformance to the Islamic dress code since it is an Indian-themed spa and the therapists are Indians. The spa has a valid licence and Halal certificate from JAKIM. The products used are Halal and are formulated from Ayurvedic herbs. The products are mostly plant- and fruit-based such as coconut, rice, and turmeric essence.

Many activities involve social interaction between both genders (Rapoport, 2007; Omer, 2011; Mortada, 2003) and Islam is very concerned about the position or privacy of women and the separation of areas for men and women (Rapoport, 2007). Islam only permits social interaction between men and women which is acknowledged as Mahram, referring to a family member (Mortada, 2003). Hence, spa therapists should not entertain clients of the opposite gender as this contradicts with Islamic principles.

There is a growing demand for Halal food, Halal services, and Halal products. Halal consumers are estimated at around three billion globally (Smith, 2007; Manzouri, Rahman, Saibani, & Zain, 2013). According to Karia & Asaari (2016), Halal is an Islamic concept that covers Shariah, akhlak and aqidah that reflects the act, rules, or practical system in Muslim life. It is compulsory for every Muslim to consume Halal products and services. Moreover, Halal is tayyib, meaning good with proper hygiene, safety, quality, and authenticity (Shaikh & Sobian, 2006). Yet, there are many service providers in the industry that fail to fulfil Halal certification due to a lack of Halal knowledge and resources, education, and Halal training (Talib, Rubin, & Zhengyi, 2013). Hence, spa operators need to seriously consider Halal matters in operating a Muslim-friendly spa. They must strive to become high performance Halal service players that provide clients a spa experience that offer rich spiritual guidance in addition to treatments and therapies that adhere to Islamic requirements.

Islam is a holistic (syumul) religion that encompasses all views of life. In operating a Muslim-friendly spa, the therapist's attire is one of the main concerns as it is used as a criterion to determine the level of a woman's faithfulness or devotion to Allah. The therapists' attire in both the spas in this study did not conform to Islamic

requirements. The parts of a woman that need to be covered are the whole body excluding the face, from the wrists to the fingertips, and the entire body except for the face and her palms (Busu et al., 2018).

Synthesis

Table 4. Synthesis for circulation, social interaction, services, management, and operations

Subject	Lanna Thai Spa	Ayur-V Spa
Circulation	Should provide separate circulation for male and female so that the awrah of clients, especially Muslims, are preserved.	The areas of the spa are not gender-segregated, resulting in male and female clients sharing the same circulation, especially inside the treatment areas.
Social Interaction, Services, Management, and Operation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Therapists are not friendly. • Clients are not served based on gender (female therapists can serve male clients). • Proper consultation is not done. • Insufficient therapists. • Therapists' attire does not conform to the Islamic dress code. • Products do not have Halal logo. • Inadequate information about the products used in treatments. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clients are not served based on gender (female therapists can serve male clients). • Some services contradict Islamic principles such as threading, bleaching, and black hair henna. • Insufficient therapists. • Therapists' attire does not conform to the Islamic dress code.

Sustainability is an international concern that is embedded in every area of human life, including economic, environmental, and social aspects. Sustainable tourism is an increasing concern because tourism is vital for the success of many economies around the world. Halal tourism, such as the concept of Muslim-friendly spa, is a new phenomenon in the tourism industry that has potential to open up new and exciting opportunities to boost greater economic growth. Thus, a Muslim-friendly spa business that provides the appropriate services that Muslims can respond positively to, needs to be developed to meet the needs of this new Muslim market (Chanin, 2016).

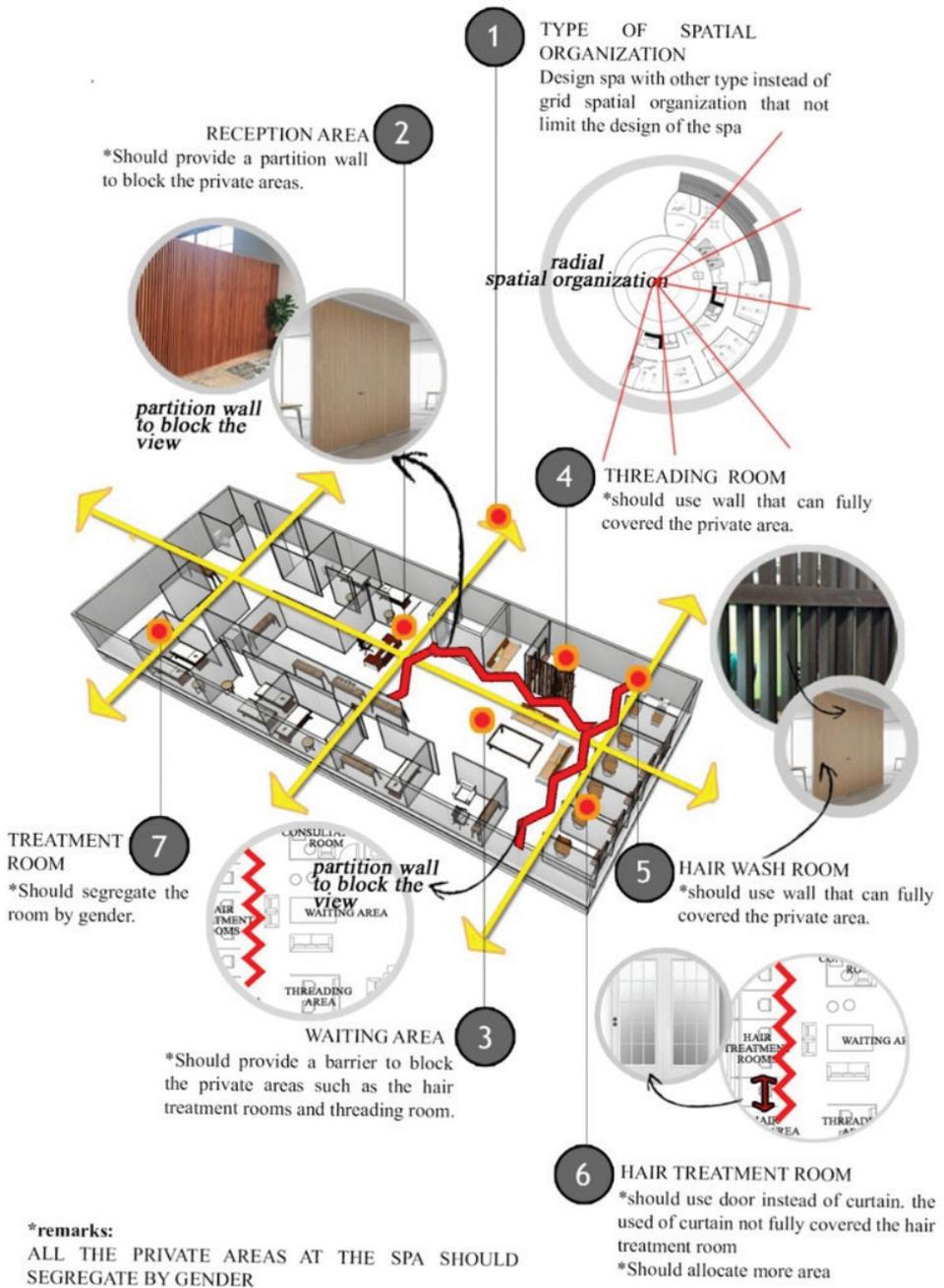


Figure 6. Synthesis for spa components at Ayur-V Spa

Conclusion

A new order of challenges is confronting sustainable development and sustainable tourism that relates to poverty and inequality, food and water security, health and well-being, socio-cultural change, clean energy, biodiversity, resource depletion, and climate change. These are challenges that the tourism industry must continue to address, and would be most effectively addressed through collaborations that reach not only across disciplines, sectors of the economy, levels of government, and communities of policy and practice but also across ethnicity and religion. As stated in SDG 17, a successful sustainable development agenda requires inclusive partnerships built upon principles and values, a shared vision, and shared goals that place people and the planet at the centre. Thus, the spa industry in recognising the economic potential of Halal tourism, ought to transform itself by practising Muslim-friendly approaches in line with SDG 17, which advocates global partnerships for sustainable development.

This study has established that the Muslim-friendly spa design contributes to a unique range of spatial organisation processes such as premises layout, methods of gender segregation, checklist tools for Muslim needs as well as attire and social interaction between hosts and clients that enables its practitioners to address issues related to the needs of Muslims. This study contributes a critical concept or approach as to how a Muslim-friendly design can be used as the foundation to fill a crucial gap in the spa industry, namely that of catering to the needs of Muslim clients as well as facilitating the sustainable transformation of the spa tourism industry. There is still a vital need to further investigate the potential of fully utilising and commercialising the Halal services and products of Muslim-friendly spas that conform to both Shariah requirements and the hygiene, sanitation, purification, and safety aspects, especially in the Halal market.

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Conceptual Paper

Role of Knowledge Management in Healthcare Systems to Combat the COVID-19 Pandemic

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Abstract: Knowledge management is a process by which knowledge is created, shared and used. If knowledge and information were shared timely and used globally, it could have prevented the loss of so many lives and economy downturn caused by COVID-19. This is where knowledge management comes into play, by delivering accurate and real-time information to safeguard against future pandemics and healthcare crises. The United Nations has identified 17 Sustainable Development Goals, whereby goal 3 (SDG3) pertains to general health and well-being. In the current pandemic, SDG3 has come under severe onslaught and would require concerted efforts on the part of the healthcare community to overcome the crisis and strive towards the goal of sustainable health. This paper identifies the need for knowledge management (KM) and how knowledge management technologies which have provided great benefits to other businesses can be utilised to mitigate the pandemic impacts. The content analysis method was adopted as part of the research methodology since data pertaining to knowledge management in healthcare, especially in combating COVID-19, is very limited and requires verification for authenticity. Key terms such as “knowledge management in healthcare”, “knowledge management tools”, “knowledge management in COVID-19” were used to identify the level of knowledge management currently being applied in healthcare systems and how various knowledge management tools can be effectively utilised by healthcare professionals. The findings of the study suggest that there is a lack of knowledge management in the global healthcare system and discuss the resulting implications in managing the COVID-19 pandemic to some extent.

Keywords: COVID-19, knowledge management, public health, risk management, SDG3, tourism

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Introduction

COVID-19 is caused by a member of coronaviruses that uses animal hosts to multiply but has managed to jump to human beings. This particular virus has proven to be quite formidable due to its exponential infection rate, subjecting the entire humanity to grave vulnerability. With nearly 208 million infected cases and 4.37 million deaths globally to date (WHO, 2020), COVID-19 has far outnumbered severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) that originated in China under similar circumstances. This pandemic that originated from China has reached distant places, with United States recording the highest death toll in history after the world wars. One of the biggest question that has been raised is how the virus that originated in Asia reached all corners of the world, except Antarctica. There is a glaring gap in communication and knowledge sharing vis-a-vis this pandemic that is unmatched in its severity and global reach.

The United Nations (UN) has identified 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) as part of its initiative for the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The SDGs are a blueprint to achieve a better and more sustainable future for all, be it developed or developing country. The SDGs address global challenges such as poverty, clean environment, good health and well-being, quality education, gender equality, clean water and sanitation etc. The main focus of this article is on goal number 3 (SDG3), that is, good health and well-being, which is being challenged immensely by COVID-19.

COVID-19 is by far the biggest challenge to the global healthcare system, as prior to COVID-19, UN had made major progress in improving the lives of millions of people around the world by increasing life expectancy and reducing some of the common killers that are associated with child and maternal mortality, especially in less privileged communities such as those in the African region. UN's SDG3 strives to transform the world and focus on every aspect of human wellbeing. Some of the targets highlighted under SDG3 are strengthening the capacity of all countries, in particular developing countries, for early warning, risk reduction and management of national and global health risks; supporting the research and development of vaccines and medicines for communicable and non-communicable diseases that primarily affect developing countries and providing access to affordable essential medicines and vaccines.

UN expects that in the year 2030, it will be the end of epidemics such as AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria and neglected tropical diseases, hepatitis, water-borne diseases, and other communicable diseases, etc. This endeavour, however, has come under severe threat due to advent of the COVID-19 pandemic, which took the world by storm and created havoc on the global healthcare system. In collaboration with UN, a number of global healthcare research facilities and pharmaceutical corporations, have developed vaccines that have been effective in providing immunity to global

citizens; yet the effects of the pandemic has been far-reaching even as vaccination programmes are well underway.

Booming economies around the world took a major hit with the outbreak of COVID-19 where millions lost their jobs especially in the United States (US) which came into spotlight as the worst affected region. According to the Federation of American Scientists (FAS) (2020), more than 40.8 million Americans filed for unemployment insurance from mid-March to late May 2020. On May 8, 2020, the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) reported that 20 million Americans lost their jobs in April 2020, pushing the total number of unemployed Americans to 23 million (2020). In Europe, over 30 million people in Germany, France, the UK, Spain, and Italy have applied for state support of their wages. Further, foreign investors have pulled an estimated \$26 billion out of developing Asian economies.

The tourism industry is the worst hit sector with mass cancellation of flights and hotel bookings resulting in massive revenue losses for tourism business. In fact, the rapid spread of infections beyond the borders of China could be attributed to the different forms of tourism (conventional tourism, educational tourism) and the booming international trade and commerce. According to United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2020), international tourism was down by 22% in Q1 2020 and could decline by 60-80% over the whole year. In fact, 67 million fewer international tourists up to March 2020 translates into USD 80 billion in lost earnings. However, the domestic tourism is expected to pick up faster than international tourism due to the current travel restrictions in place. International tourism which almost came to a complete stop at the beginning of the pandemic is expected to rise again from Oct – Dec 2020, outperforming the demand for domestic travel by 9% and is likely to continue to rise steeply by 2021 with a fair margin of 24% (UNWTO, 2020).

Nevertheless, the global healthcare system has taken a heavy toll with the rising number of infected cases and deaths. There continues to be a shortage of protective equipment and medical supplies such as hand sanitizers, masks, ventilators, and protective body suits for those directly handling infected patients, and shortage of healthcare workers and hospital beds. Many healthcare professionals even succumbed to the virus as infections spread from patients to the medical professionals who treated them. At the beginning of the pandemic, one must ask the most important question, that is, how the virus spread so rapidly and to regions where it was not even expected. It can be presumed that a lack of knowledge management practices led to ignorance and the spread of COVID-19 to a pandemic level rather than being confined to the borders of China.

The global spread of COVID-19 might have been halted if proper and most importantly, timely sharing of knowledge had been made possible from China to the rest of the world. Immediate sealing off international borders and restricting the

movement of tourists could have saved many lives and economies. Initially, global citizens took the outbreak casually, dismissing its severity and treating it as just another flu; the most glaring case being Brazil. Many countries continued to allow free flow of tourists from affected places and this escalated into a global pandemic. It is evident now that symptoms of COVID-19 do not appear in a short period of time, but rather takes approximately two weeks (Linan, 2020). The delayed symptoms resulted in countries allowing entry to domestic and international travellers, including those carrying the deadly coronavirus.

Some countries, however, such as Malaysia, South Korea, Taiwan and Philippines acted swiftly and, thus, managed to limit death rates compared to their western counterparts. The deployment of law enforcement at various strategic entry checkpoints and cooperation of citizens proved effective in controlling the outbreak. Daily essentials and food made available through supermarkets, takeaway food outlets, home delivery food services, and other local stores ensured that the quarantined public never ran out of supplies. It should be noted that the aforementioned Asian countries and others have something in common; they have undergone the SARS epidemic in 2003 and thus, have acquired the necessary knowledge and experience to manage a viral pandemic if it happens in the future (Penn, 2020).

Literature Review

Knowledge management is defined as the process by which knowledge is created, shared, and used (De Brun, 2005). The concept of knowledge management came into existence in the early 1990s. Although the principles of knowledge management have been long practised, it was only in the 1980s that its “official” term was coined by Peter Drucker.

Healthcare is a knowledge-driven process and thus knowledge management and the tools to manage knowledge in the healthcare sector has been rapidly gaining attention. Shahmoradi, Safadari, and Jimma (2017) reviewed the utilisation of knowledge management and its tools in healthcare for informed decision-making. The authors were able to successfully conclude the importance of knowledge management in healthcare by proving how its tools and systems have significantly improved the quality and safety of care provided for patients in both hospital and home settings.

According to Hongsermeier et al. (2011), technology plays a vital role in knowledge management by facilitating knowledge flow through its life cycle and realising it through the implementation of the knowledge management system. Knowledge management can assist in reducing medical errors, and consequently the resulting cost, by supporting the decision-making process for practitioners (Abidi, 2001). Case-based reasoning and/or rule-based reasoning can be used to attain this aim (Montani & Bellazzi, 2002).

Another important factor that makes knowledge management imperative for the healthcare sector is cost reduction. In fact, knowledge management adoption

in healthcare was instigated by the high cost of medical errors. However, the extent to which knowledge management will continue to represent a definite advantage in this context has yet to be extensively explored. Knowledge management practices enable better and more informed decisions, especially when decision-makers in organisations experience information overload or lack the needed knowledge.

Nevertheless, knowledge management in the healthcare system is not easy, as there are many challenges and barriers in managing healthcare data. For one, it involves various partners from diverse domains such as pathology, surgery, radiology, digital technology and even social workers that would need to collaborate to form an ecosystem to address and solve various complex medical issues such as COVID-19 (Anderson & McDaniel, 2000; Orr & Sankaran, 2007; Reinhardt, Hussey, & Anderson, 2004).

Another study by Dwivedi, Bali, and Naguib (2005) confirmed that knowledge management as a paradigm in healthcare is relatively new and there has been minimal research in this discipline. Some researchers such as Lathlean and Le May (2002) as well as Gabbay and Le May (2004) have also highlighted the importance of knowledge sharing among communities of practice (COPs), where clinical knowledge can be shared between different healthcare professionals (doctors, nurses, technicians etc.), thereby increasing their tacit knowledge base.

One of the most common knowledge management systems used in the healthcare is Electronic Medical Records (EMR), where medical records of a patient are stored and retrieved in digital/electronic formats. The medical records act as a repository of the physician's observations and analysis of the patient (Hersh, 1995). The main aim of EMR is to store a patient's healthcare information throughout his/her lifetime and then use that information to support continued care, education and research while maintaining confidentiality at all times. However, some physicians have cast their reservations about the effect of EMR on "privacy, patient safety, provider/patient relations, staff anxiety, time factors, quality of care, finances, efficiency, and liability" (Ludwick & Doucette, 2009). As such, a better alternative to EMR is Clinical Decision Support System (CDSS), which is a system that provides healthcare professionals with patient-specific assessments or recommendations to aid clinical decision-making (Kawamoto, Houlihan, Balas, & Lobach, 2005). The CDSS is able to provide healthcare professionals with clinical guidelines to specific problems, computer-assisted diagnosis using inference cases, drug dosing and prescription.

In summary, the literature review suggests that knowledge management is one of the most important tools that can contribute to the success of healthcare systems, especially at a time when quick and accurate information is required to prevent outbreaks of a deadly nature such as COVID-19. The literature review also illustrates enough examples where knowledge management application is lacking in the healthcare sector.

Materials and Methods

This study conducted a review of sources such as journals, websites, articles and reports related to COVID-19. Content analysis is a research tool to determine the presence of certain words, themes, or concepts within some given qualitative data (i.e., text). Using content analysis, the researchers quantified and analysed the presence, meaning and relationships of selected words/themes/concepts, i.e. “coronavirus”, “COVID-19”, “nCOV”, “knowledge management”, “knowledge management in healthcare”, “healthcare knowledge management”, “knowledge management to combat coronavirus”, “United Nations SDG”, “SDG3” within some selected qualitative data.

This is a novel approach designed for this study since the pandemic is relatively new and still developing as we speak, and there is a paucity of assessments of the pandemic’s impacts. The content analysis was supplemented by a conceptual analysis of the real problem and formulating measures that can be taken to address them. While more in-depth studies are being carried out, it was considered urgent to bring some issues into the general domain of knowledge. A systems approach was followed in this study to blend public health knowledge and economic stakes into concepts and relations that provide a logical understanding for policy support.

Results and Discussion

As mentioned earlier, the SDG3’s focus on good health and well-being aims to end epidemics of AIDS, tuberculosis and other diseases. This goal also aims to strengthen the capacity of all countries, in particular developing countries, for early warning, risk reduction and management of national and global health risks. However, at this moment, the rampant extent of the COVID-19 pandemic with 208 million confirmed cases and 4.37 million deaths involving 224 countries, areas, or territories has had a major devastating impact on the global healthcare system (WHO, 2020).

Furthermore, with unemployment exceeding more than 20 million, many Americans have lost employer-sponsored insurance (Blumenthal, Fowler, Abrams, & Collins, 2020).

Most of the healthcare budget reserved by nations, is being spent on tackling COVID-19. Such is the case of Malaysia, where the annual budget to the Health Ministry increased from MYR30.6 billion to 31.9 billion, which is only an increase of 4.3% year-on-year. This greatly undermines the ability to deliver the much-needed COVID and non-COVID care (Babulal & Krishnan, 2020). Similarly, India allocated USD 30.2 billion, to help improve health systems to vaccinate its 1.3 billion population (“India doubles healthcare”, 2021).

The pandemic is a wake-up call for everyone; especially for the healthcare sector and UN, which failed to provide relevant knowledge to the right people at the right

time. The current death toll exceeding 4 million people and infected cases nearing 209 million show the devastating impact of COVID-19 across the world. If only timely information and knowledge had been shared leading to appropriate action being taken, the huge loss of lives, business, and the widespread mental trauma due to lockdowns could have been prevented.

Many countries kept their borders open for tourists and businesspeople, especially from China, not realizing the gravity of the situation that might arise in their country due to the deadly coronavirus. If only healthcare professionals in China and other neighbouring affected countries had shared knowledge about the actions that were required to control the pandemic, then the pandemic epicentre might not have shifted from China to faraway continents. Further, the situation today could have been different if tourist mobility from and to COVID-19 affected regions, such as China, South Korea, Hong Kong etc. had been halted immediately at the onset of the outbreak.

The solution to this problem lies in developing a digital knowledge management platform using software and network-based technologies. This digital platform can be a web-based system or mobile phone-based application. However, it would be easier to access a mobile application with just one click rather than a web-based system. This knowledge management platform can be accessed by any healthcare professional, directly or indirectly involved in the handling of COVID-19 cases and can share new knowledge that is generated in real-time while combating this viral pandemic. Vital statistics and knowledge can also be shared globally which would help healthcare professionals not to reinvent the wheel to save time and money. The time factor during a pandemic is especially crucial as many lives could be saved by an early warning system.

Knowledge management should be implemented thoroughly and throughout the global healthcare system, starting from the most developed healthcare systems in countries like United States, Europe, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan, etc. to underdeveloped and developing countries.

Going digital is the new norm, especially when it comes to sharing critically important data. As discussed in the literature earlier, the spread of the coronavirus could have been stopped and causalities could have been reduced to a great extent if timely information and knowledge had been shared globally, especially amongst healthcare professionals dealing with patients directly by using knowledge sharing platforms and systems. The digital platform can utilise hardware, software and network capabilities to share information and knowledge between end users.

Such a digital platform can also help share knowledge among healthcare professionals who are busy treating COVID-19 patients in remote areas. Information on how the Chinese doctors and other medical professionals dealt with the outbreak could have been shared with the rest of the world via a digital platform. Technology

giants such as Google, Microsoft, Huawei, IBM, and Dell can combine their technological prowess to help build this digital system to combat this deadly virus, in addition to the various vaccines developed and manufactured to break the infection cycle and contain the pandemic.

In this regard, there are already some tools in the market such as Asana, Trello, Basecamp, Slack, which are available as web-based systems and mobile applications that can be used for collaboration, idea management, issue management and simple messaging. Such readymade tools save time and effort when urgent action is required. A centralised system that is accessible to healthcare professionals globally is vital in combating the spread of COVID-19. While technology cannot prevent a disease, it can be used to create awareness among people. For instance, information kiosks can be installed at hospitals as knowledge sharing platforms to handle certain procedures and speed up treatments that are otherwise time-consuming and costly.

Conclusion

If UN was to achieve its target of sustainability and SDG3, it has to put in place proper knowledge management tools, technology, and framework in order to contain the COVID-19 pandemic as well as prevent similar pandemics in the future. Thus, UN needs to collaborate with top global healthcare teams to identify the appropriate knowledge management system to help manage any future outbreaks of unfamiliar nature that might potentially escalate into a pandemic and disrupt the global healthcare system in their endeavours to attain good health and well-being for the global population.

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Empirical Paper

Do Satisfaction, Service Quality, Value and Number of Previous Trips influence Ecotourists' Destination Loyalty?

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Abstract: This paper highlights the influence of a selection of destination loyalty factors within the context of Malaysia ecotourism. An on-site assisted survey was used to obtain the required data. Feedback from 813 complete responses were analysed using structural equation model (SEM) to test the study's hypotheses. The results have provided empirical support only for the influence of satisfaction on ecotourism destination loyalty. Other proposed hypotheses remain unsupported. The paper concludes that even in the context of ecotourism in a developing country, satisfaction has to exist in order for perceived quality to affect destination loyalty. The paper ends by discussing the implications of the findings especially from the managerial point of view.

Keywords: Antecedents, destination image, destination loyalty, ecotourism, number of previous trips, perceived service quality, perceived value, satisfaction

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Introduction

This paper indirectly relates to SDG12's Responsible Consumption and Production because ecotourism is a form of responsible tourism that promotes environmental and economic contributions towards an ecotourism destination. It is a development goal that urges us to minimise our ecological footprint by choosing sustainable alternatives in our daily lives (United Nations Development Program [UNDP], 2021). Ecotourism has always been thought of as a good tool to promote conservation and sustainable practices particularly in developing countries because it advocates economic policies that minimise net consumption and damage to natural resources (Science Encyclopedia, 2021). It is also a tool for enhancing the stakeholder collaboration network (Mondino & Beery, 2019), which is fundamental in sustainable development. Hence, even though there are criticisms of ecotourism as a sustainable form of tourism (for example by Leitheiser, 2019), elevating ecotourism as product is crucial and this can be done by understanding the tourists' perspectives better (Sitar, May-Collado, & Wright, 2017; Sangpikul, 2020). Ecotourists or consumers of ecotourism are good targets of ecotourism marketing and hence need to be understood. However, focus on understanding the ecotourist market is still scarce in the literature because most studies on tourist satisfaction, perceived service quality, perceived value and destination loyalty are conducted within the context of general tourism. Hence the need to better understand ecotourists is clear if we were to promote responsible consumption and production in tourism. This paper contributes towards this need by studying the ecotourist market within the context of ecotourism in a developing country, that is, Malaysia.

Ecotourism is a big contributor to Asia's economic growth (Sangpikul, 2017). In Southeast Asia, the emergence of relatively new tourism destinations (such as Cambodia and Myanmar, which are rich in natural resources that could provide ecotourism opportunities) means that ecotourism is becoming more competitive for countries that are currently offering it in the region. Malaysia is dependent on ecotourism as one of its important sources of tourism income, so much so, that the government had allocated RM5 billion in its Tenth Malaysian Plan 2011–2015 to develop the sector strategically. Unfortunately, despite the allocation, a mismatch between ecotourism promotion and target segments (Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture [MOTAC], 2018) was one of the key issues affecting the Malaysian ecotourism sector. While this is the reality facing the industry of the chosen context, finding guidance to target the potentially loyal ecotourist segment in the academic literature has been difficult. Not much is written on the relationships between important factors such as satisfaction, perceived quality, perceived value and destination image on destination loyalty in the context of nature-based tourism or ecotourism. In fact, most of the discourse on the issue of destination loyalty has been explored only in the context of general tourism.

A mismatch between promotion and the target segment in the Malaysian ecotourism context as mentioned above reveals a lack of understanding of the ecotourists themselves. Such a shortcoming needs to be urgently addressed because along with the rising competitiveness of the ecotourism offerings among countries, the number of ecotourism holidaymakers has also grown a lot faster than holidaymakers of other forms of tourism. In the United States, for example, there were 330,971,689 outdoor recreation visits (a proxy used to evaluate ecotourism participation and development) compared to only 272,623,980 a decade earlier (National Park Service, 2018). This trend underscores the importance of studying the needs and wants of the ecotourists. As Duffy (2002) proposed, ecotourism and conventional tourism share similar market structures. Hence, failure to understand and identify their needs would lead to a less satisfying experience, which may affect their likelihood to return and to recommend to others (Rivera & Croes, 2010). It also means that Chi's (2012) proposition on the importance for marketers to know consumers' choice of destination, destination loyalty and the factors that are likely to influence their destination loyalty, is becoming more valid within the ecotourism context as well. Ecotourism destination marketers need to understand the factors that are likely to influence destination and brand loyalty so that they can properly plan their respective destination's marketing management and service delivery strategies. They also need to understand that encouraging responsible nature travel, environmental conservation and local development will be difficult without the existence of demand.

While the issue of destination loyalty has been extensively studied in the context of conventional tourism, only some studies had focused on the issue of loyalty within the context of ecotourism (for example the work of Rivera & Croes, 2010; Ezebilo, 2014). However, most of the existing ecotourism marketing studies had focused mainly on profiling ecotourists. While profiling has its merits, understanding factors that could lead to loyalty is even more crucial especially in today's competitive ecotourism market. In addition, there has been little attempt at finding empirical evidence on the influence of a set of antecedents of destination loyalty, within the context of an ecotourism destination. In fact, many identified antecedents of destination loyalty had been studied separately.

Thus, in the interest of seeing the "bigger picture", this study attempts to look at the influence of several destination loyalty antecedents simultaneously. It does so in the context of ecotourism since most past studies looked at loyalty antecedent in the context of general tourism. Hence, this study aims to add to the existing knowledge by studying factors that could affect ecotourist loyalty to a destination. Several factors (i.e. satisfaction, quality, value and image) were simultaneously studied to provide a more holistic outlook on what could make ecotourists more loyal to a destination. The researchers believe that such an approach is crucial because compared to studies on a singular factor, studying a number of factors simultaneously could at least offer

better managerial benefits in that it provides ecotourism destination marketers a more comprehensive outlook on their ecotourists. Ultimately, this should enable them to act more strategically and efficiently.

To be clear, even though the context of this study is ecotourism, the study does not attempt to dwell on the social dimension of ecotourism. In other words, the term ecotourism adopted in this study does not focus on aspects such as minimising the negative impact on host local communities and the environment, providing direct financial benefits for the conservation of biological and cultural diversity, providing benefits and empowerment for the local people by providing them with jobs and quotas, giving respect to local traditions, and giving support to movements on human rights and democracy (see Honey, 2008). Instead, it uses a much simpler definition by Cambridge Dictionary that ecotourism is “holidays and travel that involve causing less damage to the environment than usual and that make people aware of the need to protect the environment” (see <https://dictionary.cambridge.org>). In the following sections, the paper will first, present all relevant literature review on the study constructs. Next, it will explain the methodology used for data collection. Then, the findings will be presented and discussed before offering conclusions and recommendations at the end.

Literature Review

Loyalty

As the investment for ecotourism is high, the issue of attractiveness of ecotourism destinations to the intended market has become equally more important to generate the expected returns of investment. In fact, it is no longer enough that tourists simply like a destination. Many destination managers are now aiming for tourists to be loyal to their respective destinations. Loyalty, identified as the strong tendency to give preference towards a certain product or service brand on a consistent basis (Oliver, 1999) is the goal of many product and service providers because loyalty can lead to the repurchasing of the same brand regardless of any external influences. The main objective of understanding loyalty is to know customers better to ensure repeat buying and positive word-of-mouth (WOM) about particular brands and products (Prayag & Ryan, 2012). This is one of the reasons why the study of loyalty proliferates in the academia. The recognition that this concept is a main driver for and a significant indicator of marketing success has driven many tourism authors to focus on the subject matter (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Further, it has been proposed that brand loyalty can lead to cheaper costs to recruit customer, higher sensitivity on customer price and on the costs of servicing. Therefore, tourism researchers have paid attention to the concept of loyalty since more than a decade ago (Chi, 2012; Chi & Qu, 2008; Chi, Gursoy, & Qu, 2009; Mazanec & Strasser, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

Satisfaction

Satisfaction is a frequently examined marketing concept (Alegre & Garau, 2010; Chi & Qu, 2008; Gursoy, McCleary, & Lepsito, 2007; Mason & Nassivera, 2013; Neal & Gursoy, 2008; Song, Veen, Li & Chen, 2012). According to Oppermann (2000) as well as Alegre and Cladera (2006), due to its significant relationship with travellers' destination quality and image perceptions, satisfaction is a necessary prerequisite for a successful tourist destination (Chi, 2012; Song et al.,). More importantly, as Valle, Silva, Mendes, and Guerreiro (2006), Ezebilo (2014) as well as Prayag and Ryan (2012) have proposed, satisfaction is one of the factors influencing loyalty intention. In this regard, the tendency to repurchase and spread good WOM about a product or service is higher among satisfied customers (Chi & Qu 2008). In the same way, a highly satisfying tourism experience would influence a tourist to have stronger intentions to return to and recommend a destination to others, much like customer loyalty to physical products would encourage repeat purchase and positive WOM recommendations (Hawkins, Best, & Coney, 1995). A satisfied tourist would be influenced to select, return and consume products at the same destination (Ozdemir et al., 2012). Satisfaction can also make tourists become less price-sensitive (Chi, 2011; Sun, Chi, & Xu, 2013) and influence a business or organisation's success (Ozdemir et al., 2012). A study by Sapari, Shuib, Ramachandran, and Herman (2000) have found that in the Malaysian context, tourist satisfaction is a function of attraction, climate, culture, price, food, accommodation, overall convenience, and the people. In addition, Mat Som, Marzuki, Yousefi and AbuKhalifeh (2012) proposed factors such as friendliness of the local community and the ability of locals to speak English as influencers of tourist satisfaction. On another note, Khan, Haque and Rahman (2013) who focused on Islamic tourism, found tourist satisfaction to be linked to destination image, religious motivation and service quality.

Satisfaction has also been explored in the context of ecotourism because as Haber and Lerner (1998) contended, understanding satisfaction of ecotourists is essential because it can help highlight product and service quality offered at a particular ecotourism site. Further, measuring ecotourists' satisfaction level can provide useful indicators to design better conservation and management plans (Foster, 1999). Looking at the literature, the findings on factors that could influence ecotourists' satisfaction have been varied. The work of Torres-Sovero, González, Martín-López, and Kirkby (2012) in the Peruvian Amazon showed that lodging characteristics are a primary variable influencing ecotourists' satisfaction level compared to ecological or sociocultural variables. This supports the theory by Ceballos-Lascuráin (1996) that ecotourists usually prefer lodging that has a certain quality despite being located in remote locations with issues of accessibility. In contrast, some studies suggest that lodging characteristics have minimal influence on the satisfaction level of "true" tourists who value biodiversity and nature more than they value lodging characteristics

(see Ceballos-Lascuráin, 2008; Mackoy & Osland, 2004). Elsewhere, Galletly and Hildebrandt (2001) found that ecotourists to the Great Barrier Reef prioritise factors such as crowd, cleanliness, wild encounters with animals, information about the site, staff attitude towards customers and how informative they are. Meanwhile, Lu and Stepchenkova's (2011) study on ecotourists in Costa Rica found that ecotourists value ambiance, eco-friendliness, lodge amenities, room/bathroom décor and layout, room amenities, customer service, tour/tour guide service, food quality, nature-based activities, nature-based attractions, and restaurant service during their stay. They suggested that a satisfactory arrangement and delivery of these attributes will certainly enhance the overall consumption satisfaction of ecotourists.

In the Asian context, a study on a marine park in Malaysia found environmental service quality to be the primary factor affecting tourists' satisfaction toward an ecotourism destination. Salleh, Othman, Sarmidi, Jaafar, and Norghami (2012) maintained that the satisfaction level of tourists, measured using the comparison of expected mean to perceived mean, indicates that environmental service quality (such as presence of an abundant variety of fishes or corals, clean and clear water, unpolluted clean beaches, peacefulness, and untouched fauna and flora) is important. In their case study, the expected value was higher than the perceived value which indicates a need for the improvement of environmental service quality in the marine park. The authors suggested that if the environmental quality service that tourists perceive is higher than what they expect, the satisfaction level might be higher and can lead to loyalty of tourists toward Tioman Island Marine Park.

However, a study in Lampang province, Thailand revealed culture to be the main factor that affects ecotourists satisfaction. Wingwon, Lertpachin, and Meksuwan (2013) found a link between satisfaction and specific cultural attributes such as the variety and uniqueness of cultural performance, art exhibition and the way of life, souvenirs and products. Meanwhile, Ramchurjee (2013) who investigated tourist motivation, experience and satisfaction for an ecotourism initiative in Bagalkot, Karnataka found that ecotourists are motivated by factors such as appreciating nature, relaxing, recreating, as well as seeking nature and environmental knowledge. The study results demonstrated that tourists who are satisfied and have positive experience with their respective ecotours are willing to visit again and may promote the ecotourism destination to others. Meanwhile, Ezebilo (2014) proposed that ecotourists' loyalty is dependent on their post-purchase feelings. Tourists will have the tendency to revisit the same destination if they have positive post-purchase feelings with their trip to an ecotourism destination. To understand the role of satisfaction on loyalty better, the following hypothesis was tested:

H1: Ecotourists' overall Satisfaction can influence their ecotourism Destination Loyalty

Perceived Service Quality

A customer's evaluation of expected service and the actual service is called service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). It reflects what a customer perceives in terms of service standard or quality (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2003) in the service industry. An excellent service quality can bring positive impacts in terms of market share and profit generation. This is especially true in tourism because tourist services are intangible and perishable. Further, good service quality can bolster tourist satisfaction. Therefore, prioritising service quality should be every destination manager's priority. In this regard, managers can improve tourist satisfaction and enhance their loyalty by improving their service (Tian-Cole & Crompton, 2003).

As Baker and Crompton (2000) have emphasised, both service quality and satisfaction has long been discussed in the literature. Both are assumed to have a linear relationship, which in turn will lead to loyalty. Loyalty means that customers will be willing to provide positive verbal endorsements, refer the product/service to others and repetitively buy the product/service. Studies also suggest that in addition to having a direct impact on loyalty, the impact of service quality is likely to be mediated by customer satisfaction. Baker and Crompton (2000) as well as Chi and Qu (2008) for example, have established that customer loyalty is subject to both perceived quality and satisfaction. Similarly, Žabkar, Brencic and Dmitrovic (2010) believed that perceived quality affects loyalty directly and indirectly through satisfaction. It has also been proposed that the influence of service quality on behavioural intentions (including loyalty) can be mediated by satisfaction (see Kashyap & Bojanic, 2000; Murphy, Pritchard, & Smith, 2000; Petrick, Morais, & Norman, 2001). To understand the role of service quality on loyalty better, the following hypothesis was tested:

H2: Ecotourists' Perceived Service Quality could influence their Destination Loyalty

Perceived Value

Zeithaml (1988), Agarwal, and Teas (2001) as well as Bigné Sánchez and Sánchez (2001) defined perceived value as the benefits or outputs attained from using a product or service compared to its purchase price. In other words, perceived value reflects a customer's assessment of benefits and costs associated with a product/service (Hellier, Geursen, Carr, & Rickard, 2003). It forms a basic marketing issue because perceived value can lead to satisfaction and ultimately, loyalty.

In making value assessments, a customer normally looks at two aspects of perceived value: 1) The economic, social and relational benefits received, and 2) The costs paid to attain the product/service. Perceived value plays a major role in the consumer's decision-making process (Velazques, Saura, & Molina, 2011; Zhang &

Mao, 2012). It affects customer's post-purchase behaviour (Parasuraman & Grewal, 2000), that is, the satisfied/dissatisfied feeling a customer/tourist may develop on their purchase decision. According to Gallarza and Saura (2006), perceived value is likely to directly influence customer satisfaction with a product as well as their brand loyalty. This relates to the issue of consumer behaviour in marketing because as many studies (Bojanic, 1996; Chen & Chen, 2010; Lee, Petrick, & Crompton, 2007) suggest, aspects of consumer behaviour can be better understood once perceived value is considered since perceived value can influence satisfaction level. Indeed, consumers' decision-making process have a very strong link with perceived value (Velazquez et al., 2011; Zhang & Mao 2012). Therefore, this study proposes that within the context of ecotourism, travellers' perceptions of quality, their destination satisfaction and their destination loyalty are strongly influenced by their perceptions of value. To understand the role of perceived value on loyalty better, the following hypothesis was tested:

H3: Ecotourists' Perception of Value offered by an ecotourism destination can influence their Destination Loyalty

Destination Image

As one of the most frequently examined topics in tourism literature (Sun et al., 2013), destination image is also likely to have significant impacts on post-trip assessment and future visit intentions (Chen & Tsai, 2007). There are three building blocks of a destination (Hall & O'Sullivan, 1996), that is, tourist's endorsement, a good image, and good governance. Tourist's endorsement refers to the tendency among tourists to spread positive WOM or story to their family, relatives and friends if their visit experience was satisfactory. In addition, the destination's good image, inculcated through good relations with the media in particular, can help influence potential tourists' decision-making. Finally, good policies and proper implementation of these policies will ensure that the destination lives up to its image and help provide tourists a satisfactory experience from their visits. As Chi (2012) recommended, destination image management is crucial as it could influence their future destination selection and decision-making.

Past studies (such as Castro, Armario, & Ruiz, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Chi, 2011) suggest that tourists' subjective evaluation about a destination, their destination choice and consequent behaviour tend to be influenced by destination image. Chen and Tsai (2007) as well as Chi and Qu (2008) contended that destinations with positive images tend to be selected as the destination of choice by vacationers because the positive image influences tourists to assume that the destination's products and services will be of high value as well. This demonstrates the positive links between image and satisfaction, as well as between image and quality. However, Chi (2012)

as well as Nicoletta and Servidio (2012) cautioned that the actual experience at the destination still affects the link between image, tourist satisfaction and their post-trip behaviour/assessment. Meanwhile, the link between image and perceived value proposed by Mahasuweerachai and Qu (2011) is less certain due to the contradicting findings of Andreassen and Lindestad (1998) who found that the impact of image on value is moderated by the perceived quality discovered.

A tourist attraction needs to have good destination image because this factor could bring more tourists to the destination (Hsu & Lam, 2003). Destination image is defined as the collective beliefs, ideas, or impressions that a tourist holds about a destination (see Crompton, 1979). The literature has divided these beliefs, ideas and impressions into two dimensions, that is, cognitive and affective. The cognitive component consists of beliefs and knowledge of a destination's physical attributes, while the affective component consists of feelings towards the destination attributes (Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2006). Factors such as destination choice, selection of on-site activities and visit pull factors are strongly influenced by destination image. Thus, a destination's positive and favourable image could indeed enhance a tourist's decision to visit (Laws, Scott, & Parfitt, 2002; O'Leary & Deegan, 2005).

It is common agreement that destination image also influences the behavioural intentions of tourists (Castro et al., 2007; Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Chen & Tsai, 2007). Mahasuweerachai and Qu (2011), for example, proposed that destination image could positively influence visitor revisit intention. Image could also impact customer satisfaction, and loyalty in the service context (Andreassen & Lindestad, 1998). In contrast, Castro et al. (2007) found that the influence of destination image on loyalty is likely to be moderated by service quality and/or tourist satisfaction. Since there is still a lack of certainty on the matter, this study proposes that even in the ecotourism context, destination image is likely to have a significant impact on quality, satisfaction, and destination loyalty. Therefore, the following hypothesis was tested:

H4: Ecotourists' Destination Image can influence their ecotourism Destination Loyalty.

Number of Previous Trips

The number of previous visits to a destination is one of the most commonly examined factors that is likely to influence a traveller's decision-making and destination selection process (Bruwer & Thach, 2013; Gursoy & McCleary, 2004a, 2004b). Fodness and Murray (1999) also suggested that in the case of routine problem-solving, travel decisions are made quickly and with little apparent effort due to the fact that for routine trips such as weekend trips to a nearby park or a recreation area or periodic visits to family and friends, pre-purchase information search probably is not necessary if previous visits had provided an adequate basis for decision-making.

The influence of previous visits on the decision-making process and destination selection behaviour can be explained by the cognitive development theory. The theory suggests that as consumers gain experiences through previous visits, they also gain knowledge about a given destination or activities and their internal cognitive representations of the destinations or settings become more complex (Williams, Schreyer, & Knopf, 1990). Therefore, a traveller's familiarity and expertise with a destination is likely to increase as the number of previous visits to a destination increases (Park, Nicolau, & Fesenmaier, 2013). Previous visits are also likely to influence the utilisation of memory because, to a certain degree, they are likely to determine the amount and type of internal information available to an individual when making destination choices (Park et al., 2013). Also, as the number of previous visits and experience increase, a traveller is likely to develop more complex cognitive structures of the product/destination (Gursoy, 2011a).

Kim, Scott, and Crompton (1997) suggested that previous visits are likely to influence one's level of involvement with a product category and activities. Similarly, as the number of previous visits of a traveller to a specific destination increases, the traveller is more likely to be involved with that destination compared to a traveller with fewer or no previous visits. As the level of involvement increases, a traveller is more likely to pay attention to any incoming information about the destination because high involvement means (approximately) personal relevance and importance. People tend to pay greater attention to forthcoming information about something that has personal relevance and high importance to them (Perera & Vlosky, 2013). Based on the preceding discussion, this study proposes that previous visits are likely to influence a traveller's involvement, destination knowledge, information search behaviour, destination image, and loyalty. Therefore, the following hypothesis was tested:

H5: Ecotourists' Number of Previous Trips can influence their ecotourism Destination Loyalty.

Materials and Methods

Due to the lack of a recognised and relevant published survey instrument that considers all the antecedents required in this study, the instrument to study the influence of satisfaction, service quality, value and destination image on destination loyalty was developed following the procedures recommended by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (1991) for developing a standardised survey instrument. The procedures involved: 1) Focus group interviews with ecotourists and industry professionals to establish an item pool that is based on both the relevant literature as well as travellers and industry experts. This is an important step because, since there is no established instrument that could easily be adopted for the study, feedback from the participants helped the researchers develop a relevant item pool to be used for their questionnaire.

Industry professionals were recruited by formally contacting them to solicit their participation while ecotourists were the researchers' local and international friends who had frequented an ecotourism destination in Malaysia. Issues of content validity of the items' clarity, readability, and content validity were addressed at this stage; 2) Back-to-back translation to Mandarin and instrument pre-test on a sample of travellers; and 3) Revision of the instrument.

The final instrument was used to collect data in: 1) Sabah; 2) Pahang (Taman Negara); 3) Perak (Belum National Park) and 4) Penang (Penang National Park). Aiming for a 95% accuracy at a confidence interval of ± 4 , the target sample required was 1,721. The final sample consisted of 813 completed responses, which gives the study a response rate of 47%. This was accepted as fulfilling the rough rule of thumb of 200 responses for structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis (Great Brook, 2000). In fact, according to Wolf, Harrington, Clark, and Miller (2013), the sample size for SEM can range from 30 (Simple confirmatory factor analysis [CFA] with four indicators and loadings around .80) up to 450 cases (mediation models) depending on the power, bias and solution propriety that a researcher aims for.

The data analysis began with descriptive statistics and demographic profiling of the respondents. Next, a four-step procedure was used to assess ecotourists' destination loyalty to Malaysian ecotourism destinations and the influencing factors. The four steps included:

- Determining the underlying constructs measuring ecotourists' destination loyalty to Malaysian ecotourism destinations and the influencing factors using an exploratory factor analysis (EFA);
- Using Cronbach reliability to determine ecotourists' destination loyalty to Malaysian ecotourism destinations and the influencing factors;
- Determining the underlying constructs measuring the ecotourists' destination loyalty to Malaysian ecotourism destinations and the influencing factors using CFA; and
- Proposing a theoretical model to examine the ecotourists' destination loyalty to Malaysian ecotourism destinations.

Two randomly selected sub-samples were formed from the main sample. Scale dimensionality was detected via EFA with a principal component method with varimax rotation. This was accomplished using the first sub-sample (henceforth referred to as Sample One). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were performed to determine the appropriateness of the factor analysis. As Tabachnick and Fidell (1989) proposed, a value of 0.60 or above from the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy test indicates that the data are adequate for EFA. For Bartlett's test of sphericity, to ensure that each factor identified by EFA has only one dimension and each attribute loaded only on one factor (see Hattie 1985), attributes that had factor loadings of lower than 0.40

and attributes loading on more than one factor with a loading score of equal to or greater than 0.40 on each factor was eliminated.

To evaluate the reliability of each measurement scale (Zaichkowsky, 1985) using the first sub-sample, a Cronbach's Alpha reliability test was applied, followed by CFA using the second sub-sample. Then, in line with Jöreskog's (1971) proposition, the chi-square (χ^2) statistics and associated P values were examined to determine the fit of the measurement model. Even though some researchers also utilise other fit indices in addition to a χ^2 test because of the problems associated with the test (Hu & Bentler 1995), the chi-square (χ^2) statistics and associated P values test is seen as the most objective method of testing the fit of a confirmatory model. A SEM approach was then used to examine the theoretical model on the influence of the selected antecedents on ecotourists' destination loyalty to Malaysian ecotourism destinations.

Results and Discussion

To test the relationship among the selected variables, the SEM included and presented 56 variables, 29 exogenous variables, 27 endogenous variables and 60 estimated parameters in the model. The model fit results indicated a good fit to the sample data which satisfies their relative recommended thresholds. While MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara (1996) have used 0.01, 0.05, and 0.08 to indicate excellent, good, and mediocre fit, respectively; for other researchers, reasonable rules of thumb for Normed Fit Index (NFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Goodness fit index (GFI) are greater than 0.9. As shown in Figure 1 as well as in Table 1, all of the fit indices values except for NFI (NFI = 0.890) proved to be more than satisfactory. The proposed model is assumed to have achieved good fit indices because (NFI) should not be recommended as it is affected by the number of parameters (Kenny & McCoach, 2003; Kenny, Kaniskan, & McCoach, 2015).

Table 1. Goodness-of-Fit results of second order confirmatory factor analysis

Goodness-of-Fit Indices	Value
Chi-square	465.584
Degree of Freedom (<i>df</i>)	235
Normed Chi Square (χ^2/df)	1.961
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	0.913
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.919
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	0.905
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.049
Sig. (<i>p</i>)	0.000

STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL SPECIFICATION OF TOURIST LOYALTY

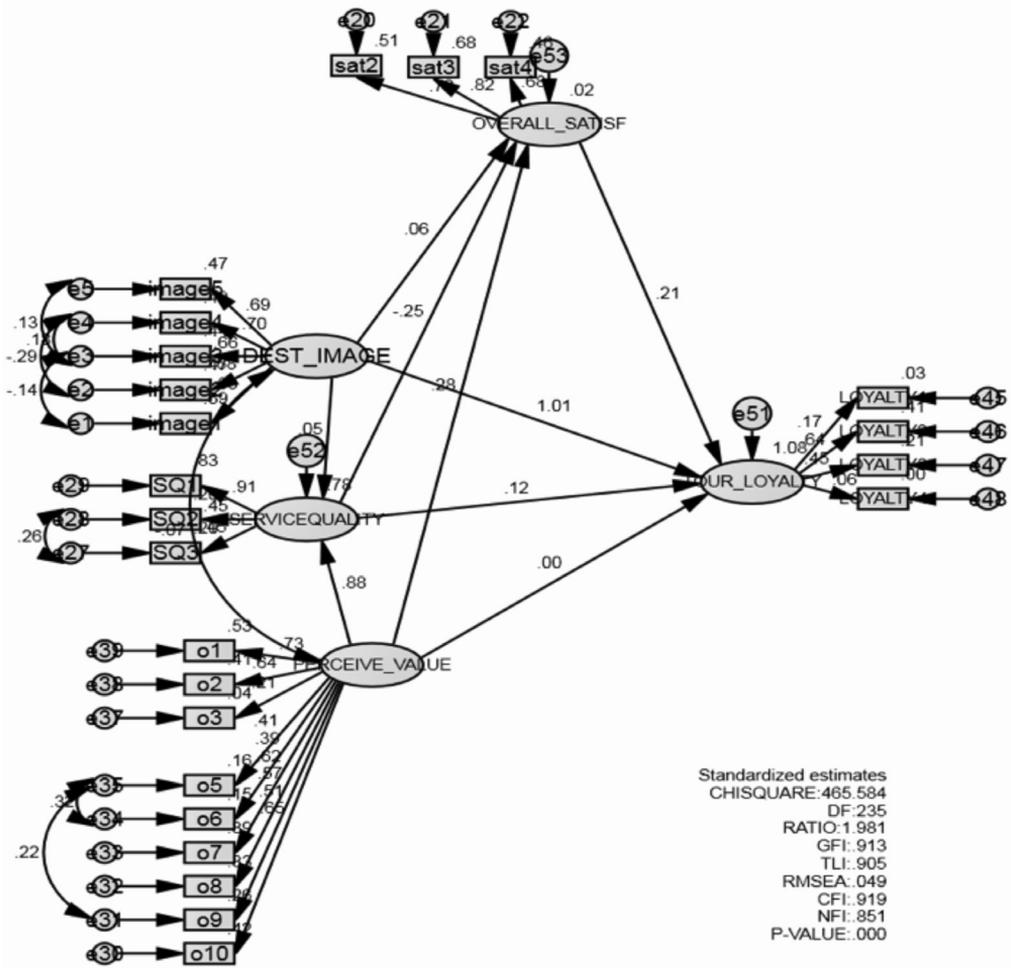


Figure 1. Structural equation modelling of tourist destination loyalty

Hypotheses Testing

The SEM tested five major null hypotheses. The results of all the hypothesised relationships and the results of variance estimation of CFA are summarised in Tables 2 and 3.

Table 2. Regression weight of the structural model

	Variables	Estimate	CR	Sig.
Loyalty ($R^2=0.45$)	Overall Satisfaction	.118	3.223	.001
	Overall Perception of Service Quality	.189	3.828	.000
	Perceived Value	.213	3.449	.000
	Destination Image	.168	2.459	.014
	No. of Previous Trip	-.009	-.260	.795

CR= Critical Ratio

Table 3. Hypothesis testing results

Hypotheses	Results
H1: Ecotourists' overall Satisfaction can influence their ecotourism Destination Loyalty	Supported
H2: Ecotourists' Perceived Service Quality can influence their Destination Loyalty	Supported
H3: Ecotourists' Perception of Value offered by an ecotourism destination can influence their Destination Loyalty	Supported
H4: Ecotourists' Destination Image can influence their Destination Loyalty	Supported
H5: Ecotourists' Number of Previous Trips can influence their ecotourism destination loyalty.	Not supported

The study's mixed results essentially enhances or amends its theoretical foundation. For example, H1 which posits that ecotourists' overall satisfaction can influence their destination loyalty is supported. This means the study provides empirical support to proposals by Valle et al. (2006), Prayang and Ryan (2012) as well as Ozdemir et al. (2012) that satisfaction is a major influencer of destination loyalty. This technically accentuates the contention that even in the context of a developing country's ecotourism offerings, satisfaction has to exist in order for destination loyalty to form (see Cole & Illum, 2006; Chen & Tsai, 2007). Meanwhile, the path analysis proves that ecotourists' overall perception of service quality has a positive influence on destination loyalty as the variable. Hence, this aligns with past studies' (such as Baker & Crompton, 2000; Chi & Qu, 2008; Zabkar et al., 2010) contention that service quality has a positive influence on loyalty.

Next, the hypothesis that ecotourists' perception of value can influence destination loyalty (hypothesis H3) is also supported ($B = 0.000$, $CR = -0.009$, $p > 0.05$ and $B = 0.211$, $CR = 1.332$, $p > 0.05$ respectively). This shows that the findings

corroborate past studies that contended perceived value has a commanding influence in the consumers' decision-making process (Velazquez et al., 2011; Zhang & Mao 2012) and tourists' brand loyalty (Chen & Chen, 2010).

The results of hypothesis H4 on the effect of destination image on destination loyalty has proven that the hypothesis can be supported ($B = 0.254$, $CR = 3.255$, $p < 0.01$). The result is consistent with the contention that destination image is likely to significantly influence future behavioural intentions such as loyalty (Chen & Tsai, 2007). Lastly, for the hypothesis on the influence of number of previous trips on destination loyalty, the findings demonstrate that there is no link between IV and DV ($B = -0.09$, $CR = -260$, $p < 0.795$).

Study Implications

From the theoretical perspective, this study has provided empirical support to several past postulations: 1) The influence of satisfaction on loyalty; 2) The influence of destination image on loyalty; and 3) The influence of perceived value on perceived service quality on loyalty. It accentuates the fact that even in the ecotourism context, of a developing country, tourist satisfaction, perception and image can influence their tendency to be loyal to the destination. However, the frequency of visits to an ecotourism destination does not ensure or indicate loyalty to a destination.

For the industry itself, the findings empirically prove the need to pay attention to ecotourists' on-site experience so that ecotourists will feel good and happy. It essentially supports Ezebilo's (2014) contention that taking care of ecotourists' post-purchase feelings is very important as tourists with positive post-purchase feelings are more likely to revisit. Even though the importance of satisfaction is not new in the context of general tourism, the implication of this finding in the context of ecotourism could be different in terms of what to focus on to keep ecotourists happy and satisfied with their experiences. In other words, since ecotourists value biodiversity and nature more (Ceballos-Lascuráin, 2008; Mackoy & Osland, 2004), this essentially means paying attention to aspects such as uniqueness, range and diversity of species available at the destination and the overall ecological balance that the destination manages to exhibit. Ensuring satisfaction in the context of ecotourism also means paying attention to the destination's environmental service quality (Salleh et al., 2012) or culture (Wingwon et al., 2013), which has been found to be the key factor of ecotourists' satisfaction.

Apart from taking care of ecotourists' experiential satisfaction, ecotourism managers also need to focus on keeping a positive and desirable image of their destination in terms of other attributes. As highlighted in this study, attributes such as accommodation cleanliness and hygiene, skills and knowledge of the tour guides and rangers on duty, and fundamentals such as tasty food, comfortable beddings etc. are very important to ecotourists. Ensuring a good image of these attributes in

ecotourists' minds could significantly influence their post-trip assessments (Chen & Tsai, 2007). In addition, related products and services such as lodging characteristics (Torres-Socero et al., 2012), the landscape, the uniqueness of the local culture and the educational aspects of the programmes (Bowen, 1999; Mackoy & Osland, 2004) should match the quality standard that the ecotourists had imagined and expected to receive from visiting the destination.

Overall, the findings of this study could contribute to the call by past researchers such as Sitar et al. (2017) and Sangpikul (2020) for us to elevate ecotourism as a tourism product. The insightful findings help us better understand the ecotourists' perspectives. As ecotourists or consumers of ecotourism products are good targets of ecotourism marketing, the need for this segment to be understood is hereby addressed.

Conclusion

This paper has described the researchers' endeavour to understand the role of satisfaction, quality, value, and destination image on loyalty towards ecotourism destinations. It has also offered several theoretical and managerial implications of the findings. While the results may not be generalisable due to the cross-sectional nature of the data, they may still have some relevance to similar contexts, that is, ecotourism destinations in other developing tropical countries. A continuous effort to understand ecotourism destination loyalty is therefore crucial, particularly within the under-researched context of ecotourism in a developing country since the promotion of ecotourism as an attraction complies with SDG12's emphasis on sustainable consumption and production.

As this study has shown mixed results, future researchers on this topic should attempt to replicate or improve it to find better results. They could improve the methodology by adopting a mix method approach. When triangulated, qualitative data can provide rich meanings to quantitative findings. For example, we will be able to better understand why perceived service quality and perceived value do not have an effect on destination loyalty of ecotourists to ecotourism destinations in Malaysia. This understanding would at least help remind managers to focus on improving the quality of the physical products of their respective destinations (the flora and fauna) to better serve their current and future visitors. Such initiatives would be consistent with the nation's ambition to fulfil the SDG12 agenda and be recognised around the world as a sustainably developed nation. Hence it is imperative that more research should focus on understanding the ecotourist market and its dynamics under different contexts.

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Empirical Paper

Community Empowerment at Gerupuk to Support Tourism Development in Mandalika

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Abstract: Gerupuk is a part of Mandalika which is a tourism destination. Community empowerment at Gerupuk plays an important role in supporting a sustainable tourist destination at Mandalika. There are several driving and inhibiting factors in empowering the local community to develop Gerupuk as an established tourist destination. Using a qualitative approach, the research design was based on a descriptive method. Data were collected through observations, in-depth interviews and desk research. The results demonstrate community empowerment in the development of Gerupuk to support Mandalika as a Super Priority Destination. Community empowerment was carried out through various stages, namely awareness and behavior formation, transformation of community capabilities and expansion of intellectual abilities. This is evidenced by the community and the local government working together to develop tourism attractions at Gerupuk, changes observed in community livelihood and the growth of the community's capacity to think and develop ideas. Nevertheless, some factors such as lack of professional human resources, public mindset, and the absence of maximum promotion impede the development of Gerupuk. In conclusion, the study suggests provision of free workshops on tourism skills, scholarships and social development at Gerupuk by the government to further support the tourism development at Mandalika.

Keywords: Community empowerment, Gerupuk, Mandalika

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Introduction

Lombok is a paradise island located in Indonesia which has many beautiful and authentic tourism destinations. The tourism sector is one of the main sources of economy for Indonesia. While Lombok has been a tourist destination for a long time, its tourism development is not supported by sustainable planning for its socio-culture, nature and environment (sustainable tourism). The tourism sector has direct and indirect impacts on three main aspects of development (triple bottom line) which include: economy, socio-culture and the environment. Sustainable tourism development takes place if all stakeholders are able to maximise the positive impacts and minimise the negative impacts of tourism activities. However, the tourism development in Lombok needs to incorporate sustainability principles that are applicable globally, nationally and locally.

Mandalika is one of the tourist attractions on Lombok Island. Covering an area of 1,035.67 hectares with beautiful natural surroundings, Mandalika was accorded the status of Super Priority Destination by the Indonesian government. Its carrying capacity has been increased as the number tourists from various countries has risen over the years. This tourist destination boasts enchanting marine tourism with stunning beaches and underwater treasures. Mandalika has several residential areas, namely Kuta Beach and Tanjung Aan Beach with white sandy beaches in the bay area with the longest coastline. Mandalika is managed by Indonesia Tourism Development Corporation (ITDC), which was established in 2014 in accordance with Government Regulation No. 52. The development of this tourist destination is mainly focused on the tourism activities. Currently, Mandalika Resorts is in its 1st phase of construction. Upon the acquisition of 1,035.67 ha, the first physical development that was carried out was the construction of a 4-km long road. There are six investors who are building hotels in Mandalika including Novotel, Royal Tulip, Pullman, ClubMed, Westin and Paramount (ITDC, 2019).

The West Nusa Tenggara local government and Central Lombok Regency fully support the ongoing tourism development to uplift the quality of life here in Mandalika. To support the development, some of the facilities and infrastructure that have been developed include the extension of the Lombok International Airport (BIL) runway, the revitalisation of the International Harbour of Lembar and Awang Harbour as well as clean water provision in Kuta and its surroundings. Further, there are plans to build a Big Road from Lombok International Airport (BIL) to the Mandalika Motor GP Circuit Area. This road infrastructure will support the operation of the 2021 GP Motor Event which is estimated to attract 2,800,000 enthusiasts of the sport.

Therefore, community land was acquired through a compensation scheme by ITDC at an estimated cost of IDR 2 trillion (ITDC, 2019). The tourism development here is expected to significantly impact the local development and the

locals will need to prepare mentally and physically to expect large tourist crowds in the next 2–3 years.

The local community's perspective can be somewhat determined based on the quality of their school education or their general knowledge. Most demonstrate a very narrow perspective which affect the communication between the local communities and the government, as well as with other tourism stakeholders. The low education level, low public awareness and high unemployment has contributed to a high crime rate in Mandalika such as pickpocketing, theft of motorbikes as well as theft of tourist properties. Besides that, the occurrence of various conflicts between community groups in Mandalika is also a potential issue that can hinder its development.

There are a number of tourism clusters developed by the local community in some parts of Mandalika. Tourism ventures, such as hotels, tour and travel agencies have spearheaded efforts to empower the local economy through the development of partnerships (IMCT, 2011). Grupuk is one of the tourist destinations in Mandalika. This tourist attraction is expected to positively impact the local community. However, the locals who are lowly educated and poor have no experiences working in the tourism field. Most of them work as fishermen as Gerupuk is a fishing village. Through community participation in potential tourism activities, it is hoped that the crime rate in Mandalika will be reduced. Gerupuk has natural resources and attractions such as beautiful surfing beaches which can be promoted to the international surfing community and used as an asset to develop Gerupuk's tourism. This in turn can help develop other related industries that can provide employment opportunities and avenues for income generation such as hotels, eateries, and tour agencies in the next few years.

An empowerment model encompasses four stages: input, process, output and outcome. The inputs that should be made available are financial institution, facilitator, empowered community, and partner institution. The financial institution serves to make financial capital accessible to the community, particularly the poor ones.

Literature Review

The Concept of Tourist Village

Tourist village is one form of community-based sustainable tourism. The tourist village is a form of tourism, whereby a small group of tourists live in or near traditional villages and learn about the local life, culture and practices (IMTC, 2011).

Concerning the concept of tourist village, its development involves processes that emphasise ways to develop or promote a tourist village. More specifically, the development of tourist villages is defined as efforts to complement and improve tourist facilities to meet the needs of tourists (Rukminto, 2008).

The tourist village, as one form of rural tourism, can positively benefit the development of various resources found in rural areas (Strzelecka & Boley, 2017). These potential tourist attractions can provide an authentic experience to tourists and at the same time, help locals earn extra income. The development of tourist villages can thus be one of the measures to foster local entrepreneurship, diversify tourism products, sustain the local economy, and revitalise the local culture.

With regard to the regional economy, the development of tourist villages is believed to support urbanisation and encourage rural economy. In addition, rural tourism plays an important role in improving the quality of life of rural communities. As one form of alternative tourism, tourist villages can be a potential tool in supporting sustainable development (Suess, Baloglu, & Busser, 2018). Apart from positive impacts, overtourism can also bring negative impacts to the rural environment. These negative impacts include increased pressure or irreversible changes on the environment due to infrastructure development and provision of facilities to support the activities of tourist villages (Strzelecka & Boley, 2017).

Community Empowerment

Empowerment is defined as the power to do something on the individual or collective level. While empowerment can be a useful tool to improve the capacities and assets of local communities, both individually and collectively, community empowerment requires the engagement and collective action of all the community members as opposed to individual action (Ahmad & Talib, 2015).

In tourism development, community empowerment is a vital element of sustainable development which has substantiated the strong connection between empowerment of locals and community well-being via tourism (Ahmad & Talib, 2015). Several studies in the past have focused on local authorities and community participation without considering community empowerment and its contribution to sustainable tourism (Cheng, Wu, Wang, & Wu, 2019). Community empowerment is synonymous with giving power and voice to marginalised groups and local communities and thus, is based on the collective action and engagement of all community members rather than individual acts. Arida, Suryasih and Parthama (2009) explained that the community empowerment process should include meeting the real needs of the community, providing better access to resources, facilitating management by local organisations, and improving the local socio-economy through capacity development. Meanwhile, Rukminto (2008) as well as Cárdenas, Byrd, and Duffy (2015) argued that a top-down tourism planning approach results in conflicting interests between tourism planners and rural communities which hinder community engagement and eventually, the overall tourism development. Moreover, top-down tourism planning concentrates the decision-making power in the hands of governments and other stakeholders whilst excluding locals.

Materials and Methodology

Research Subject

The research subject, according to Moleong (2007), is defined as objects, things or people that are related to the data for the research variable, and which is in question. Thus, the research subject in this study were village heads, youth coordinators, the Tourism Department in Central Lombok Regency, hotel and restaurant managers as well as community and religious leaders in Gerupuk.

Research Location

The location of this study is Gerupuk, Mandalika, Central Lombok Regency.

Sources and Data Collection Techniques

Primary data is data that is obtained directly in the field / directly from the source. For this study, primary data were obtained through observation, documentation and in-depth interviews.

Observation

Data were collected through direct observations of tourism activities at Gerupuk such as swimming, surfing, fishing and barbecue with locals. Although the researcher is a marginal participant, namely in a group, the identity of the researcher is known to the group that is being researched and poses an intrusion in their life (Sugiyono, 2014). For this study, the researchers conducted participation observation whereby the researchers met very poor communities, conducted discussions with lowly educated locals and stayed in homestays at Gerupuk.

Documentation

Documentation is a research technique that is carried out by observing the object of study in its context. The aspects that were observed (Rangkuti, 2009) were as follows: a) The physical aspect of space including all tourism facilities, public toilets, mosques, and signs to all tourist attractions; b) Daily life behaviour such as work/job, community ceremonies, and religious practices; c) Community activities such as beach cleaning, fishing and selling in the market; d) Tourist attractions, beach and tourism facilities; e) Celebrations such as weddings and *Lebaran Idul Fitri*. Observations were made from the beginning of the study on the physical conditions of the environment and outside the environment as well.

In-depth Interviews

In-depth interviews were carried out by first determining appropriate sources based on their fields and experiences so that they can provide precise and accurate information to support the research objective. The interviewees included the Village Head, Mr. Suhardi as Head of the Boatman group, Mr. Kimin as the Coordinator of the surfing businesses, Ustad H. Abdullah Ali as the Coordinator of Gerupuk Village Mosque, Mr. Suman as the Coordinator of drivers at Gerupuk, and Mrs. Seniwati as the owner of a homestay.

Data Analysis

Qualitative research is a method to explore and understand the meaning of individuals or a group of people ascribed to social or humanitarian problems (Creswell, 2017). In this regard, this study employed an inductive technique, to explain facts and events that are known to be concrete, so that a general conclusion is obtained based on empirical evidence. Gerupuk was chosen as the research subject to draw a comprehensive overview and analysis about its community empowerment programme.

Purposive sampling was utilised to identify the participants of this study which included the local community, tourism stakeholders, government representative from Central Lombok Regency and youth tourism coordinator.

Results

Potential of Gerupuk as a Tourism Destination

Culinary Tourism

The local cuisine such as fish dishes is a potential tourism attraction in Gerupuk. Seafood products with local ingredients are a hit with local tourists from Java as well as foreign tourists who purchase them as souvenirs. Thus, Gerupuk has the potential to become a seafood culinary destination.

Coastal / Marine Tourism Attractions

Gerupuk hosts a number of fishing villages. There are many tourism facilities available for tourists such as restaurants, cafés, souvenir shops and local *warungs*. Beside that, its beautiful and exotic beach, and clean sea can be a popular surfing destination. Further, fishing activities such as fishing tours and visits to floating fish farms and floating nets can be developed as attractive tourism activities.

Cultural Tourism

The local traditions, customs, religion, ceremonies and rituals, are still practised by the local community at Gerupuk. These cultural elements can be incorporated

into tour packages to enrich the tourist experience. Additionally, local celebrations such as the *Bau Nyale* festival & *Madak Mare* festival (*Madak Segare*) can also draw tourists who would like to experience the local culture.

Adventure Tourism

In the southern part of Gerupuk, there are several steep cliffs that face the sea with huge waves crashing on the rocks. This area offers potential adventurous activities such as camping, sunset- and sunrise-watching as well as rock climbing.

Community Empowerment Model at Gerupuk

The model of community empowerment at Gerupuk was developed by the Central Lombok Regency government and Indonesian government as a means of improving the community's quality of life. This model involves direct and indirect community involvement in rural tourism development. The community empowerment programme at Gerupuk involved three stages: community awareness and behavioural change, engagement or involvement and educational or empowerment.

The Awareness and Behavioural Change Stage

Numerous formal and non-formal training sessions on tourism skills and social knowledge have helped raise the capability and capacity of the local community at Gerupuk. These formal training sessions were conducted by the tourism department in their role as the key stakeholder in Central Lombok Regency. The training sessions included guiding by the Guide Association in Lombok Island, waste management by the Environment Agency, homestay management by the Hotel Association in Central Lombok Office, food management, hygiene and presentation by PORTIR Indonesia (an NGO) and Mataram Tourism Institute.

As a result, the capability of the local community have vastly improved, specifically in tourist management and innovative tourism development. The local community has also built public facilities such as beautiful gardens, parking areas, security teams, prayer rooms and toilets as well as managed these facilities to support the tourism needs. Various parties have continuously supported, encouraged, and mobilised the community to develop and manage Gerupuk independently as a way of supporting Mandalika as a super priority tourism destination in Indonesia.

The Community Involvement Stage

The model of community empowerment is manifested in the form of community involvement. Members of the community are involved in various roles that complement each other and support tourism development. For example, some provide or maintain public facilities to meet the needs of tourists. Some sell food,

drinks and souvenirs, or offer accommodation such as homestays. Some of the tourist attractions at Gerupuk include daily life activities which are incorporated into tour packages. Others are involved in selling products or services for beach activities such as swimming, surfing, diving, snorkelling, and others.

The Education and Empowerment Stage

The model of community empowerment also raises the educational level of the locals. Training programmes offered by various stakeholders of tourism development have helped raised the ability, awareness and skills of the local community in developing and managing Gerupuk's tourism. In addition, active participation from the community in the development of Gerupuk's tourist village has also increased the economic status and quality of life of the community. This active community participation also supports the sustainable tourism of Mandalika.

The locals work in various capacities and positions such as local homestays, ticketing office, beach security, driver, boatman, or in the development and maintenance of tourism infrastructure such as parking areas or road maintenance.

Obstacles to Community Empowerment

Based on the in-depth interviews and observations, the study found a number of obstacles that hindered community empowerment such as low level of education, the attitudes of the locals, waste management and motivation.

Another obstacle is related to the community's traders. There are some locals who disturb tourists in private spaces in order to sell their merchandise. This has led to uneasiness amongst tourists and many complaints to tour agencies and stakeholders. Apart from this, some decrepit and dirty houses with overgrown gardens mar the beautiful surroundings of the village. The owners are too poor to repair their houses while the government faces financial constraint to embark on any renovation or refurbishment programme.

In terms of guidance, some participants confided that they need more assistance to provide quality service to support tourism. For example, there is no special management training for homestay owners and staff. Besides that, the lack of quality tourist accommodation as well as insufficient parking area and comfortable toilets at Gerupuk continues to be an impediment to the development of the tourist village. There is also insufficient public health clinics at Gerupuk.

Discussion

The local community is the vital resource that should be the primary planner and implementer of tourism development based on the policy direction set out. The

findings of this study show that the decision makers and related stakeholders should consider policy proposals to address the emerging issues.

Gerupuk has many tourism attractions to support the tourism development of Mandalika such as local cuisine and coastal/marine wonders. The development of these attractions will raise the economic value of this area through tourism.

The model of community empowerment at Gerupuk has enabled economic and social development through the construction, repair and maintenance of public facilities such as coastal roads, houses for the poor community and waste bins. All the developments at Gerupuk also provided numerous employment opportunities for the locals.

Further, Gerupuk's promotion could be improved. Some marketing and promotion models that can be adopted here include online and offline promotion. Online promotion includes promotion through online travel agents, websites, online bookings and social media platforms (Facebook, Youtube & Instagram). Offline promotion refers to promotions through local travel agents in Lombok and Indonesia, local newspapers and magazines and word-of-mouth (repeat guests).

Conclusion

Community empowerment in tourist villages in Mandalika is a priority programme in Central Lombok Regency as a means of economic and social development. Nevertheless, the community empowerment programme at Gerupuk may require further improvement to meet local needs and encourage stronger participation. Based on the study findings, the following can be concluded.

The key assets of tourism development in Gerupuk include the beaches, natural surroundings and local communities. The empowerment of the local communities in the management of tourist villages involved three stages, that is, awareness, capacity-building and empowerment. The government as one of the tourism stakeholders is expected to further enhance its role, especially in raising the capability of the local community through training and technical guidance on the management of tourism services and handicraft businesses.

The obstacles that impede the community empowerment programme include low level of education, attitude of locals, waste management issues and social community motivation. Further, public amenities such as roads, electricity, telephones, ATMs and toilets must built and maintained as well as possible.

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Empirical Paper

Bibliometric Analysis of Worldwide Scientific Literature on Sustainable Tourism

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Abstract: Sustainable tourism is a significant concept that scholars have researched for three decades. In the mid-1990s, after the Brundtland Report, the term “sustainable tourism” became popular, and all aspects of the tourism industry subsequently adopted the concept of sustainability. Currently, sustainable tourism is regarded as one of the main fields of research within tourism, resulting in comprehensive literature devoted to the topic in both academic and general forums. However, this subfield of tourism research is continued by discourse, criticism, and debate. Owing to the increasing number of studies in this field, this paper analysed various types of published works related to sustainable tourism. This study adopted a bibliometric analysis based on the data retrieved from the online Scopus database on June 2020. Based on the keyword search results, the findings of this study finalised 1,414 valid documents for further analysis. The study also created visualisation maps using VOSviewer software and implemented bibliometric techniques to analyse the literature systematically. This research presented its findings using standard bibliometric indicators, in particular the analysis of citations, the growth rate of publications, and research productivity. The results showed that a slight growth in the literature on sustainable tourism occurred from 1990 to 2004. However, the number of studies steadily increased from 2005 to 2019. This study represents the evolution of scientific literature on sustainable tourism, and identifies current research interest areas and potential future research directions.

Keywords: Bibliometric analysis, Scopus, sustainable tourism, VOSviewer

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Introduction

In recent decades, sustainable tourism has become one of the critical research areas of tourism (Qian, Shen, & Law, 2018). Extensive literature has been dedicated to the subject in academic and public forums. An example is the *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, a scholarly journal which began publication in 1993 that is exclusively devoted to this topic, thus helping to strengthen the sustainable tourism concept as a topic for scientific research. Despite the overwhelming literature on the subject in research, it is crucial to analyse empirical bibliometric data systematically. This indicates a need for action to be taken, in order to determine who the leading research pioneers were in researching the theme of sustainable tourism and to discover gaps in our understanding and redefine the frontiers of new concepts (Serrano, Sianes, & Ariza-Montes, 2019).

Furthermore, the research output related to the topic has led to the valued method of bibliometrics to measure scientific activity, that is, a statistical analysis of the scientific literature (Ali, Ahmi, & Saidin, 2019). A comprehensive and thorough bibliometric analysis of sustainable tourism research addresses a critical gap in the rigorous, systematic, and empirical review of how this specific area of research has evolved (Ruhanen, Weiler, Moyle, & McLennan, 2015).

The aim of this study is to encourage academic debate within the scope of bibliometric analysis of sustainable tourism research. In particular, this research is intended to fill a gap in the range of sustainable tourism bibliometric studies that are published to date, and is based on only a few publications that, in the majority, have generally approached the issue. This paper adopted a bibliometric analysis in collaboration with a systematic literature review for these purposes. This was achieved through the following research questions:

Research Questions

1. What is the present trend of publications on sustainable tourism?
2. Which themes related to sustainable tourism are the most popular among scholars?
3. Which are the most influential publications on sustainable tourism research?
4. Who are the most influential authors on sustainable tourism?

Following three decades of sustainable tourism studies after the Brundtland Report, insights can be taken from the results of this study, which in turn gives an insight into new possibilities and avenues for future decades of research in this specific area of tourism research.

Sustainable Tourism

The concept of sustainable tourism has undeniably arisen as one of the most significant influences on tourism research (Bramwell & Lane, 1993). Sustainable tourism emerged from the philosophy of sustainable development that became popular in 1987 after the Brundtland Report (McCool, Butler, Buckley, Weaver, & Wheeler, 2013). The report defined the four basic principles of setting sustainable development goals by introducing the idea of a potential balance between economic growth and the sustainable use of natural resources as a polyhedral term (Weaver & Lawton, 1999). Upon the advent of the then vague concept of sustainable growth, sustainability surfaced as an idea that transcended all reports and statements and established itself as a dominant paradigm. After the Brundtland Report, “sustainability” became a political term that unified the concept in all disciplines (Veiga, Santos, Águas, & Santos, 2018).

Sustainable tourism is fundamentally an expansive and systematic concept with a range of sustainability dimensions (economic sustainability, environmental sustainability, sociocultural sustainability, and intergenerational equity) that are closely connected (Mowforth & Munt, 1998).

In consideration of the holistic and integrated characteristics of sustainable tourism, bringing together all stakeholders is essential. Stakeholders have their interests to pursue, and are responsible for implementing sustainable tourism and collaborating among themselves effectively (Wondirad, Tolkach, & King, 2020). Therefore, to achieve sustainable tourism, all components must be addressed simultaneously and from a holistic standpoint, and be integrative (Butler, 1998).

In 2015, the United Nations (UN) adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development which consists of 17 sustainable development goals (SDGs), as shown in Figure 1, which are the milestones for global development. The SDGs were divided into 17 goals and 169 associated targets to cover the various dimensions of sustainable development, including environmental, sociocultural, economic, and political aspects (UN, 2015). According to the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), sustainable tourism could also accelerate the progress towards the SDGs (UNWTO & UNDP, 2017). In particular, these comprise the targets in SDG 8 (Inclusive and sustainable economic growth), SDG 12 (Sustainable consumption and production), and SDG 14 (Sustainable use of oceans and marine resources) (UN, 2020). Therefore, this study is closely aligned with the SDGs, including the study of sustainable tourism.



Source: UN (2015)

Figure 1. The 17 sustainable development goals

Bibliometric Analysis

Bibliometric analysis is characterised as a systematic approach to the measurement of information structure and development in academic fields, based on analyses of related publications or bibliographic units (Ahmi, Elbardan, & Raja Mohd Ali, 2019). In addition, Sharif, Ahmi, and Rosli (2020) highlighted that bibliometric analysis provides an overview of particular areas by disclosing comprehensive information on the selection of publications in databases, including the number of publications, citations, keywords, authors, sources, topics, and institutions.

The most useful application of bibliometrics in tourism concerns the review of journals and publishers of journals (Hall, 2011). There is a number of research that lead to sustainable tourism studies involving bibliometric analysis. Yoopetch and Nimsai (2019) mapped the knowledge base for sustainable tourism development from 1990 to 2018. Their study addressed the key topics of literature, including climate change, tourist behaviour and its effects, empowerment, policymaking, and the role of cultural heritage in sustainable tourism development. While Mota, Teixeira, and Gonçalves (2018) applied bibliometric techniques, visualisation maps of the intellectual structure were created to review the literature. The result identified research trends linked to the keywords, respective gaps, and specific needs for future scientific research within tourism planning and sustainable development.

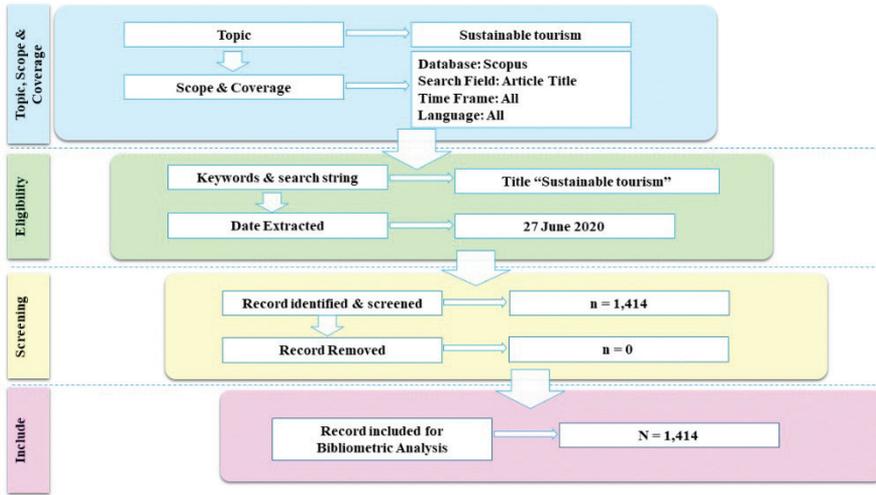
Additionally, Della Corte, Del Gaudio, Sepe, and Sciarelli (2019) illustrated how the study of sustainable tourism, with its interconnections with marketing activities, was evolving through a bibliometric study that provided useful hints and suggestions for future studies. Similarly, Serrano et al. (2019) stated that bibliometrics was an adequate methodology for inductive approaches to the semantic limits of newly developed disciplines' conceptual structure. The use of bibliometrics could improve researchers' understanding of sustainable tourism. Hence, a bibliometric study helps scholars to recognise current trends and future research paths (Baker, Pandey, Kumar, & Haldar, 2020).

This research was conducted using VOSviewer, which is a freely available software for creating and visualising network relationships. Furthermore, it provides a visualisation of the network co-occurrence based on the conditions of the literature review. The research also examined the impact of publications based on citation counts, citations per publication, and impact per publication using the VOSviewer software.

Materials and Methods

This study used data from the online Scopus database in June 2020. The “sustainable tourism” keyword was applied to search for related publications on the topic, such as in the title of articles. Emphasis was placed on the title of articles because they represented an important subject in the field of research and the purpose of the study. An article's title should include information that attracts the attention of readers because it is the first component that readers observe. A total of 1,414 documents were collected for the bibliometric analysis, based on the query. For this study, three tools were employed to analyse the data, namely: (1) VOSviewer software to create and visualise the bibliometric networks, (2) Harzing's Publish and Perish software to calculate the citation metrics and other frequencies, and (3) Microsoft Excel to calculate the frequencies of the published materials and to design the relevant figures and tables.

This study adopted the PRISMA flow diagram of procedures used in the identification of sources guidelines for conducting systematic reviews of research (Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, Altman, & The PRISMA Group, 2009). “Sustainable tourism” was keyed into the topic field of the Scopus search engine. This initial search yielded 1,414 documents, as shown in Figure 2. After the identification and screening of documentation, the final collection contained 1,414 documents on sustainable tourism. Hence, the data analysis of these studies involved bibliographically explaining the features of the 1,414 documents. Such metadata comprised author names, titles, dates of publications, citations, author affiliations, and abstracts. Descriptive analysis was used to clarify the current trend of research on sustainable tourism.



Source: Moher et al. (2009)

Figure 2. The PRISMA flow diagram

Results and Discussion

Collected data was analysed to classify the types of documents and sources, subject areas, keywords, languages, annual growth, authorships, citations, and research productivity of countries. Most of the findings were reported as frequencies and percentages. The co-occurrences of the author keywords were mapped using VOSviewer, and the citation analysis was reported as citation metrics. As a result, the top 10 most cited sustainable tourism articles were revealed. Annual growth data, including the frequency, percentage, and cumulative percentage of the documents up to 28 June 2020, were presented.

Document and Source Types

The documents obtained from the online Scopus database were analysed based on the document and source types. The types of documents consisted of articles, book chapters, and conference papers, while the source types included journals, books, and conference proceedings. The document type analysis showed that the publications on sustainable tourism encompassed 12 document types, namely articles, book chapters, conference papers, reviews, editorials, books, notes, errata, letters, conference reviews, short surveys, and retracted works. The majority of the publications (Table 1) were journal articles, comprising 71.29% of the publications, followed by book chapters (10.96%), and conference papers (9.26%). The other types of documents were reviews

(3.61%), editorials (1.84%), books (1.06%), notes (0.85%), errata (0.57%), and letters (0.35%). As for the remaining document types (i.e., conference review, short survey, and retracted work), only one of each type was published.

Table 1. Document types

Document Types	Total Publications (TP)	Percentages (%)
Article	1,008	71.29
Book Chapter	155	10.96
Conference Paper	131	9.26
Review	51	3.61
Editorial	26	1.84
Book	15	1.06
Note	12	0.85
Erratum	8	0.57
Letter	5	0.35
Conference Review	1	0.07
Short Survey	1	0.07
Retracted Work	1	0.07
Total	1,414	100.00

Various types of documents were published on sustainable tourism (Table 2). The publications were categorised into five source types, wherein journals represented the largest type of source with 1,124 documents (79.49%). This was followed by books with 165 documents (11.67%), conference proceedings with 89 documents (6.29%), book series with 34 documents (2.40%), and trade journals with two documents (0.14%).

Table 2. Source types

Source Types	Total Publications (TP)	Percentages (%)
Journal	1,124	79.49
Book	165	11.67
Conference Proceeding	89	6.29
Book Series	34	2.40
Trade Journal	2	0.14
Total	1,414	100.00

Years of Publications/Evolution of Published Studies

Table 3 and Figure 3 show the results of the study, which illustrate the details of annual publications on sustainable tourism from 1990 to 2020. The earliest

published article on sustainable tourism was by Nash and Butler (1990). Year 2019 was the most productive year, in terms of total publications (152) and the number of cited publications (74 or 48.68%).

Table 3. Years of publications, 1990–2020

Years	TP	NCP	TC	C/P	C/CP	<i>h</i>	<i>g</i>
1990	1	1	12	12.00	12.00	1	1
1991	2	1	4	2.00	4.00	1	1
1992	6	5	179	29.83	35.80	5	6
1993	10	9	615	61.50	68.33	7	10
1994	7	6	185	26.43	30.83	5	7
1995	12	11	519	43.25	47.18	8	12
1996	12	10	230	19.17	23.00	7	12
1997	15	13	1,118	74.53	86.00	10	15
1998	5	4	227	45.40	56.75	4	5
1999	16	14	1,014	63.38	72.43	11	16
2000	13	12	856	65.85	71.33	9	13
2001	16	13	986	61.63	75.85	9	16
2002	23	22	1,075	46.74	48.86	12	23
2003	17	14	884	52.00	63.14	11	17
2004	17	10	200	11.76	20.00	7	14
2005	35	29	1,152	32.91	39.72	17	33
2006	42	30	880	20.95	29.33	13	29
2007	46	43	1,478	32.13	34.37	17	38
2008	65	60	1,129	17.37	18.82	19	31
2009	43	36	1,415	32.91	39.31	16	37
2010	60	50	1,394	23.23	27.88	19	37
2011	57	42	1,283	22.51	30.55	14	35
2012	101	72	1,394	13.80	19.36	18	36
2013	79	67	1,575	19.94	23.51	21	38
2014	71	59	1,064	14.99	18.03	19	31
2015	86	68	895	10.41	13.16	17	26
2016	86	57	743	8.64	13.04	15	24
2017	116	86	803	6.92	9.34	15	22
2018	127	84	557	4.39	6.63	12	19
2019	152	74	311	2.05	4.20	9	12
2020	76	28	53	0.70	1.89	3	3

Total 1,414

Notes: The table illustrates sustainable tourism’s annual citation structure during the length of the study. Here, *TP* = Total number of sustainable tourism publications; *NCP* = Number of cited publications; *TC* = Total citations; *C/P* = Average citations per publication; *C/CP* = Average citations per cited publication; *h* = *h*-index; and *g* = *g*-index.

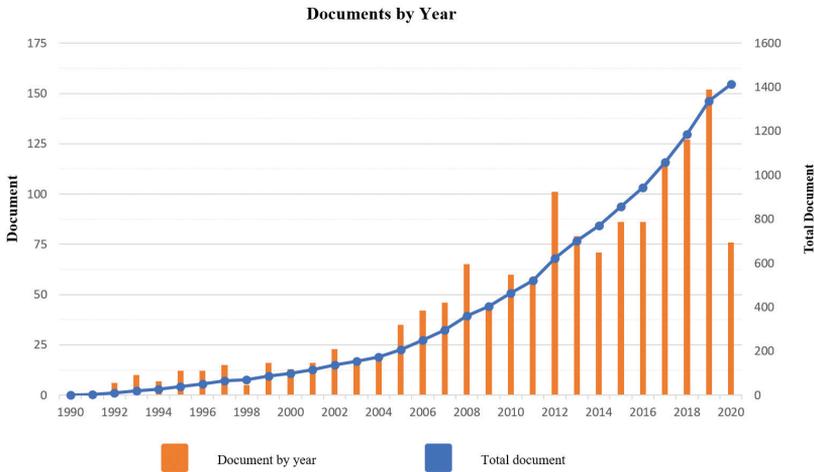


Figure 3. Documents by year, 1990–2020

Figure 3 above shows the documents by year with 1-year intervals between 1990 and 2020. The data indicates that the number of publications increased from one document in 1990 to 17 documents in 2004, then rose sharply to 101 documents in 2012. However, from 2013 to 2014, there was a noticeable drop in the number of publications. It can be said that the number of sustainable tourism publications increased by close to twofold from 86 documents in 2015 to 152 documents in 2019.

Languages of Documents

Table 4 shows the different languages used for the publications. The majority of the documents retrieved were published in English (1,364 articles or 94.79%). The second highest number of documents was published in Spanish (1.81%), followed by French (1.11%). The publications in other languages made up less than 1% each; these were German, Italian, Croatian, Portuguese, Romanian, Czech, Moldavian, Bosnian, Chinese, Polish, Russian, and Serbian.

Table 4. Languages used for publications

Languages	Total Publications (TP)*	Percentages (%)
English	1,364	94.79
Spanish	26	1.81
French	16	1.11
German	9	0.63
Italian	4	0.28

Table 4 (con't)

Languages	Total Publications (TP)*	Percentages (%)
Croatian	3	0.21
Portuguese	3	0.21
Romanian	3	0.21
Czech	2	0.14
Moldavian	2	0.14
Bosnian	1	0.07
Chinese	1	0.07
Polish	1	0.07
Russian	1	0.07
Serbian	1	0.07
Total	1,437	100.00

**One document was prepared in two languages.*

Subject Areas

The published documents were classified based on the subject areas, as depicted in Figure 4 and Table 5. The distribution of research on sustainable tourism emerged mainly from the social sciences (29.77%); business, management, and accounting (28.78%); and environmental science (15.68%). Nevertheless, other subject areas related to sustainable tourism included economics, econometrics, and finance; energy; earth and planetary sciences; and engineering.

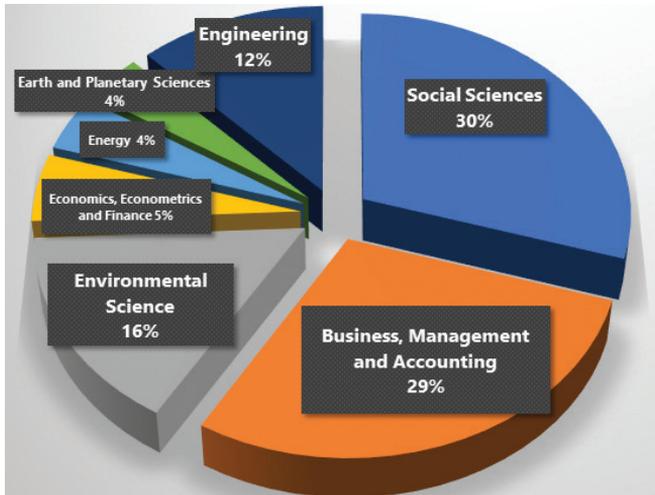


Figure 4. Subject areas

Table 5. Subject areas

Subject Areas	Total Publications (TP)	Percentages (%)
Social Sciences	841	29.77
Business, Management, and Accounting	813	28.78
Environmental Science	443	15.68
Economics, Econometrics, and Finance	153	5.42
Energy	125	4.42
Earth and Planetary Sciences	106	3.75
Engineering	243	12.18
Total	2,724	100.00

Keyword Analyses

Keywords and co-occurrence analyses were conducted to explore the critical trends of sustainable tourism literature. Figure 5 illustrates the word cloud for the author keywords that was created using WordSift. This figure represents the top 60 words (or parts of keywords) used in the published articles on sustainable tourism, which were generated from 160 keywords obtained from the online Scopus database. The total number of keyword occurrences was represented by the size of the keyword or word itself. In addition to the keywords of the document titles, the word cloud also represented other emerging keywords, such as “tourism planning”, “stakeholder”, “economic development”, “perception”, and “governance approach”. Although their size were relatively small, the other keywords addressed the sustainable tourism research topic. Therefore, it can be forecasted that these keywords will be the focus of future research on sustainable tourism.

**Figure 5.** Word cloud of author keywords

Subsequently, the author keywords were also analysed for co-occurrences using VOSviewer for network visualisation of those keywords (Figure 6).

This study indicated the strength of the relationships among the keywords. This was reflected by font size, node size, colour, and thickness of connecting lines. Related keywords are usually listed together and shown in the same colour. For instance, Figure 6 suggests that “sustainability”, “ecotourism”, “climate change”, and “tourist destination” (in red) are interrelated and commonly co-occur.

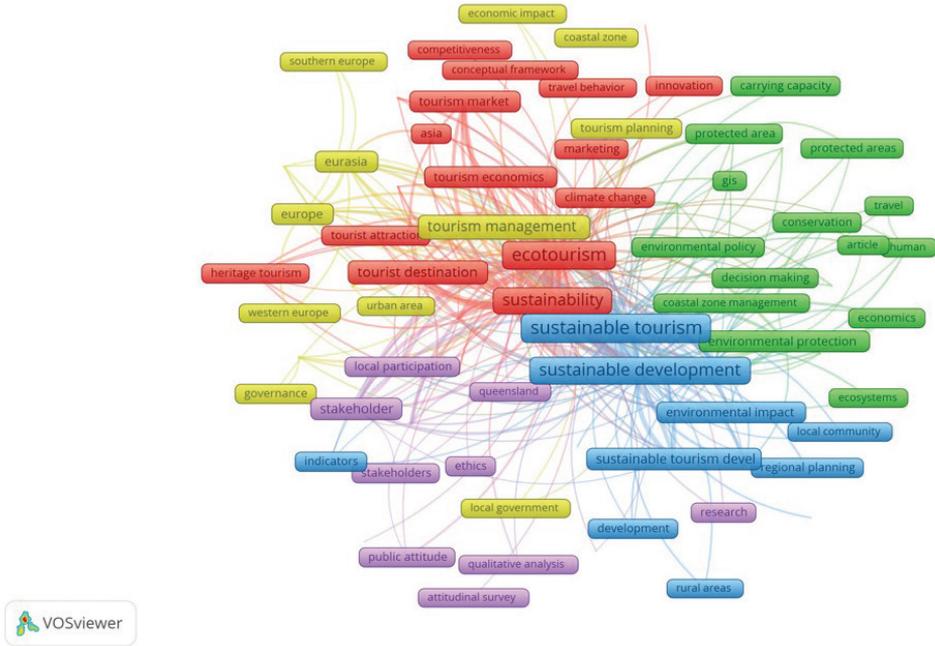


Figure 6. Author keywords network visualisation map

In addition, the VOSviewer software generated six clusters from 31 items, based on a minimum of 10 keyword co-occurrences (Table 6).

Table 6. Keyword clusters generated using VOSviewer

Cluster 1 (6 items)	Cluster 2 (6 items)	Cluster 3 (5 items)
climate change community-based tourism environment regional development sustainability tourism impacts	destination management indicators stakeholders sustainable tourism development sustainable tourism indicators tourism management	ecotourism nature-based tourism protected areas sustainable tourism heritage tourism

Table 6 (con't)

Cluster 4 (5 items)	Cluster 5 (5 items)	Cluster 6 (4 items)
development mass tourism planning sustainable tourism	conservation rural tourism sustainable development tourism development tourism planning	carrying capacity ethics governance tourism destination

Table 7 lists the top 20 author keywords used in the analysis of sustainable tourism literature. The results in the table reveal that “sustainable tourism” was the most commonly used keyword (10.90%) in sustainable tourism literature. The second most often used keyword was “ecotourism” (8.70%), which suggests that sustainable tourism research has mostly centred on the issue of environmental conservation. Keywords such as “sustainable development” (8.05%), “tourism development” (6.56%), and “sustainability” (4.96%) were among the other popular keywords to occur.

Table 7. Top 20 author keywords

Author Keywords	Total Publications (TP)	Percentage (%)
Sustainable Tourism	540	10.90
Ecotourism	431	8.70
Sustainable Development	399	8.05
Tourism Development	325	6.56
Sustainability	246	4.96
Tourism	197	3.97
Tourism Management	163	3.29
Tourist Destination	107	2.16
Sustainable Tourism Development	83	1.67
Stakeholder	63	1.27
Tourism Market	54	1.09
Tourism Economics	50	1.01
Environmental Protection	49	0.99
Eurasia	47	0.95
Planning	40	0.81
Europe	37	0.75
Perception	37	0.75
Environmental Impact	35	0.71
Environment	32	0.65
Local Participation	32	0.65

Geographical Distribution of Publications: Most Influential Countries

A total of 160 countries have contributed to sustainable tourism research. Figure 7 shows the distribution of the top 20 countries, based on the number of publications on sustainable tourism. Meanwhile, Table 8 gives a summary of the top 20 countries that have contributed to the publications. Overall, the United Kingdom was ranked first with 188 documents (10.54%), followed by the United States with 176 documents (9.87%), and Australia with 141 documents (7.90%).

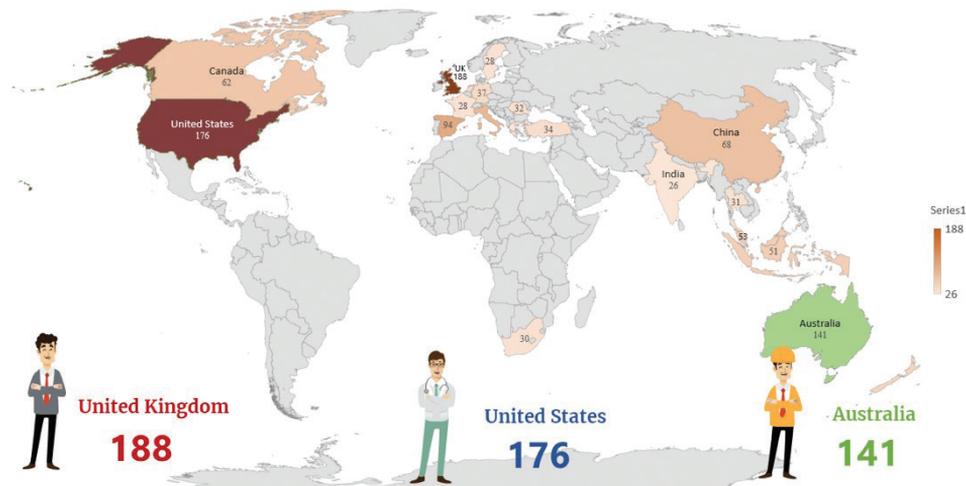


Figure 7. Countries that contributed to sustainable tourism research

Table 8. Top 20 countries that contributed to sustainable tourism publications

Countries	Total Publications (TP)	Percentage (%)	Countries	Total Publications (TP)	Percentage (%)
United Kingdom	188	10.54	Germany	37	2.07
United States	176	9.87	Netherlands	36	2.02
Australia	141	7.90	Turkey	34	1.91
Spain	94	5.27	Romania	32	1.79
Italy	77	4.32	Thailand	31	1.74
China	68	3.81	South Africa	30	1.68
Canada	62	3.48	France	28	1.57
Malaysia	53	2.97	Sweden	28	1.57
Indonesia	51	2.86	Greece	26	1.46
New Zealand	45	2.52	India	26	1.46

There was a significant amount of cooperation between different countries, as seen in Figure 8. The figure shows the countries with at least 25 published documents, reaching a minimum of 100 citations per country. The node size represents the number of articles published per country, while the connecting lines represent the collaboration among the countries on the publications. For example, the yellow connecting lines reveal that the authors from Indonesia, China, South Korea, Serbia, and Portugal have recently worked together in sustainable tourism research.

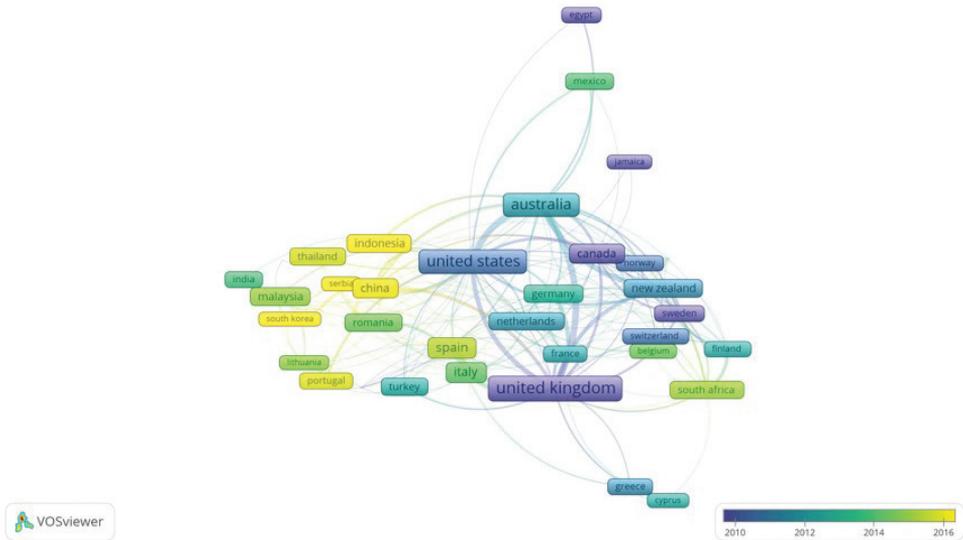


Figure 8. Country co-authorships

Most Active Source Titles

Sustainable tourism literature has also been published in a number of journals, magazines, and books. The 1,414 publications appeared in 1,099 sources. Table 9 lists the most active published sources on sustainable tourism, based on a minimum number of 10 publications produced by each source. The leading journals were the *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* (17.83%), followed by *Sustainability Switzerland* (6.37%), *Wit Transactions on Ecology and the Environment* (4.73%), and *Tourism Management* (3.18%).

Table 9. Most active source titles

Source Titles	Total Publications (TP)	Percentage (%)
Journal of Sustainable Tourism	196	17.83
Sustainability Switzerland	70	6.37

Table 9 (con't)

Source Titles	Total Publications (TP)	Percentage (%)
Wit Transactions on Ecology and the Environment	52	4.73
Tourism Management	35	3.18
Tourism Recreation Research	24	2.18
Journal of Cleaner Production	20	1.82
Annals of Tourism Research	19	1.73
Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes	19	1.73
Current Issues in Tourism	19	1.73
African Journal of Hospitality Tourism and Leisure	18	1.64
IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science	18	1.64
Tourism and Hospitality Research	18	1.64
Tourism Geographies	17	1.55
Tourism Planning and Development	16	1.46
Tourism Management Perspectives	13	1.18
International Journal of Tourism Policy	12	1.09
Practice of Sustainable Tourism Resolving the Paradox	12	1.09
Tourism Review	11	1.00
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	11	1.00
Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research	10	0.91

Authorship

Table 10 lists the top 10 most productive authors. According to the data, there were two authors who dominated the list of authors, namely Bramwell (with 27 articles, or 4.54%) and Lane (22 articles, 3.70%). The other relevant authors included Font (10 articles, 1.68%), Awang (nine articles, 1.51%), Hall (nine articles, 1.51%), Miller (nine articles, 1.51%), Ruhanen (nine articles, 1.51%), Weaver (nine articles, 1.51%), Blancas (eight articles, 1.34%), and Dodds (eight articles, 1.34%).

Table 10. Top 10 most productive authors

Names of Authors	No. of Documents	Percentage (%)
Bramwell	27	4.54
Lane	22	3.70
Font	10	1.68

Table 10 (con't)

Names of Authors	No. of Documents	Percentage (%)
Awang	9	1.51
Hall	9	1.51
Miller	9	1.51
Ruhanen	9	1.51
Weaver	9	1.51
Blancas	8	1.34
Dodds	8	1.34

Citation Analysis

The number of citations and the citations per year can also be used to measure the researchers' productivity. Table 11 provides a summary of the citation metrics for the retrieved documents as of June 2020. Harzing's Publish or Perish software was used to look for the citation metrics for the data from the online Scopus database. This study found that 24,230 citations were reported in the span of 30 years (from 1990 to 2020) for 1,414 collected papers, with an average of 807.67 citations per year.

Table 11. Citation metrics

Citation Metrics	Data
Publication years	1990–2020
Citation years	30 (1990–2020)
Papers	1,414
Citations	24,230
Citations per year	807.67
Citations per paper	17.14
Citations per author	16,720.48
Papers per author	805.04
<i>h</i> -index	75
<i>g</i> -index	122

Figure 9 shows the author co-citation analysis network. From this network, Hall (826), Bramwell (587), Gossling (458), Lane (425), and Butler (399) were the most highly co-cited authors. In addition, Table 12 shows the top 10 most cited articles in the online Scopus database. The paper *Sustainable tourism: A state-of-the-art review* by Butler (1999) obtained the highest number of citations (486 citations, or an average of 23.14 citations per year). The most impactful articles based on citations per year were the papers by Buckley (2012) and Lee (2013), which received 347 (43.38 on average each year) and 279 (39.86 on average each year) citations per year, respectively.

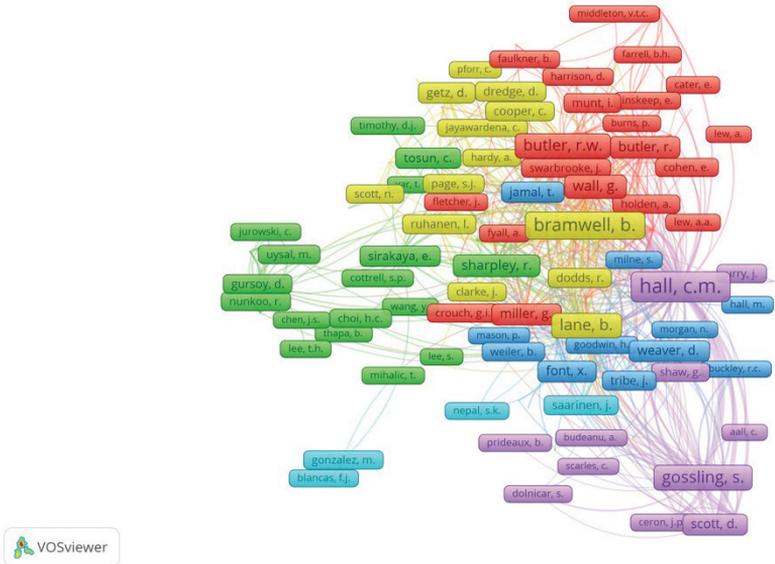


Figure 9. Author co-citation analysis network

Table 12. Top 10 most cited articles

No.	Authors	Titles	Sources	Total Cites	Cites per Year
1	Butler (1999)	Sustainable tourism: A state-of-the-art review	Tourism Geographies	486	23.14
2	Hunter (1997)	Sustainable tourism as an adaptive paradigm	Annals of Tourism Research	457	19.87
3	Sims (2009)	Food, place and authenticity: Local food and the sustainable tourism experience	Journal of Sustainable Tourism	407	37
4	Liu (2003)	Sustainable tourism development: A critique	Journal of Sustainable Tourism	402	23.65
5	Hassan (2000)	Determinants of market competitiveness in an environmentally sustainable tourism industry	Journal of Travel Research	366	18.3
6	Buckley (2012)	Sustainable tourism: Research and reality	Annals of Tourism Research	347	43.38

Table 12 (con't)

No.	Authors	Titles	Sources	Total Cites	Cites per Year
7	Miller (2001)	The development of indicators for sustainable tourism: Results of a Delphi survey of tourism researchers	Tourism Management	327	17.21
8	Lee (2013)	Influence analysis of community resident support for sustainable tourism development	Tourism Management	279	39.86
9	Choi, Sirakaya (2005)	Measuring residents' attitude toward sustainable tourism: Development of sustainable tourism attitude scale	Journal of Travel Research	262	17.47
10	Bramwell, Lane (1993)	Sustainable tourism: An evolving global approach	Journal of Sustainable Tourism	231	8.56

Conclusion

The main contribution of this study is the examination of scientific articles on sustainable tourism using bibliometric analysis. The research focuses on the trends of sustainable tourism studies, which were retrieved from the online Scopus database and analysed using bibliometric analysis. This bibliometric study found a significant knowledge base on sustainable tourism, consisting of 1,414 Scopus-indexed documents published from 1990 to 2020. It was discovered that most documents were articles and most publications were journals, with English as the primary language.

In terms of annual publications on sustainable tourism, the results clearly show that the number of research papers increased steadily from 1990 to 2012, then fell considerably in 2014. On the other hand, the publication trend showed rapid growth from 2015 onwards, which peaked in 2019. Two possible reasons for this may be (1) UN's 2015 announcement of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, and (2) the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development declared in 2017. For these reasons, the number of research papers on sustainable tourism grew noticeably. Thus, the results can be linked to the UN's SDGs, especially those closely aligned with sustainable tourism. The findings indicate that this multidisciplinary

body of knowledge on sustainable tourism will continue to grow dramatically over the next decade.

Sixty-seven per cent of the documents were published from 2011 to 2020, which shows that this is a complex and rapidly changing knowledge base, with the potential to generate important outcomes (Det Udomsap & Hallinger, 2020). Further research was conducted to determine whether the subject areas of sustainable tourism were mainly environmental science; economics, econometrics, and finance; social sciences; or business, management, and accounting. However, the topic has also received attention from other subject areas, such as energy research; earth and planetary sciences; and engineering.

The analysis of the geographical distribution of sustainable tourism publications shows an unequal balance of studies worldwide. This finding demonstrates that most of the published authors were based in the United Kingdom, followed by the United States, Australia, Spain, and Italy. In relation to this, other scholars (Della Corte et al., 2019; Mota et al., 2018; Serrano et al., 2019; Yoopetch & Nimsai, 2019) found that most of the studies in this field were authored in Western developed countries. Fortunately, the findings also reveal that sustainable tourism studies written in developing countries have increased from 2014 onwards. This trend should be encouraged, and it is suggested that researchers in this field address this gap that targets sustainable tourism in developing countries over the next several years.

The findings of the co-occurrences of author keywords show that the “sustainable tourism” keyword is marked with the highest number of occurrences, following the trend that has emerged and it reflects the consolidation of the term “sustainable tourism” as one of the study disciplines. Other terms stand out above the rest, such as “ecotourism”, “sustainable development”, “tourism development”, “sustainability”, and “tourism management”. This fact is related to what Bramwell and Lane (1993) pointed out about the research trends in the field of sustainable tourism, thus representing the conceptual development of sustainable tourism that has taken place.

The findings of this study provide a list of the top five most-cited journals, where the base of knowledge in this case is represented by sector-based journals. The *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* was the most active source of sustainable tourism research, followed by *Sustainability Switzerland*, *Wit Transactions on Ecology and the Environment*, *Tourism Management*, and *Tourism Recreation Research*. Researchers seeking high visibility outlets for their research may wish to look to these journals first. Furthermore, the author co-citation analysis in this study reinforces prior conclusions that Butler (1999), Hunter (1997), Sims (2009), Liu (2003), and Hassan (2000) are the thought leaders in the domain of sustainable tourism study.

This analysis further suggests, along with the rise in publications per year, a larger number of authors per article over the years. To a certain degree, this trend shows an increased collaboration between authors in this field. The valuable observations

of this study notwithstanding, some limitations should be taken into consideration. This study used a basic query of a keyword to identify the original list of research works indexed in Scopus. This method was also popular in previous bibliometric studies. Although Scopus is an extensive online database of scholarly works, not all available sources are represented by it. Thus, future research should attempt to further develop the knowledge base of sustainable tourism. It could be extended by using other databases, such as the Web of Science and Google Scholar, which could complement the study to consider all scientific production.

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Empirical Paper

Post-earthquake Crises Management at Gili Trawangan, Lombok

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Abstract: This research aims to examine crises management, describe possible implications, and design a generic model of crises management at Gili Trawangan, Lombok, Indonesia. A mix method was used, with qualitative research being the focus. The data was collected using a survey, observation, semi-structured interviews, and a focus group discussion (FGD), and it was analysed using content analysis. The research findings revealed that the crisis management at the pre-crisis phase was insufficient. On the other hand, crisis management at the crisis and post-crisis phases were adequately effective and efficient. The implications of the crises were drastically decreased tourist visits, threatened business activities, the development of good opportunities for cultural tourism products in “niche markets”, disruptions to local community life, and the broadcasting of crises on the media. This research also designed a disaster-resilient destination model of tourism crises management. The limitations of the research were an under-representation of informants (number and type) and a research scope that was too broad. For further study, it is suggested to increase the number and types of respondents through a quantitative approach, in order to avoid dominant stakeholders acting as the main informants. For the scope of the research problem, it is suggested to focus on one specific topic, either the pre-crisis phase, crisis phase, or post-crisis phase.

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Introduction

World tourism industries have been facing crises for the last two decades. Various phenomena have caused crises for tourism, as summarised by Gutner (2016). There were the 9/11 attack in America in 2001 and the 2002 Bali bombings in the tourist district of Kuta, and from the year 2002 up to 2003, Asia was hit by the SARS (severe acute respiratory syndrome) epidemic. In 2004, Banda Aceh was devastated by the Indian Ocean tsunami, whereas South Asia was pummelled by the Indian Ocean earthquake. In the same year, there was a deadly train bombing in Madrid, Spain. The following year saw Bali experiencing its second bombing tragedy in Kuta and Jimbaran Bay, while London was struck by coordinated bombings on public transport. America was hit by Hurricane Katrina, also in 2005, which proved to be one of the deadliest and costliest hurricanes to strike the country.

Other crises followed in the following decade. In 2011, there was a tsunami in Japan and a volcano eruption in Iceland. In 2012, Banda Aceh was hit by another earthquake, and Central Aceh encountered the same natural disaster in 2013. In 2014, volcano eruptions occurred on Mount Sinabung and Mount Kelud respectively, followed by a massive forest fire in Sumatera and a similar incident in Kalimantan in 2015. Subsequent years saw the emergence of further crises. They were the terrorist attacks and bombings in 2016 at Thamrin Street, Jakarta, followed by the Mount Agung eruption in 2017, a series of church bombings in Surabaya in May 2018, and finally, the earthquake in Lombok in August 2018. These crises had a significant impact on Indonesia's tourism industry.

At the time of writing, the world is battling a crisis that has a massive impact on many lives, especially people in the tourism sector. The Covid-19 pandemic which began in Wuhan, China, on December 2019 has resulted in the transmission of diseases worldwide that severely affects the tourism industry (Gössling, Scott, & Hall, 2020; Jamal & Budke, 2020).

The tourism crises in Lombok started in 2000, as a result of the chaos triggered by racism which is well-known as the "171 incident" (Fallon, 2004). Similarly, Taufan (2011) concurred that the downfall of tourism in Lombok began since the 17th of January 2000, that is, in "171". After close to 20 years, Lombok suffered tourism crises for the second time. A 6.9-magnitude earthquake struck Lombok on

5 August 2018, ruining its tourism system. The severity of this disaster opened everyone's eyes to the importance of crises management of a tourism destination, including some countries with a developed tourism sector. So much so that a research focusing on crises and various aspects related to a disaster should be conducted (Carlsen & Liburd, 2008).

Meanwhile, one of the fastest growing destinations in Lombok, which is becoming a successful indicator of tourism development, is Gili Trawangan. This is also one of the reasons for this research to be conducted. As an island destination, the economic activities of the Gili islands mostly focus on the service industry and marine business. Currently, the most dominant livelihoods of the locals are service providing activities, involving transportation, accommodation, cafés, shops, and other tourism businesses. It is noted that the employment rate in the private sector has reached 54%, whereby some locals work as fishermen (16%), farmers (12%), local vendors (11%), porters (3%), breeders (2%), civil servants (1%), and "others" such as craftsmen and mechanics (1%) (Gili Indah Village, 2010).

Furthermore, marine tourism has become the largest sector which contributes to the regional income of the North Lombok Regency. There are at least nine potential marine tourism products that can attract tourists to the Gili islands. They are diving, snorkelling, sunbathing, canoeing, fishing, participating in beach activities, touring of the salt lake in Gili Meno, turtle watching, and boating opportunities with a glass bottom boat. These economic, social, cultural, and sustainable tourism advantages are becoming great capitals to develop tourism in the North Lombok Regency. In addition, marine tourism generates income for the local government, improves the lives of the community, provides employment opportunities, and conserves cultural assets and the environment.

Tourism activities in Gili Trawangan, Lombok, began in the mid-1980s and became more popular among foreign tourists in 1990, especially backpackers from Europe and Australia (Satria, Matsuda, & Sano, 2006). Then, in early 2000, the scuba and hotel businesses began to operate. European tourists saw viable potential in Gili Trawangan for diving tourism because of its close location to Bali. There were at least 30 scuba businesses in Gili Trawangan which were operated by family-based networks, and only a few were managed independently (Partelow & Nelson, 2018).

Tourism activities in Gili Trawangan are getting busier. One of the most influential factors is promotion that combines elements of sun, sea, sand, and the image of a diving spot tourism (Dodds, Graci, & Holmes, 2010). Apart from that, tourism facilities are also a success factor. Swift boat services from Bali to Gili Trawangan were available since 2008. To date, Gili Trawangan is still believed to be a favourite destination for tourists around the world, despite earthquakes and the Covid-19 outbreak which have created tourism crises.

Nevertheless, the situation now is a cause for great concern, particularly because life for the local community in North Lombok and their tourism activities seem to be facing more adversities. The above-mentioned situations have, in fact, yielded confusion among tourism stakeholders, in terms of responding to crises in the destination. Hence, this research examines the tourism crises management at Gili Trawangan in response to natural disasters as in the case of the 2018 earthquake. The study focuses on tourism crises management, management implications, and the design of a generic model of tourism crises in island tourism destinations.

Methods

The location of the research was Gili Trawangan, Gili Indah Village, Pemenang District, North Lombok Regency, West Nusa Tenggara (*Nusa Tenggara Barat/NTB*) province, Indonesia. The study applied a qualitative approach, involving key informants from 17 stakeholder groups, namely (a) business owners, (b) financial managers, (c) customers, (d) employees, (e) service providers, (f) communities (both locals and newcomers), (g) non-governmental organisations (NGOs), (h) the North Lombok government, (i) tourists, (j) entrepreneurs, (k) educational institutions, (l) visitors, (m) company managers, (n) experts in tourism-related institutions, (o) other social groups, and (p) the media. The data collection tools included a survey, observation, interviews, and a focus group discussion (FGD). The survey was conducted three times in 2020 (on January, February, and March) through an on-site survey. The observation method used was participant-observation, in which the researcher is directly involved as a participant (Jennings, 2001). The researchers were directly involved in the various stakeholder group activities. Semi-structured interviews were used to question various matters related to post-earthquake tourism crisis management in Gili Trawangan, while the FGD was held in two sessions by inviting the North Lombok tourism stakeholder groups. The data obtained was analysed using content analysis (Sarantakos, 1998).

Results and Discussion

Pre-crisis Management

Prevention and mitigation are major aspects in reducing the impact of disasters. The following was the explanation given by the Executive Chief of the Regional Disaster Prevention Board (BPBD) of West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) province during the interview:

(...) With regard to the previous earthquake, honestly, we did not have any construction plan for an earthquake, especially for tourism; we only had a construction plan for a tsunami. Now, the individuals in charge and the

relevant duties when a disaster strikes are mentioned in a construction plan. There is a distribution of duties. Every year, the construction plan must be activated. This construction plan was formulated not with the aim of any disaster occurrence. But with this plan, when a disaster strikes, we do not need to hold meetings to plan for it. (June 23, 2020)

Prevention and mitigation efforts for natural disasters, specifically earthquakes, were previously not available in the construction plan. In fact, there was only a construction plan in place in the event of a tsunami. As a consequence the damage to buildings and infrastructure in 2018 was severe. The BPBD should be able to play a role in at least two levels, namely integration and management (Waligo, Clarke, & Hawkins, 2013), by integrating and managing the Regional Planning and Development Agency known as BAPPEDA (*Badan Perencanaan dan Pembangunan Daerah*), experts, entrepreneurs, the society, and the media in a disaster management framework. Meanwhile, prevention and mitigation efforts by the Head of Destinations at the Tourism Office, North Lombok Regency, were carried out with coordination and collaboration efforts with stakeholders, based on the following interview comments:

(...) We are in collaboration with several agencies—the police, the National Disaster Management Agency (BNPB), and provincial and district BPBDs—as well as in coordination with other agencies. We have been involved based on an available task force. From the beginning of recovery, we invited journalists or the media, including from Singapore, as well as the singer association of the capital city of Indonesia. We also did promotion overseas. (February 17, 2020)

From a descriptive-instrumental perspective (Donaldson & Preston, 1995), the social duties, responsibilities, main duties, and function of the Department of Tourism and Culture have been carried out based on moral values and empathy. A similar effort was studied by Maaiah (2014), in which celebrities were invited to deliver a positive image of tourism destinations to the target market in Jordan, in order to re-establish the tourism image. Thus, it is important for tourism destinations to have emergency planning, crises scenario planning, and emergency management (Morakabati, Page, & Fletcher, 2016).

On the other hand, the participation of the Head of the Research and Development Division of BAPPEDA, North Lombok, indicated a lack of experience and weak coordination and communication on the task force for tourism crisis management. From a psychophysics point of view, there were psychological constraints faced by the stakeholders, while from a psychographics point of view,

the destination condition was found to be non-conductive. Meanwhile, as part of the media, the Public Broadcasting Institution Radio of the Republic of Indonesia (*Lembaga Penyiaran Publik Radio Republik Indonesia/LPP RRI*) in Mataram played an important role in broadcasting and educating the community during the crisis. The following excerpt was from the interview with the Head of Radio of the Republic of Indonesia (*Radio Republik Indonesia/RRI*):

(...) During the earthquake, Radio of the Republic of Indonesia (RRI) was involved, and participated in educating, informing, and helping the community together with BPBD. Currently, we continually inform the community that we have a programme called KENTONGAN. This programme aims to educate people about the stages before, during, and after a disaster. Our broadcasts reach the affected areas. (February 19, 2020)

In this case, RRI in Mataram has shown a very firm stance in managing tourism crises. The meaning of *kentongan* (the bell made from bamboo or wood) is in line with the role and function of RRI as a public broadcasting institution, and could serve as an early warning system in the context of disaster mitigation. This context is relevant to the cross-stakeholder mapping (Crane & Ruebottom, 2011).

In a different context, the Chairman of the Association of the Indonesia Tours and Travel Agencies NTB (ASITA NTB) also indicated their response regarding the tourism crises management in Gili Trawangan by being involved with other stakeholders based on power relations, interests, legitimacy, obligations and responsibilities, and risks (Hazra, Fletcher, & Wilkes, 2014). The incomplete mitigation and recovery efforts were also constrained by the increase of airline ticket prices. A similar condition was studied by Morupisi and Mokgalo (2017), in which the high value-low volume policy resulted in the high prices of transportation services and the accommodation sector. Meanwhile, boatmen were also affected by the crisis. Boat service providers have shown their attitude or cooperation (to provide boat service during the crisis), involvement, and participation in crises management. This indicated how urgently the boatmen viewed mitigation and recovery efforts, so that they could return to work as usual.

Damage to infrastructure, superstructure, and the houses of communities, as well as fatalities due to earthquakes are logical consequences of the absence of a crises plan. Consequently, it is vital for BPBD to formulate crises scenarios. This, however, shows that the planning aspect is still problematic. According to the Head of the Tourism Destination Division, the crises plan at Gili Trawangan is available for North Lombok and implemented through policies, crises planning principles, scenarios, procedures, and targets in a crises management framework (Abd El-Jalil, 2013) and based on a knowledge extractor, knowledge server, and knowledge manager (Jia,

Shi, Jia, & Li, 2012). Meanwhile, BAPPEDA of North Lombok was considered less active, as it was outside the strategic level of stakeholder involvement (Waligo et al., 2013). There were indications of disharmony among various stakeholders. Similarly, the Head of the Communication and Information Office in North Lombok was not involved in managing the crisis. In this case, the Communication and Information Office was categorised as a fringe stakeholder (Khazaei, Elliot, & Joppe, 2015), and considered a party with weak relation and participation.

On the other hand, the detection of crisis signals by the hotel management of Villa Ombak, Ombak Sunset, and Ombak Paradise was considered better during the rescue process, by ordering all guests to gather on a hill. From a stakeholder perspective (Miles, 2017), hotel staff or employees at Hotel Villa Ombak were recipients and claimants to the crisis in Gili Trawangan.

Management During the Crisis

The rescue and evacuation (R&E) efforts by BPBD were effective, although it encountered various obstacles and challenges, such as limited facilities and resources and difficulties reaching evacuation sites due to damaged roads or routes. There were indications that the readiness of human resources and instruments were still problematic. Stakeholder theory is a normative theory (Enyinna, 2013) and its instrumental nature means that BPBD could play any role of recipients. On the other hand, R&E efforts were also done by tour guides. In other words, there was the spirit of mutual cooperation or togetherness that emerged when the 2018 earthquake hit Gili Trawangan, Lombok. The tour guides also demonstrated that the role of ASITA NTB as a key stakeholder in the R&E process, especially in providing transportation, was played.

Psychosocial assistance such as empowerment and incentive provision were considered ineffective. In terms of psychographics, the community was actually not ready to recover, due to trauma and limited skills. In this case, the BPBD could act as claimants, claiming responsibility for disaster management and as a collaborator (Miles, 2017), inviting the community to rebuild damaged facilities and infrastructure collaboratively.

Reviving tourism activities post-crisis was critical in the context of normalisation of tourism. The response from the industry (e.g., Hotel Villa Ombak) was that a progressive step would be to organise tourism events and promotions abroad through “table top” or “sales call”, in order to convince tour operators and tourists alike to visit Gili Trawangan. The tours and travel sector also had a strong desire to revive tourism activities in Gili Trawangan. The expectation was related to the government as a responsible body for rehabilitation and reconstruction of infrastructure in destinations, in view of creating a sense of safety. Other efforts could be applied, such

as promotions through the media, safety campaigns, organising large-scale events, welcoming or attracting overseas customers, and carrying out farm trips. Finally, the response from the community about the waste problem marring views was a major issue delivered by cross-stakeholders. In addition, another community expectation was to be able to receive loan interest reductions from banks.

Post-crisis Management

Several lessons learned from the mitigation efforts and emergency response activities were the importance of having a crises management plan, human resource readiness and preparedness, along with the availability of other supporting resources. Seismic provisions in building codes could be a solution to infrastructure damage due to earthquakes or tremors. Massive recovery of human resources in tourism has not been performed, although refreshment through education and training for hotel employees or staff has been conducted. Community empowerment has also been provided by *pokdarwis* (a tourism activists group). The existence of job training centres has been beneficial in preparing tourism human resources at the basic level. The final task of the post-crises phase is to restore the image of tourism destinations. The efforts of the Regional Tourism Promotion Board (BPPD) as influencers to inspire foreign buyers and tour operators to send guests to Gili Trawangan, hold table tops, and attend world promotion events, have been executed.

Implications of Crisis Management

There are three implications. The first is the drastic decrease in the level of tourist visits. At the end of 2019, the rate of tourist visits was only 70%, according to the Head of the Destination Division of the Tourism Department of North Lombok. Meanwhile, according to a tourist from Chile:

(...) We spent five days in Gili Trawangan, then went back to Bali. We are not afraid of the earthquake. In my country, Chile, we also have natural disasters. Well, we would recommend this place. It is okay because many countries also have natural disasters. (February 20, 2020)

Based on the statements above, the earthquake is considered a common phenomenon not only in Lombok, but also in other countries that experience this natural disaster. From the level of comparison (Richard & Emerson, 1976), tourists compared the natural disasters in Gili Trawangan with the ones in other places such as Chile and other countries, and concluded that they were regular phenomena. This means that these tourists are accustomed to the situation and not

afraid of earthquakes, emphasising that their travel was not affected much by natural disasters. The value that can be learned here is the willingness of tourists to give recommendations to other tourists to visit Gili Trawangan.

The second implication is that the profession and business of business practitioners, including tourism workers in the hotel sector, are threatened. Several hotel managements have enacted policies of working hour reduction based on shifts and some have even terminated their employees' employment contracts. According to the perspective of social exchange theory (SET) (Richard & Emerson, 1976), the context above explains that the symptoms of the exchange process between the hotel managements and the employees in a social relation are non-dynamic or static, and even unbalanced. Furthermore, tourism is the first sector to be affected by the crisis. There was a drop in the turnover of street vendors, from over IDR1,000,000 before the earthquake to IDR400,000 to IDR500,000 after the earthquake. Meanwhile, from the SET perspective, the exchange process can be viewed as a separate value from the 50% decrease in the street vendors' turnover post-earthquake. Enforcement by the local government as the exchange process approached normal conditions after the situation improved, followed by the reopening of businesses, was key for the street vendors and their livelihoods.

The third implication is the existence of the untapped opportunity of niche markets, particularly cultural tourism products. If this can be capitalised on, Gili Trawangan will have a complete tourism product as a value-added destination, making this the island's new brand. The impact on the social life of the community is also felt after the implementation of working hour reduction and termination of some employees' employment contracts. The role of the media—in this case, Television of Indonesia in West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) province—has shown a fast response in media coverage of the earthquake, as well as the control over the news and changing it into content to promote safe destinations.

Generic Model of Crisis Management at Gili Trawangan, Lombok

This model can be implemented and tested in any small island destination that is experiencing disaster and tourism crisis. The model is named The Gilis Lombok. Its name is given based on the characteristics of the small islands in the Village of Gili Indah, namely Gili Air, Gili Meno, and Gili Trawangan. One of the uniqueness of this model lies in its name (The Gilis), which means that this model can be employed should small islands in other places face a crisis or disaster. The following Figure 1 shows the five steps of using The Gilis Lombok: preparation, focus of programme, method, output, and follow up.

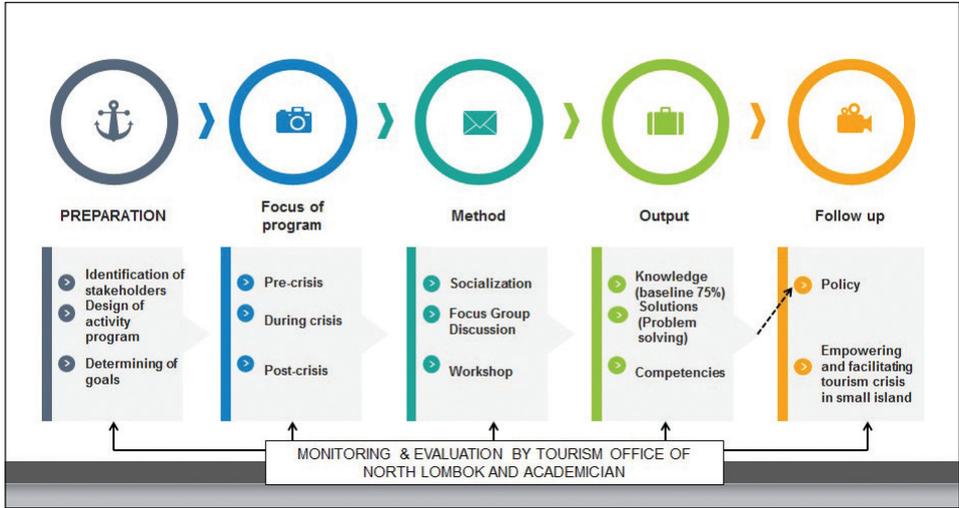


Figure 1. The Gilis Lombok

Step 1: Making preparations

The first step involves the Tourism Office of North Lombok Regency (the key stakeholder) initiating and conducting a meeting with the relevant stakeholders, which include (a) the Regional Disaster Prevention Board (BPBD) of West Nusa Tenggara (NTB), (b) the Board of the Meteorology, Climatology and Geophysics Agency (BMKG), (c) the Regional Planning and Development Agency (BAPPEDA), (d) the Board of the National Search and Rescue Agency (BASARNAS), (e) the Office of Social Services, (f) the Office of Information and Communication (Hubkominfo), (g) academicians, (h) tourism businesses, (i) the local community at Gili, and (j) the media. The aim of this meeting is to be well-prepared in responding to any pre-crisis, by identifying the interests of stakeholders, designing activity programmes, and determining goals.

Step 2: Setting up the focus of activity

The efforts during pre-crisis focus on planning for crisis scenarios, crisis signal detection, and prevention and mitigation. During the crisis, the focus is on rescue and evacuation, providing psychosocial assistance, and reopening tourism businesses. Lastly, during post-crisis, the focus is on rehabilitation and reconstruction of destinations, recovery of human resources and the image of destinations, as well as promotion and marketing.

Step 3: Determining the method of implementation

To execute the programmes (mentioned in Step 2), socialisation is employed during pre-crisis, focus group discussions are carried out during the crisis, whereas workshops are conducted during post-crisis.

Step 4: Setting up the output

Based on the methods, the baseline indicator for knowledge gain is 75% in socialisation programmes. Solutions or problem solving is provided throughout the focus group discussions, and the competency of stakeholders during a disaster or crisis is derived from the workshops.

Step 5: Following up

The whole process results in a policy from the local government. Furthermore, this fifth step involves the empowering and facilitating of the stakeholders in managing tourism crises. Finally, monitoring and evaluations are performed by the Tourism Office of North Lombok Regency and academicians to gain feedback and to ensure sustainability of crises management in Gili Trawangan, Lombok.

Conclusion

This research concludes three points. First, short-term crises management is neither effective nor efficient, while medium-term and long-term crises management are well-managed. Second, the tourism crises management at Gili Trawangan, Lombok, has implications in terms of:

- (a) the decrease of tourist visits,
- (b) the threat to the business and jobs of tourism workers,
- (c) the disruption of local community life,
- (d) the creation of good opportunities for cultural tourism products in niche markets, and
- (e) the strengthening of the media's role in reporting crises.

Third, the availability of a generic model called the Gilis Lombok.

Research Findings

This study formulated two findings; theoretical and empirical. One of the theoretical findings was that stakeholder theory needed to be reinforced by other theories, such as the planning and management theory, during the pre-crisis phase. In addition,

social exchange theory (SET) generally occurred in social settings that were not dynamic and not balanced. Furthermore, the tourism crises management theory made a positive contribution to each phase of the crisis. One empirical finding, on the other hand, was the urgency of building facilities and infrastructure by paying attention to earthquake-resistant building structures. Other aspects were returning to local wisdom by building houses on stilts to reduce the impact of wreckage, using *bale lumbung* (a traditional Lombok house for storing rice) for food security during crises, and having mutual cooperation to maintain togetherness in crises management at every phase. Another empirical finding was the compilation of a disaster-resilient destination model.

Suggestions

For a better and more comprehensive study of future tourism crises management, two suggestions are presented: First, future research should expand on the field of study. Thus, it should not focus only on natural disasters, but also include human-induced crises and non-natural factors. Second, the limitations of this study are its small sample size of respondents and the dominance of qualitative approaches. Hence, further research should consider an increase in the number and types of respondents, as well as the use of a quantitative approach in a balanced manner.

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Empirical Paper

Understanding Consumer Attitude Towards Persons with Disabilities

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Abstract: The adoption of 17 sustainable development goals (SDGs) by the United Nations General Assembly reflects the importance of persons with disabilities (PWDs), seeing that 11 of those goals are indirectly related to issues concerning PWDs. Employment of this special group as part of the workforce in the hospitality industry is currently being recognised. Many researchers have acknowledged the ability of and commitment shown by PWDs at work, and noted the loyalty proven by the positive acceptance by employers and co-workers. However, the attitude of consumers towards PWDs working in fast-food restaurants remains wanting in the literature. The main focus of this study is to investigate the consumers' attitude towards the inclusion of PWDs as service staff in fast-food restaurants. In this quantitative study, the data was collected using questionnaires as soon as the customers exited from the restaurants. A total of 302 survey respondents shared their views about their attitude on satisfaction and attitude on trust, based on their own experience with fast-food restaurant service staff who were PWDs. Using socially responsible purchase, the reaction towards PWDs, and religiosity as antecedents, the results of the structural equation modelling (SEM) technique used revealed two important findings. It was found that (1) the consumers' socially responsible purchase and reaction towards PWDs significantly influenced their formation of attitude on satisfaction and attitude on trust, whereas (2) religiosity lacked any impact. The impact of this research was creating awareness about the importance of including PWDs in the hospitality workforce because this allows their employment to be sustainable in the industry. In addition, fostering positive perspectives towards their services could plausibly increase trust among future employers. In light of the limited published research on consumer attitudes towards PWDs in the food service industry in Malaysia, this paper also aims to provide insight into the acceptance of PWDs.

Keywords: Persons with disabilities (PWDs), fast food, attitude, social responsible purchase, corporate social responsibility (CSR)

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Introduction

The role and significance of persons with disabilities (PWDs) is important (Wolbring, Mackay, Rybchinski, & Noga, 2013) in the sustainable development goals (SDGs) by United Nation 2015, where 11 out of 17 SDGs focus on this community. Globally, the employment of PWDs is considered a viable alternative for managers seeking diversification in their workforces (Kalargyrou & Costen, 2017). In Malaysia, around 480,000 PWDs were registered under welfare service in 2019 alone, with consistent new registrations estimated at 40,000 people every year (Department of Statistics, Malaysia, 2021). Notwithstanding this number, research on PWDs from the perspective of consumers has been scarce, especially in the food service business. Many also believe that the inclusion of PWDs at the workplace will be costly in terms of training and accommodating them. The never-ending stigma has always been their lower productivity level and difficulty in communication. Little do we know that all this came about due to a lack of knowledge of how effective a PWDs can be (Gröschl, 2011, 2012) and as a result, PWDs become victims of discrimination (Abdul Wahab & Ayub, 2016). Similarly, in Malaysia, the community of PWDs face the same prejudice (Mohamed Osman & Mohamad Diah, 2017).

Much of the available literature on PWDs deal with the issues of employment, barriers, and challenges. Meanwhile, Hashim and Wok (2014) and Jasper and Waldhart (2013) were more concerned with the ability and the good performance of PWDs at the workplace. Moreover, a large volume of prominent studies have described the role of corporate social responsibility (CSR) as a platform to address the issues faced by PWDs. In a seminal article, Kalargyrou (2014) wrote that companies participated in CSR initiatives by hiring PWDs as a tool of differentiation. Corporate social responsibility was also used to gain a competitive advantage (Chow, Yeow, Cheak, Wong, & Yeo, 2012).

The issues involving PWDs are complex. The high dependency of PWDs on the government or charitable organisations is perceived as taking the easy way out, but this does not help with the acceptance of PWDs. Based on this argument, Gröschl (2012) suggested further research to explore the ethical and discriminatory implications on PWDs. Furthermore, research to date has consistently shown that CSR has focused mostly on issues such as environmental sustainability (Savolainen, 2016), community benefits (Kim, Kim, & Mattila, 2017), and public health or social marketing (Firestone, Rowe, Modi, & Sievers, 2017; Truong & Hall, 2017). Likewise, research on PWDs in Malaysia has placed much emphasis on employment

challenges and the issues of barriers and accessibility (Lee, Abdullah, & Mey, 2011; Tiun & Khoo, 2013). The generalisability of much of the published research on this issue is, therefore, problematic. This indicates a need to understand the inclusion of PWDs beyond CSR initiatives, and not merely charity. For example, understanding how this influences consumers' attitude and behavioural intention towards PWDs. González and Fernández (2016) stated that, if consumers continued to accept the goodwill, there was a chance of neglecting the possibility of including PWDs in the value chain of the system.

In light of these developments, the purpose of this paper is to present empirical evidence of how socially responsible purchases of consumers relate to their attitude formation towards PWDs working as service staff in fast-food restaurants. This paper also seeks to investigate how consumers' reaction towards PWDs and religiosity influence their own attitude on satisfaction and attitude on trust.

Literature Review

Persons with Disabilities

Although it has long been recognised that employees with disabilities are recipients of workplace discrimination, there is also plenty of empirical evidence in the literature that supported PWDs as a pool of untapped human resource in many parts of the world, including in a developing country such as Malaysia (Houtenville & Kalargyrou, 2015; Islam, 2015; Khoo, Tiun, & Lee, 2013; Tiun & Khoo, 2013; Tiun, Lee, & Khoo, 2011). More studies in Malaysia postulated that, despite the difficulties faced by a company in hiring PWDs, these staff were found to be loyal to their work (Hashim & Wok, 2014; Hashim, Amir Ishak, & Ab. Ghani Hilmi, 2017; Tiun & Khoo, 2013). Many studies related to disabilities have been advocating the inclusion of PWDs both in the workplace as well as the community (Abdul Wahab & Ayub, 2016; Mohamed Osman & Mohamad Diah, 2017).

It is high time that PWDs be treated fairly and accordingly, instead of being a charity-focused community. Since PWDs are legal citizens and part of the community, they have equal right to enjoy all existing facilities in the country, as well as participate in all aspects of national development without any discrimination. However, the crux of the matter is, even if PWDs were to secure a job, they mostly land low-level work that offers meagre income (Abdul Wahab & Ayub, 2016). Even though many studies have shown that companies may benefit from employing PWDs through an improved workforce, benefits accrued from diversity, and the broad concept of CSR, the statistics of employed PWDs are still low (Bengisu & Balta, 2011; Gröschl, 2007, 2012; Houtenville & Kalargyrou, 2015; Jasper & Waldhart, 2013). Nonetheless, most of these studies were conducted outside of Malaysia, thus more attention from different perspectives are required. Hence, an investigation to

determine the acceptance of consumers towards PWDs in a Malaysian context is as much needed as it is timely.

Consumers are another type of stakeholders who are sensitive to information (Rhou, Singal, & Koh, 2016). Additionally, they are the most influential group (Fatma & Rahman, 2015). Indeed, a study in Malaysia suggested that future researches redirect the focus from the employment issue of PWDs to the behaviour of consumers instead (Hashim & Wok, 2014). Similarly, many other studies agreed with this notion by arguing that the conformations from the consumers were just as important (González & Fernández, 2016; Kalargyrou & Volis, 2014; Kang, 2013; Kuo & Kalargyrou, 2014; Wehman, 2011; Yusof, Ali, & Salleh, 2014). This was also supported by Tracey (2014), who recommended consumer evaluation towards PWDs as essential.

The Fast-food Industry in Malaysia

Malaysia's fast-food industry faces competitive challenges just like any other industry around the world. There are over 2,500 fast-food outlets in the country, representing more than 240 products (Mohamed & Mohd Daud, 2012). As with many mature industries, intense competition and the high expectations of consumers have forced the fast-food industry to evolve from a product-centric approach to a customer-centric approach (Huam, Seng, Thoo, Rasli, & Abd Hamid, 2011). The Malaysian fast-food industry is similar to other food service sectors in many countries. The fast-food industry in Malaysia is extensive and fast-food restaurants are set up through a franchising system all over the country. Furthermore, according to the Services Producer Price Index (SPPI) that includes accommodation and food and beverage service operations, the fast-food industry has contributed +2.9% to the growth in 2018 (Department of Statistics, Malaysia, 2018).

In Malaysia, fast food is the most preferred choice for a majority of customers due to its quick meal preparation time (Xiao, Yang, & Iqbal, 2019). Therefore, in the highly competitive restaurant industry, staying competitive should be the critical objective of businesses to remain viable. According to the literature, companies may build their competitive advantage through CSR (Dara Singh, Islam, & Ku Ariffin, 2015). Studies have suggested that hospitality companies implement CSR activities as a business marketing strategy to achieve competitive advantage and build long-term relationships with customers (Fatma, Rahman, & Khan, 2016; Kalargyrou, 2014; Martínez & del Bosque, 2013). It is undoubtedly imperative for businesses to really understand the relevant key issues, in order to effectively communicate CSR activities to consumers (Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2010) and how it influence consumers attitude (Su, Pan, & Chen, 2017). In relation to the current study, the critical link between PWDs working as service staff and customer behaviour has greater impact, given the characteristics of the restaurant industry. While many argue

that the factors influencing consumers' evaluation of CSR initiatives remain largely unexplored as a research area (Öberseder, Schlegelmilch, Murphy, & Gruber, 2014; Panigyrakis, Panopoulos, & Koronaki, 2020), Mohr and Webb (2005) have long found that the public was likely to purchase from a company which exceeded a minimum tolerable level of CSR.

PWDs Corporate Social Responsibility Agenda

Evidence suggested that an increasing number of food service companies have recognised the importance of CSR and pledged their support by employing PWDs by virtue of CSR (Heera & Devi, 2016; Islam, 2015; Jasper & Waldhart, 2013; Kuo & Kalargyrou, 2014). Table 1 shows the fast-food companies in Malaysia that are committed to providing employment for PWDs. These companies were found to disclose their CSR initiatives on their official websites. They have embarked on many kinds of CSR activities, including hiring PWDs as their service staff. According to the official website of QSR Brands (M) Holdings Bhd, Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC) started hiring PWDs since 1986 until today. One of the outlets located in Sentul Raya, Kuala Lumpur, is known as its community restaurant, where most of the staff there are PWDs. Similarly, McDonald's Malaysia also provides career opportunities for PWDs. On the other hand, Starbucks Malaysia is the pioneer in establishing a smart partnership with The Society of Interpreters for the Deaf (S.I.D.) in welcoming the PWDs community to the workforce. The consumer attitude towards these positive initiatives, however, remains unknown. It is important to reiterate that the scope of this paper is an investigation of how socially responsible consumers behave towards PWDs as service providers at these fast-food restaurants. Therefore, this study mainly focused on these three fast-food brands since they employed PWDs as part of their service teams, as disclosed on their respective official websites.

Table 1. Fast-food restaurants with PWDs as service staff

Companies	Brands	Official Websites
QSR Brands (M) Holdings Bhd	Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC)	www.kfc.com.my
Gerbang Alaf Restaurants Sdn Bhd	McDonald's	www.mcdonalds.com.my
Berjaya Corporation Berhad	Starbucks Coffee	www.starbucks.com.my

There is a large volume of prominent studies describing the role of CSR as a platform to address PWDs. This evidence was supported by Kalargyrou (2014), who conducted a series of studies about PWDs in the hospitality industry. In a seminal article, Kalargyrou showed that companies were performing their CSR by hiring

individuals with disabilities. Additionally, the author concluded that hiring PWDs was more than just a charitable deed; it could be a source of competitive advantage and innovation. Besides that, CSR could be useful as an artificial instrument in technological innovation to stimulate change in the future (Debnath, Dey, & Kar, 2016).

Meanwhile, evidence suggested that an increasing number of hospitality companies were committed to employing PWDs by virtue of CSR (Heera & Devi, 2016; Islam, 2015; Jasper & Waldhart, 2013; Kuo & Kalargyrou, 2014). Case in point: in 1989, the “Bridges from School to Work” programme was established for PWDs in the United States by the Marriott Foundation. This programme has since helped more than a thousand young individuals with disabilities to prepare for the workplace (Kuo & Kalargyrou, 2014). In Malaysia, an estimated 2.4 million people are employed (Department of Social Welfare, 2015). However, only 17,000 PWDs have managed to secure jobs in the private sector (Tiun & Khoo, 2013). Based on this number, the employment of PWDs in the workforce is evidently low, in spite of the government’s allocated employment quota of 1% in the public sector and 3% in the private sector for PWDs.

In developing countries, PWDs still face difficulties to fully achieve social participation (Islam, 2015) due to social factors such as negative attitudes towards the integration of PWDs into the mainstream (Palad et al., 2016). Negative attitudes towards PWDs create barriers for them to obtain education, occupation, and a domestic life. On the contrary, Palad et al. (2016) noted that when attitudes were supportive of PWDs, this simultaneously increased the acceptance of PWDs among family members, neighbours, and even people at the workplace. Therefore, they advocated for the notion of social barriers to be addressed, in order to enable PWDs to have rights and an improved quality of life.

For Malhotra, Hall, Shaw, and Oppenheim (2004), attitude is a predisposition to respond in a certain way. They considered it as important because attitude in many circumstances was related to behaviour. Schiffman, Kanuk, and Wisenblit (2010) defined attitude as a learned tendency to behave in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with regard to a given object. The key features in this definition were tendency, entity or attitude object, and evaluation. Since the definition of attitude varies among researchers, it is important to clarify how the term is put into context. This shows a need to be explicit about exactly what is meant by the word “attitude” and socially responsible behaviour. The research question of this paper is: “How does socially responsible behaviour play a role in attributing the attitude?” Indeed, the most widely accepted definition of attitude perceives it as an evaluation (Cha, Yi, & Bagozzi, 2016). Therefore, this study investigated the attitude on satisfaction and attitude on trust of consumers towards the services provided by PWDs.

Socially Responsible Purchase and Consumer Attitude

The process to become a socially responsible consumer seems to come from a pattern strongly influenced by life experience (González & Fernández, 2016). For years, researchers have witnessed a remarkable growth in research on CSR in both conceptual and empirical terms. However, the success of CSR activities is determined by the commitment of the business stakeholders such as consumers or the end users (Manning, 2013; Quazi, Amran, & Nejati, 2016; Vitell, 2015). Therefore, Quazi et al. (2016) pointed out that there was an urgency to empirically investigate the issues with socially responsible consumers as consumers were the ones who played a significant role, because this in turn could be the catalyst of CSR and its success. This was supported by Vitell (2015), who also called for the advancement of more empirical research in consumer social responsibility to ascertain in what way it would affect consumer satisfaction and intention. After all, customer satisfaction is significant, and it may be the indicator of customers' future purchase behaviour.

Kotler and Armstrong (2012) stated that customer satisfaction was the level of one's feelings after comparing the performance of products against one's expectations. Historically, Oliver (1980) regarded customer satisfaction as an emotional reaction, resulting from any specific business deal. Similarly, satisfaction became a function, as an evaluation by customers that the product or service they have received was as it should be (Choi & Chu, 2001). This showed that satisfaction was all about attracting and influencing the customers' emotions and attitudes to pave the way for more support for the company (Ali, Alvi, & Ali, 2012). Because satisfaction is often linked with gaining profits, the issues of customer satisfaction have become the focus of all organisations in the food service industry (Omar, Ariffin, & Ahmad, 2016). As proven before, more and more companies were committed to assessing and improving their products and services to attract customers (Gilbert & Veloutsou, 2006). Therefore, the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of consumers is a response to the evaluation of discrepancy or disconfirmation perceived between previous expectations and actual service performance that is felt after use (Afifah & Asnan, 2015).

Vitell (2015) demonstrated that trust was a prerequisite for consumer social responsibility. Since trust was considered key to building relationships within the food service industry, many researchers documented the role of trust towards the creation of many benefits. However, much of the research up to now has focused on trust as a variable in the business-to-business and business-to-customer contexts. The generalisability of much of the published research on this issue is, thus, problematic. Few authors, however, have been able to draw on the role of trust in a specific scope. One study by González and Fernández (2016) examined responsible consumerism towards disability, and found that responsible companies were rewarded with the loyalty of consumers simply because the latter trusted them. Similarly, a few studies investigated the effect of socially responsible initiatives on customers' responses in

the restaurant context. These studies found that socially responsible companies had a positive effect on consumers' satisfaction, trust, and identification (Swimberghe & Wooldridge, 2014). These findings were supported by Marín, Cuestas, and Román (2016), who wrote that interpersonal trust had a positive influence on the motives that consumers attributed to CSR. Based on this discussion, the researchers developed the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a: Socially responsible behaviour is the antecedent of consumer attitude on satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1b: Socially responsible behaviour is the antecedent of consumer attitude on trust.

Reaction Towards PWDs and Attitude

Persons with disabilities (PWDs) have been highly stigmatised and at a disadvantage throughout history (Ibrahim & Ismail, 2018; Page & Islam, 2015). Researchers noted that it was important to have direct contact with PWDs in order for people to fully understand the situation. Although Kuo and Kalargyrou found in 2014 that disability did not affect consumers, it was discovered that misunderstandings and undesirable attitudes towards PWDs had a significant impact on the interactions with PWDs, especially from individuals without disabilities (Carlson & Witschey, 2018). It has been argued that individuals without disabilities frequently perceived PWDs as emotionally unstable, socially and functionally incompetent, sick, and suffering (Sullivan & Glidden, 2014). Study also showed that PWDs may be an inspiration and, at the same time, produce empathy in those without disabilities (Fox & Marini, 2012). This indicated a need to understand the various perceptions of PWDs that exist among consumers who visit fast-food restaurants.

To date, the reaction towards PWDs in the workplace has generated increasing attention in research. Nevertheless, Lindsay, Cagliostro, Albarico, Mortaji, and Karon (2018) identified a gap in the literature pertaining to the benefits of having PWDs within society. Consequently, there were several investigations wherein the assimilation of PWDs into the general population was discussed, in the effort to promote and encourage positive attitudes towards PWDs. Armstrong, Morris, Abraham, and Tarrant (2017), for example, conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis to improve the attitude among children towards disabilities by promoting direct contact with PWDs. Similarly, to overcome the barrier of negative perceptions among members of the public, previous studies have suggested high direct involvement between the public and PWDs to foster positive societal attitudes (MacMillan, Tarrant, Abraham, & Morris, 2014; Scior, 2011). Therefore, the most likely impetus of a positive attitude towards PWDs is the interaction of PWDs

themselves with society. Hence, based on this discussion, the researchers developed the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2a: Reaction towards PWDs is the antecedent of consumer attitude on satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2b: Reaction towards PWDs is the antecedent of consumer attitude on trust.

Religiosity and Attitude

Religiosity seems to play a role in consumer social responsibility and behaviour. Religion also guides its believers in owning and using goods and services. The prohibition of the use of certain goods and services is widely known. For example, it is common knowledge that Muslims are prohibited from consuming pork and alcohol, whereas the Hindus do not consume beef for religious reasons that deem cows as sacred. Hence, marketing literature has recognised religion as a key and constant element of culture, which greatly influence behaviour and, later, purchasing behaviour (Butt, 2016; Dusuki & Tengku Mohd Yusof, 2008; Essoo & Dibb, 2004; Ramasamy, Yeung, & Au, 2010; Vitell, 2015).

Thus, religiosity has two significant and distinct dimensions. The first is intrinsic religiosity, referring to more natural and spiritual objectives of religion or of living one's religion. Secondly, extrinsic religiosity, which refers to utilitarian motivations that might underlie religious behaviours or the use of one's religion (Vitell, 2015). According to Vitell (2015), religiosity was linked with ethical judgements according to the level of one's religious beliefs. However, it is important to note that earlier research has proven going to places of worship alone does not equate being religious (Wilkes, Burnett, & Howell, 1986). The in-depth study of socially responsible consumers by Vitell suggested that people with higher religious beliefs were likely to be more ethical, and vice versa. However, the second dimension (extrinsic religiosity) had a different impact on people that could lead to unethical or negative behaviours. Most importantly, these findings simply meant that people wanted to be seen as doing good, even if they did not really believe in the deed.

Ramasamy et al. (2010) found a significant direct relationship between religiosity and consumer support for CSR. The finding showed the intrinsic and extrinsic values of the consumers in Singapore and Hong Kong, who were more willing to pay premium prices for companies that practised "ethical behaviour". This was supported by Kuo and Kalargyrou (2014), who stated that consumers' personal characteristics could influence their buying behaviour. Ramasamy et al. also posited that religiosity had a great influence on values, which then affected attitudes and behaviour. According to Mokhlis (2009), there was a notable difference in the buying behaviour among consumers with different levels of religiosity. Therefore,

for the purpose of the current paper, it was postulated that uncertainties existed that might affect the religiosity of consumers and their attitudes towards PWDs working as service staff in fast-food restaurants. In view of all that was mentioned so far, this paper argues that one may be expected to link one’s religiosity towards one’s attitude, before proceeding with one’s next action. Therefore, it is important to include the religiosity concept in this study because it is essential to understand the extent of religiosity as antecedent to support PWDs as service staff in fast-food restaurants. Based on this discussion, the researchers developed the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a: Religiosity is the antecedent of consumer attitude on satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3b: Religiosity is the antecedent of consumer attitude on trust.

Research Framework

Based on the aforementioned hypotheses, the research framework is shown in Figure 1.

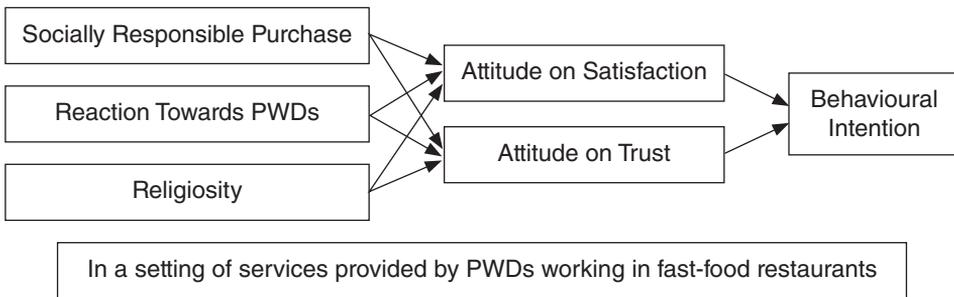


Figure 1. Research framework

Materials and Methods

Sampling

This study selected three fast-food brands for data collection purposes, namely Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC), McDonald’s, and Starbucks. The samples of fast-food outlets with PWDs as service staff were selected based on the major cities of four regions in Malaysia: Penang, Kuala Lumpur, Johor Bahru, and Kuantan. The study took place at the selected fast-food brands located in major shopping malls. To obtain a list of the relevant fast-food outlets, the store locator feature available on the official website of each of the brands was used. With the store locator feature, a list of fast-food outlets within shopping malls was compiled according to their addresses. The stores which included the name of the shopping malls were gathered. To narrow down the list, the outlets where PWDs were employed as service staff were then shortlisted. Thus, the outlets without PWDs as service staff were omitted. The data

collection sessions took place on the weekend when the customer traffic was higher. The data was collected using restaurant intercept techniques to capture the recency effect (Shamah, Mason, Moretti, & Raggiotto, 2018). The researchers collected the data via questionnaires given to respondents who had finished their meal or were about to leave the fast-food restaurants.

As a result of using the same process for each fast-food brand in all four regions, a total of 151 fast-food outlets were identified for this study (Table 2).

Table 2. Number of fast-food outlets visited in each region

Regions	Fast-food Brands Selected	Number of Outlets Visited
Penang Island	Kentucky Fried Chicken	14
	McDonald's	7
	Starbucks	7
Kuala Lumpur	Kentucky Fried Chicken	30
	McDonald's	17
	Starbucks	27
Johor Bahru	Kentucky Fried Chicken	18
	McDonald's	6
	Starbucks	8
Kuantan	Kentucky Fried Chicken	8
	McDonald's	6
	Starbucks	3
Total		151

The study had three predictors for the dependent variables of attitude on satisfaction and attitude on trust, namely socially responsible purchase, reaction towards PWDs, and religiosity. According to Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2014), a sample size of 200 to 500 people was sufficient for multivariate data analysis.

This study developed its questionnaires based on the instruments of previous studies, except for the demographic factors. The questionnaires were structured into two sections. Section 1 was designed to understand the characteristics of the samples with demographic questions. The questions were related to the respondents' income level, education level, social responsibility awareness, and encounter with PWDs. Answer options were used to measure the response to each of the questions. Section 2 was designed to measure the respondents' attitude on satisfaction, attitude on trust, reaction towards PWDs, and religiosity. This study adopted a 5-point

scale to measure the variables involved. The factor analysis was performed, and these Cronbach alpha reliability values were obtained:

- 0.96 for Attitude on Satisfaction,
- 0.92 for Attitude on Trust,
- 0.80 for Socially Responsible Purchase,
- 0.76 for Religiosity, and
- 0.575 for Reaction Towards PWDs.

Results and Discussion

In total, 302 administered questionnaires were retrieved from the selected KFC, McDonald’s, and Starbucks outlets. Table 3 presents the socio-demographic profile of the respondents. The response rate was 75.5%, where the majority of the respondents were females (169 people or 56.0%), followed by 133 males (44.0%). The biggest age group was represented by respondents between 15 and 25 years old. A total of 125 customers or 41.4% were students, followed by customers who were employees (158 people). In relation to their level of education, 252 customers were either completing or had already obtained their secondary level education or a bachelor’s degree. There were also 42 customers who were finishing their studies at either a Master’s or a PhD level. From the survey, it was obvious that the respondents visited the fast-food outlets mostly with their friends (158 responses), followed by with family members (92 responses), or alone (52 responses). Another striking finding was that 137 respondents (45.4%) did not notice the presence of the PWDs working as service staff. Although all service staff with disabilities wore badges to indicate their PWDs status, the customers had taken little notice. On the contrary, 231 respondents (76.7%) claimed to be socially responsible people.

Table 3. Socio-demographic profile of survey respondents (*n* = 302)

Variables	Categories	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Gender	Male	133	44.00
	Female	169	56.00
Age	15–25	180	59.60
	26–35	83	27.50
	36–45	27	8.94
	46–55	7	2.31
	56–70	5	1.65
Race	Malay	230	76.20
	Chinese	36	11.90
	Indian	10	3.30
	Others	26	8.60

Table 3 (con't)

Variables	Categories	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Religion	Muslim	252	83.44
	Buddhist	31	10.26
	Christian	9	2.98
	Hindu	5	1.66
	Others	5	1.66
Education Level	PhD or Master's degree	42	13.9
	Bachelor's degree	143	47.4
	Diploma or Certificate	63	20.9
	SPM	36	11.9
	PMR and below	10	3.3
	Others	8	2.6
Income Level	RM1,000 and below	38	12.58
	RM1,001–RM2,000	50	16.56
	RM2,001–RM3,000	49	16.23
	RM3,001–RM4,000	21	6.95
	More than RM4,000	19	6.29
	Not applicable	125	41.39
Sector	Public	36	11.9
	Private	121	40.1
	Self-employed	31	10.3
	Others	114	37.7
Visited the outlet	By myself	52	17.2
	With friends	158	52.3
	With family members	92	30.5
Number of visits	This is my first visit	20	6.65
	Two to five times	78	25.91
	More than five times	203	67.44
Noticed PWDs among service staff	Yes	83	27.48
	No	137	45.37
	Not sure	82	27.15
Claimed to be socially responsible	Yes	231	76.74
	No	22	7.31
	Not sure	48	15.95

The research applied SmartPLS 3.0 as the tool for partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). Hence, the research followed a two-step process approach, namely measurement model (outer model) and structural model (inner model). The PLS-SEM assessment was based on the two-step process of both models. Before testing the hypotheses, the measurement model needed to be assessed first. The

measurement model specified the relationship between the constructs. According to Hair et al. (2014), two types of validity was assessed under the measurement model. They were the convergent validity and discriminant validity.

Several items were deleted due to low loading (below 0.7) in their respective constructs. After deletion, the loading for each construct was above 0.7. The average variance extracted (AVE) values ranged from 0.572 to 0.818, which achieved the recommended value of 0.50 (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). This indicated a good level of construct validity of the measures used. Lastly, the composite reliability (CR) values ranged from 0.860 to 0.932, which also passed the recommended value of 0.7, as mentioned earlier. Therefore, the results confirmed the convergent validity of the measurement model or outer model of this study. Table 4 summarises the CRs, AVEs, and correlations among the latent variables.

Table 4. Convergent validity analysis

Constructs	Items	Loadings	AVEs	CRs
Attitude on Satisfaction	ACS1 ACS10 ACS14 ACS3 ACS4	0.758	0.572	0.930
	ACS5 ACS6 ACS7 ACS8 ACS9	0.726		
		0.702		
		0.782		
		0.723		
		0.773		
		0.824		
		0.753		
		0.755		
	0.760			
Attitude on Trust	ATT1 ATT2	0.824	0.725	0.913
	ATT3 ATT4	0.872		
		0.850		
		0.859		
Religiosity	REL1	0.901	0.815	0.898
	REL2	0.904		
Reaction Towards PWDs	ROP1	0.791	0.702	0.876
	ROP3 ROP4	0.856		
		0.865		
Socially Responsible Purchase	SRP10 SRP12 SRP15	0.755	0.606	0.860
	SRP9	0.816		
		0.832		
		0.704		

After confirming that the constructs’ measures were reliable and valid, the second step was to assess the structural model or inner model of this study. In other words, the

hypotheses relationships between the constructs were examined, as well as the measures of predictive capabilities. Standard error was used to determine the significance of coefficient. The bootstrapping technique was used to obtain the standard error value in SmartPLS 3.0. In order to run bootstrapping, 5,000 samples with the 293 cases were used. The *t*-values accompanying each path coefficient were generated using bootstrapping. When a *t*-value was larger than the critical value in a certain error probability, the coefficient was considered significant. For two-tailed tests, the critical values were 1.96 at a significant level of 0.05 or 5%, and 2.57 for a significant level of 0.01 or 1% (Hair et al., 2014). Researchers usually refer to 5% of a significant level for marketing research and 1% significant level for consumer research studies (Hair et al., 2014). Other than *t*-values, *p*-values were also reported. This refers to the probability of erroneously rejecting the null hypothesis, as shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Path coefficients and hypotheses testing

Hypotheses	Relationships	Path Coefficients	Standard Errors	<i>t</i> -values	<i>p</i> -values	Decisions
H1	Religiosity → Attitude on Satisfaction	0.083	0.056	1.499	0.067	Not supported
H2	Religiosity → Attitude on Trust	-0.003	0.069	0.045	0.482	Not supported
H3	Reaction Towards PWDs → Attitude on Satisfaction	0.393	0.056	7.025**	0.000	Supported
H4	Reaction Towards PWDs → Attitude on Trust	0.307	0.067	4.605**	0.000	Supported
H5	Socially Responsible Purchase → Attitude on Satisfaction	0.363	0.053	6.786	0.000	Supported
H6	Socially Responsible Purchase → Attitude on Trust	0.394	0.068	5.815	0.000	Supported

**The *t*-value is significant at *p*-value less than 0.01.

This paper focused on a less explored topic: consumers attitude towards PWDs working as service staff. The study found that socially responsible consumers and the reaction towards PWDs have a significant relationship with the formation of attitude on satisfaction and attitude on trust. Religiosity, on the other hand, did not influence consumers' attitudes on satisfaction and trust towards the services provided by PWDs working in fast-food restaurants. This result was also clearly shown in the demographic table (refer to Table 3), where 76.5% of the samples were consumers who believed they were socially responsible. Furthermore, this finding supported the idea of Quazi et al. (2016), who argued that consumers should act responsibly to minimise the impact of their behaviour on the community as well as on fellow citizens by maintaining a sense of responsibility and prudence on their purchasing and consumption behaviours. Additionally, this finding was also parallel with research by Houtenville and Kalargyrou (2015) and Siperstein, Romano, Mohler, and Parker (2006), who found positive acceptance from the consumers towards services offered by PWDs as workers. Therefore, it can be said that Malaysians were not only socially responsible consumers, but they also have a positive attitude on satisfaction and attitude on trust towards the services provided by PWDs working as service staff in fast-food restaurants.

Next, the results of this study indicated that reaction towards PWDs significantly influenced consumers' attitude on satisfaction and attitude on trust. Since the definition of reaction towards PWDs in the study was operationalised as the presence of PWDs in changing the attitudes of others, this finding was in line with Deal (2006), Pruett, Lee, Chan, Wang, and Lane (2008), and a relatively recent study by Barr and Bracchitta (2015). Those authors unanimously concluded that greater contact with PWDs promoted a more positive attitude towards PWDs. The literature showed that the more contact one has with PWDs, the more accurate one's view and the better one's understanding of them. Therefore, this study has met its intention by determining the reaction towards PWDs as the antecedent of consumers' attitude on satisfaction and attitude on trust.

Contrary to initial expectations of this study, the study did not find a significant relationship between religiosity and attitude on satisfaction as well as attitude on trust. The finding was similar to that of Butt (2016), whereby the author found that religiosity had no effect between perceived socially responsible behaviour and purchase intention. However, that study was done in Pakistan, in which the majority of the population is Muslim, hence there was no difference. However, contradictory to Ramasamy et al. (2010), religiosity was an important factor in Singapore and Hong Kong because a large proportion of welfare activities performed there by religious bodies was perceived as positive. Although Malaysia is a multicultural population with multireligious beliefs, the current study was not able to demonstrate that religiosity was the antecedent of the formation of attitude on satisfaction and

attitude on trust towards the services provided by PWDs as service staff in fast-food restaurants. While it is difficult to explain this result, it might be explained by the findings of Vitell, Singh, and Paolillo (2007) who found that intrinsic religiosity was consistently a determinant of consumer ethical beliefs, but extrinsic religiosity was not. The same study further explained that this simply meant: one wants to be seen as doing the right thing, even if he or she does not really believe in it.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that a positive relationship exists between socially responsible purchase and attitude on satisfaction and attitude on trust to experience the services provided by PWDs working in fast-food restaurants. Another positive finding is the reaction towards PWDs. This means that the presence of PWDs plays such an important role to influence consumers' attitude, hence positively influencing their behavioural intention towards PWDs. The evidence from this study suggests that when consumers have a favourable attitude towards PWDs, they will positively intend to experience the services provided by PWDs in the near future. Hence, socially responsible purchase, reaction towards PWDs, and attitude on satisfaction can lead to behavioural intention towards PWDs working in fast-food restaurants. On the other hand, religiosity is found to be less significant in any of the attitude formations and the intention to experience services provided by PWDs working in fast-food restaurants. This means that the intention to experience the services of PWDs in this context is based on the individual consumer's personal belief and decision rather than their religious belief. As a matter of fact, the consumers formed the intention to experience services provided by PWDs working in fast food based on their socially responsible purchase and the reaction towards PWDs rather than the feelings brought about by religiosity.

Finally, a number of important limitations need to be considered. One limitation of this study is the lack of diversity in terms of industries demographic, since this study focuses on one industry, that is, the fast-food industry. While the findings are useful as a preliminary study of the services provided by PWDs in fast-food restaurants, a wider scope of industries should also be assessed in order to examine the effects further.

Another limitation of this study is its scope. This study focuses on respondents of selected fast-food brands, namely KFC, McDonald's, and Starbucks. Further research is thus needed to establish whether other types of restaurants require the same examination.

The next limitation is the research design of this study. The study uses the survey method to gather the research data. Besides that, it concentrates only on the consumers as the unit of analysis. Therefore, it is suggested that future research could include PWDs as part of the research sample, as this may expand the understanding of the PWDs community and generate new research directions. It would also be

more interesting to assess the effects of PWDs working as service staff against the financial performance of companies. After all, CSR initiatives can result in financial gain, and vice versa (Rhou et al., 2016). It is recommended that further research undertake other methods of data collection in order to gain more insight, such as using experimental laboratory for new control objective or focus groups.

This study provides insight into the importance of PWDs in enhancing the customers' experience towards purchasing behaviour. The impact of positive personal real interactions with PWDs on product buying should inspire more confidence in future employers to hire PWDs. It can be suggested that hiring PWDs is plausible to attract more customers within certain strategies undertaken by the employees. Opportunities given by employers from the industry to PWDs will contribute to sustainable financial security for this community for future independence.

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Empirical Paper

Discordance in the Provisions of Tourism Destination Area (TDA) Management Towards Tourism Sustainability at Otak Kokok Joben

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Abstract: The success of the tourism sector in improving the standard of living in Indonesia, including the Otak Kokok Joben Tourism Destination Area (TDA) in Sikur district, East Lombok regency, reflects a positive development. This can be seen from the positive experiences of tourists. However, this is in contrast with the environmental conditions and the role of the community which demonstrate negative impacts. The present study examines how tourism management should be carried out and determines the factors that can lead to disharmony in sustainable tourism at TDAs. By analysing the management of TDA, it hopes to provide solutions for policy makers. Using a sample selected through purposive sampling, data collection and triangulation was conducted using observations, interviews and documents. The data were then analysed using Miles and Huberman's model. The findings show that the sustainability of Otak Kokok Joben is not promising despite its unique topography at the foot of Mount Rinjani, waterfalls, and natural pools as well as a cool climate (potential for wellness tourism). This is attributed to the discordance between the management and authorities which has led to poor management and poor stakeholder synergy. In summary, the study highly recommends the need for harmonisation among stakeholders by placing an overall coordinator who is well-versed with tourism management to manage norms, standards, procedures and criteria related to sustainable tourism.

Keywords: Discordance in provisions, TDA management, Otak Kokok Joben, overlap of jurisdiction, sustainable tourism

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Introduction

The success of the tourism sector in improving the standard of living in Indonesia, including the tourism destination area (TDA) of Otak Kokok Joben, which lies in Sikur District, East Lombok Regency, shows a positive trend. As a TDA famous for its agro-tourism and rural tourism, Otak Kokok Joben received 58,417 tourists in 2019, of which 37,364 were foreign tourists and 21,053 were domestic tourists. The occupancy rate was recorded at 27% and has demonstrated a declining trend since.

The declining stream of tourists, has unfortunately, negatively impacted the local community who depend on the rural tourism sector. A strong indicator of tourism success is helping the local community meet their economic needs (Kateřina, Ida, & Jakub, 2017). In other words, the main contribution of rural tourism is community welfare, as prescribed by Muresan et al. (2019) as well as Cheon and Hwang (2019). For continuous community welfare, rural tourism must be well managed with the full support of all government agencies (central and regional), non-governmental organisations and the local community (Blazeska, Milenkovski, & Gramatnikovski, 2015).

The combination of all these elements in governance plays an important role in the good management of a TDA. Effective tourism management must involve all tourism stakeholders so that the collective knowledge, ideas and aspirations, can be used to formulate tourism plans that are sustainable (Pulido-Fernández & Pulido-Fernández, 2019). The government has created a legal framework for coordination between government and non-government players with regard to norms, standards, procedures and criteria so that tourism can be properly managed to support community welfare. This framework is detailed in Law Number 10 of 2009 under Tourism Chapter VIII concerning the authority of government and local government in articles 28, 29 and 30 (Violetta, 2009). Similarly other supporting statutory provisions include Government Regulation Number 38 of 2007, regarding the division of government and regional government affairs, which is a provision to implement Law Number 32 of 2004.

Any regulations on governance at a TDA will be counterproductive if the main authority is not able to build a synergy with other authorities to carry out their respective functions (Article 1 Paragraph 5 of PP No. 38 of 2007), including cross-boundary governance collaborations. According to Qu Qin, Zeli Hu, Anle Liu, Yan Huang, and Fengtai Zhang (2020), the development of tourism for community welfare has a very significant correlation with the impacts on the ecological environment. Sobala and Myga-Piatek (2016) defined negative impacts on the environment as changes that cause landscape disturbances or disruptions, from spatial to ecological harmony. This in turn, will threaten tourism sustainability which is necessary to support the local community (Qu Qin et al., 2020).

The threats to sustainable tourism due to the discordance in management provisions and the absence of synergy in managing norms, standards, procedures and

criteria as well as overlapping jurisdictions can be seen clearly at Otak Kokok Joben. Thus, the present study hopes to understand better the extent and range of problems faced as a result of this discordance.

Literature Review

A successful TDA requires a firm planning and policy framework, specifically in competitiveness and management (Fyall & Garrod, 2018). Competitiveness is a particular, broad and complex concept without any generally accepted definition (Kozak, 2002; Kozak & Rimmington, 1999). Further, Ritchie and Crouch (2003) argued that the competitiveness of a destination refers to the ability to compete effectively and profitably in the tourism market, namely, to attract visitors by increasing the overall destination prosperity and welfare. Sustainability, on the other hand, is related to the ability of a destination to maintain the quality of its physical, cultural and environmental resources. Pike (2004) identified natural, cultural, human and goodwill resources as sources of comparative advantage, and highlighted development, financial, legal, organisational, information, relations and implementation resources as sources of competitive advantage.

This issue was further explored by Tood, Leask, and Fyall, (2015) in other geographical contexts such as Hong Kong, Macau and Singapore. While the involvement of related stakeholders in tourism management is vital, too many coordinators or managers can actually trigger chaos. Candra (2019) stressed that due to the complexity of problems faced, the collaboration between various elements of the society is necessary to bring together the relevant specific expertise. The contentious points that create discordance in the management of a destination commonly takes place during the collaboration process amongst stakeholders, namely government, private sectors, academics, media, and community. Nevertheless, Fyall and Garrod (2005) maintained that the complexities of a tourism destination are best managed through a collaborative process.

The government plays an important role in regulating the management of TDAs. The functions, roles and overall management of entities created to manage destinations have come under much scrutiny since the late 2000s as destinations face many evolving threats; the most significant among them being the loss of public funds, the dynamic nature of tourist demand, and an insatiable desire for new and better destination experiences (Carter, 2006). Fyall and Garrod (2018) suggested that based on threats or challenges faced, tourist destinations are generally not independent nor closed systems. Instead, they represent clear and open systems. Their success depends on their interactions with other systems: politically, socio-culturally, physically, and economically.

According to Fennell and Dowling (2003), the concept underlying sustainable tourism development is to raise ecological and social development to the same

level as tourism management. Government Regulation (PP) Number 38 of 2007, concerning the division of government and regional government affairs for norms, standards, procedures and criteria, however, does not cover (empty law) collaborations between stakeholders which has resulted in conflicts of interest and heightened discord among TDA stakeholders. This in turn, threatens the sustainability of destinations.

Methodology

This study aims to analyse the discordance in the management of Otak Kokok Joben. A qualitative approach, case study, was selected whereby an event, an activity, a process or a group of individuals who live in and around the destination in a certain time period and stakeholder activities are carefully investigated to answer the research question (Creswell, 2010).

The participants were selected from stakeholder groups based at the destination and who truly understand the problem as well as are available (purposive sampling). They include government representatives such as the Head of Tourism Department, Head of Environmental Department, Head of Forestry Office, Manager of Rinjani National Park, Head of Sub-District, Head of Village and Head of Hamlet as well as religious heads, community leaders, the local community who work as workers and managers, tourists and the locals. Data were collected through unstructured observations to help the researcher stay flexible in obtaining data about the area, managers, workers and tourists.

The observations were complemented by in-depth interviews as well as unstructured interviews (Sugiyono, 2017) so that the data collected remain free and open. To support the observation and the interview findings, the researcher also collected supplementary data from written documents such as policy regulations about destinations. The researcher then triangulated the data collected from the observation, the interviews and the documents to increase the reliability of the data so that they are more consistent, complete, and valid.

The data were then analysed using Miles and Huberman's model (Sugiyono, 2017) to attain data saturation. Next, during the data reduction process, the main points were summarised focusing on the main items to derive emerging themes. Computer programmes were used to speed up the coding process on certain aspects. After the data reduction process, for the data presentation process, short narrative texts were prepared to help present the data for easier understanding. The last stage involved drawing conclusions and initial verification. Before the final credible conclusions were extracted, new data were collected to obtain valid and consistent evidence regarding the problems that exist in Otak Kokok Joben.

Results and Discussion

1. The Management of Otak Kokok Joben

a. *Geographic Conditions of Otak Kokok Joben*

Geographically, Otak Kokok Joben is located in Pesanggrahan Village, Sikur Sub-District, East Lombok Regency, covering an area of 78.27 km², 229 – 683 m above sea level. Based on its geographical position, Otak Kokok Joben holds much promise for tourism with its unique topography located at the foot of Mount Rinjani, natural waterfalls and ponds, and cool climate (wellness tourism).



(Source: East Lombok Central Bureau of Statistics)

Figure 1. Map of Otak Kokok Joben TDA, located in Sikur District, East Lombok

b. *TDA Management*

A successful and competitive destination management is generally determined by the state and has a significant positive effect on all aspects, specifically economic, social, cultural and environment. However, the findings revealed that the quality of Otak Kokok Joben's environmental resources has been compromised as evidenced from the poor hygiene, broken or non-functional amenities and area managers who run their own programmes out of sync. In this regard, Ritchie and Crouch (2003) stressed that sustainability should be related to the ability of a destination to maintain the quality of its physical, cultural and environmental resources in the competitive market.

The interview results revealed that some businesses are thriving whilst others are not. The regulation of these businesses comes under the purview of various authorities but the village officials hope to take over as a one-stop authority. Although there have been discussions on this matter, nothing has yet to materialise. Further, there is not a single cultural activity in this destination. Croes and Semrad (2018) stated that tourism products are a form of elastic income, meaning that all members of the local community at tourism destinations can gain benefits.

2. The Causative Factors of Discordance in TDA Management

The discordance caused by the provisions of Otak Kokok Joben's TDA management cannot be seen as an independent phenomenon. As a country that adheres to the rule of law, it is necessary to consider whether the legal provisions (the substances) can be a causal factor for the haphazard TDA management. If we talk about the management, it is clearly related to the authority. Based on Law No. 10 of 2009 concerning tourism, while the authorities of central, provincial and district governments are mentioned, their respective jurisdictions and functions in a particular administrative area have not been clearly spelt out. In other words, the different government levels (central/regional) may not have authority and cannot exercise power on specific issues (Ridwan, 2011). Further, according to Law No. 32 of 2004 concerning the Division of Government Affairs which is further described in Rule No. 32 of 2007, it turns out that there are no provisions on the regulation of norms, standards, procedures and criteria to avoid any authority overlap, even though it is a national policy. This renders the situation difficult and insolvable.

In addition, as the government agency elected as the implementing body to manage Otak Kokok Jeben (Efendi, 2020), the management conflict between Rinjani National Park Center and the East Lombok government has intensified over the decades. Mr. Sahir, the ticketing man, stated that the conflict was due to each party claiming over the management rights of Otak Kokok Joben. At the national level, the government agency may be able carry out coordination faster than any other agency. But this is less doable at the lower level. Mr. Sahir added that both government agencies have not been able to carry out development and improvement projects effectively as they often end in legal conflicts with both agencies contesting each other's jurisdictions.

Meanwhile, some factors related to the local community (culture) has also contributed to the discordant management of Otak Kokok Joben. To explain further, some locals have vandalised or destroyed the public amenities and facilities which are necessary for tourist convenience (Ahimsa, 2020). Based on the study's observations, the facilities for the community such as parking lots and stalls are also not well-maintained or used. The local community has also misused some parts of the tourism area as a garbage disposal area. It should be noted that the locals do not want to go outside the tourism area as its not convenient and they are already paying a high rent to the landlord as it is private property. Additionally, another respondent, Mrs. Wawan lamented that she had never received any training on quality tourism services. These are just some issues that reflect potential obstacles for the tourism sustainability of Otak Kokok Joben in the future.

To ensure an efficient and congruous management of Otak Kokok Joben and other similar TDAs which comprise many managers, authorities, communities and

facilities, policymakers should formulate or amend the necessary statutory laws that will allow the appointment of one party as the main decision maker to resolve or avoid any arising disagreements between multiple stakeholders.



Then



Now

Figure 2. The condition at Otak Kokok Joben before and after discordance in the management



Figure 3. Areas around Otak Kokok Joben

3. The Effect of Discordance on Sustainable Tourism

Findings also revealed that the mentoring and monitoring by related agencies are not in accordance with the guiding principles on norms, standards, procedures and criteria. There are often conflicts of authority between area managers, which influence services, maintenance and benefits for the community, as the components of sustainable tourism. This runs contrary to the underlying principle of sustainable tourism development which is to align tourism development with ecological and social responsibilities and meet the needs of tourists and local communities (Fennell

& Dowling, 2003). In the same way, Anom (2010) stressed that sustainable tourism must fulfil ecological, social, cultural and economic obligations. Unfortunately, the discordance in Otak Kokok Joben's management has led to the neglect of many aspects of its development. Further, the construction of facilities and built areas often disregard the surrounding natural ecosystem, namely the forests and natural habitats.

A discordant management will also disrupt any measures to support the natural carrying capacity of a TDA. Tourism development requires land for the construction of facilities as well as other infrastructures resulting in changes of land use. When protected forests are transformed into built areas, surface run-off will increase and can lead to flooding. Tourism activities also require food, energy and transportation. This will affect the surrounding ecosystem, and can damage the resources in the area (Sonak, 2004). As Sawkar, Noronha, Mascarenhas, Chauhan, & Saeed (1998) have shown, damages can be observed and facilities can be built without any preliminary in-depth studies. This can lead to many buildings becoming damaged, ruined, and neglected or badly maintained.

Lastly, this discordance may also threaten the sustainability of the local economy, socio-culture and environment, as well as affect the local community's hospitality, multicultural and religion openness in the long run (Urska, Marko, & Vasco, 2016). It disrupts the long-term sustainability of tourism (Guan, Gao, & Zhang, 2019), and the endeavour to raise the quality of life through community empowerment (Claudia, 2018). In the worst-case scenario, the local community will bear the most adverse impacts, the welfare objective of tourism will not be achieved and ecological damage can become irreversible.

Conclusion

In summary, although Otak Kokok Joben as a TDA has tremendous tourism potential, its current management by various overlapping authorities does not support that. This is evidenced from its deteriorating environmental conditions, facilities, and number of tourists which is a far cry from that of a good and competitive tourism destination.

The factors that led to the haphazard management of Otak Kokok Joben can be attributed to overall ineffective coordination that neglects the guiding principles of norms, standards, procedures and criteria. This has negatively impacted sustainable tourism and threatened the local ecology, sociology, culture and economy which in turn, affects the local community's welfare.

Thus, it is highly recommended that the discordant management provisions of Otak Kokok Joben and other similar TDAs should be harmonised whereby stakeholders would abide by a national policy based on the guiding principles of norms, standards, procedures and criteria and a primary decision maker to resolve any issues caused by overlapping jurisdictions.

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Empirical Paper

Critical Factors in Achieving a Sustainable Community-based Homestay Programme

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Abstract: Tourism development has always been regarded as a panacea to development. In Malaysia, the Government has focused on the Community-based Homestay Programme (CBHP) as a strategy to develop local communities in rural areas. The CBHP is a programme run collectively by the community members in a village. The guests stay with the local people and experience the way of life and culture of the people. The programme is promoted by the Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture (MOTAC) and is able to provide a supplementary source of income to villagers through the provision of alternative accommodation to tourists. In theory, the CBHP has the potential to develop community members economically, socially, and culturally. However, the challenges faced in operating a homestay programme may cause it to be unsustainable, and as a result, community members are not able to reap the potential socio-economic benefits of the programme. Thus, it is important to identify the critical factors that lead to a sustainable CBHP. Qualitative research was undertaken in an active homestay village in Selangor, which has been in operation for 25 years. Purposeful sampling and snowball sampling were applied to select informants. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 10 local villagers, consisting of five registered hosts of the homestay, two non-hosts, and three non-participant villagers who were not involved in homestay activities. The findings suggest that the critical factors for a sustainable CBHP are proactive leaders who are able to mobilize the community, dynamics management, private sector involvement in marketing the village's homestay programme, and support from community members.

Keywords: Community-based homestay programme, community-based tourism, sustainability, rural development

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Introduction

Tourism has always been regarded as a “passport to development” (de Kadt, 1979; Scheyvens, 2002). Consequently, many countries have developed their tourism industry, including Malaysia. Being labor intensive, tourism has the capability to generate more employment and therefore, it has the potential to reduce poverty level. Poverty reduction is one of the main agendas in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), an initiative by the United Nations to achieve sustainable development by the year 2030. The target is to end extreme poverty and to reduce world poverty by at least half by 2030 (UNWTO, n.d.). Tourism provides income through job creation and consequently, fosters economic growth and development. However, the development of tourism to eradicate poverty is not something new. In September 2002 at the UN World Summit in Johannesburg, tourism was recognised as a strategy to alleviate poverty whereby the “Sustainable Tourism—Eliminating Poverty” initiative, better known as ST–EP (UNWTO, n.d.), was launched. This initiative recognised tourism as a tool for development.

In Malaysia, the Government utilises the community-based homestay programme (CBHP) to stimulate development in rural areas. The CBHP is seen as an avenue for the villagers in rural areas to participate in tourism development. This type of community project is in line with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) and two of Malaysia’s National Key Economic Areas (NKEA), namely tourism and agriculture. Homestay is categorised under Agro-tourism by the Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture (MOTAC). The services that villagers provide not only develop them economically but also socially, and therefore, contribute to the achievement of two of the National Key Result Areas (NKRA), which are: (a) raising the standard of living of low-income households; and (b) improving rural basic infrastructure, which also align with SDG.

Using CBHP as a strategy for rural development, the benefits from tourism can be extended to villagers in rural areas. Most villagers in Malaysia’s rural areas are farmers, rubber tappers, and fishermen; and their incomes fluctuate due to seasonality. For instance, when fishermen, farmers, and rubber tappers are unable to work during the rainy season, the CBHP can provide them with alternative sources of income through the provision of services to tourists. To be able to foster development in rural villages, the homestay programme must be sustainable.

Sustainability Concept

The concept of sustainability focuses on the preservation of resources for the enjoyment of the future generation. The main components of sustainability are environment, economics, social, and culture (Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Swarbrooke, 1998). The components of sustainability have been expanded to include managerial, political,

and government (Bramwell, 1993; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003), thus highlighting the importance of the organisation's leader, the management team as well as the governance of an organisation—elements that supposedly dictate and facilitate the process towards achieving sustainability. This expansion of sustainability components can be seen as an attempt to integrate sustainability into a systems approach as sustainability in one particular area may not necessarily mean that overall development can be achieved and sustained. The term sustainable development has been popularised by the publication of the Brundtland Report, *Our Common Future* in 1987. Sustainable development is defined as a development that “meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (WCED, 1987, p. 8). Although the definition is vague and broad, it does clearly suggest a long term goal of development. By extending the opportunity to all, the Brundtland Report suggests a social improvement through local participation. Local participation is an essential core factor for community-based tourism. However, no serious attempt has been made to systematically examine the relationship between sustainability and community-based tourism although sustainability and community are integrated in both sustainability and community-based tourism (Dangi & Jamal, 2016).

Community-based Tourism and Local Participation

Community-based tourism (CBT) is tourism activities that are conducted in rural areas (Anuar & Sood, 2017). CBT requires local participation that is “a form of voluntary action in which individuals face the opportunities and responsibilities of citizenship” (Amin & Ibrahim, 2016, p. 20). Local participation is required to sustain a CBT. Community members should be allowed to share ideas and thoughts through the opportunity given to them to participate in tourism activities (Pusiran & Xiao, 2013). This concept reflects the vital role of community participation as it enables community members to manage the tourism activities for their own development. It also highlights the role of the community leader as an influential and powerful person who seeks out such development opportunity for his community members. However, the development project can only be sustained when there is participation and community support. The community will support tourism development as long as the exchange of resources benefits them and the benefits outweigh the costs, which is reflected by the Social Exchange Theory.

Social Exchange Theory

The Social Exchange Theory suggests that members of the community will support an exchange as long as they perceive that it brings benefits to them, and that the benefit is greater than the cost. The social exchange theory also explains the social interaction

as well as the exchange of resources between individuals or groups (Ap, 1992). In the case of a homestay programme, the exchange takes place between the hosts and the guests of the homestay. The hosts provide the guests with accommodation and the opportunity to experience the local people's lifestyle, and in return the guests pay them for such experience. Based on this theory, beneficial exchanges benefit the community which results in community support for the programme and therefore, leads to the sustainability of such programmes.

However, rural community-based programmes have always been challenged by sustainability issues such as the lack of local participation and poor community support (Jaafar, Noor, Mohamad, Jalali, & Hashim, 2020). In addition, poor leadership, problems in organisational structure, and lack of awareness among community members regarding their roles in tourism development have led to the failure of CBHP (Kunjuraman & Hussin, 2017; Okazaki, 2008). Moreover, it was also reported that the lack of demand for community-based homestay resulted in withdrawal from the homestay programme (Bureau of Innovation and Consultancy UTM, 2009). These challenges led to the failure of the programme. Hence, it is important to determine the factors that influence the sustainability of a CBHP. This article highlights the critical sustainable factors drawn from the study of a successful and well-known homestay village in Selangor which has been in operation for 25 years. The findings of this study contribute to the understanding of the critical factors that lead to sustainability of the community-based homestay programme.

Community-based Homestay Programme (CBHP) in Malaysia

The CBHP is a collective project undertaken by community members. It has the potential to generate additional income for villagers through the provision of accommodation for tourists in the locals' houses and other related services such as cultural performances, local tours, and traditional cooking demonstrations. Realising the potential of tourism as a development strategy, the Government of Malaysia through the Ministry of Rural Development (MORD) and Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture (MOTAC), has focused on the community-based homestay programme (CBHP) as a strategy to help develop the communities in rural areas. The CBHP enables tourists to stay with local host families and experience the life of the local people. The host has to register with the Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture (MOTAC, 2018). The CBHP in Malaysia was officially launched in 1995 with the aim to encourage more local people to participate in tourism development and to increase the number of tourism entrepreneurs amongst them in order to improve their economy (MOTAC, 2018). After almost 24 years of establishment, 4,070 homestay operators were recorded in Malaysia in 2018 (MOTAC, 2019). The increasing number of local people registered to become homestay operators indicates the growth potential of the programme as an agent of development.

Materials and Methods

The study utilised a qualitative approach. Semi-structured interviews were undertaken to collect data from the villagers based on the guiding principles for interviews suggested by Seidman (1991). Purposeful sampling and snowball sampling were applied as they enabled people who can best help in understanding the issue or those with rich information to be interviewed (Patton, 2002). According to Creswell (2005), intentionally or purposefully selecting research sites and individuals would help in better understanding the phenomenon. In order to explore sustainability factors, an active, mature, and successful CBHP that has been in operation for more than 20 years was required. Following the active category characteristics of the homestay programme by Ibrahim (2004), an active homestay programme in Selangor that has been in operation for 25 years was selected for this study. Ten informants comprising five registered homestay hosts (including the leader), two villagers who were not hosts but were involved indirectly with homestay programme, and three non-participants who were not involved in the homestay activities were interviewed. Multiple categories of informants enabled more community members to be represented. As it was a semi-structured interview, an interview guide was carefully designed and applied. The interview guide covered three main sections, namely demographics; local participation and local control; and sustainability of the homestay programme. The informants were also asked about their roles in the homestay programme. In the demographic section, the informant's name, gender, highest level of education, employment, number of family members in the household, and years of living in the village were asked. In the local participation and local control section, informants were asked about their roles in the homestay programme, how the programme affected them, and the benefits and costs of their participation. In the sustainability of the homestay section, informants were asked about their perceptions of the sustainability of the homestay programme. Three different sets of interview questions were designed for the different categories of informants: the hosts, the non-hosts, and the villagers who were not involved in the homestay programme (non-participants).

All interviews were recorded to ensure the conformability of data. At the end of the interview session which lasted between 45 minutes to an hour, a summary of the key points contributed by the informants was shared with them for their confirmation. This approach addressed the validity and accuracy requirement of a qualitative study during the data collection stage as the key points provided by informants were double-checked by the informants for validation and clarification (Guba & Lincoln, 1998). This process increased the credibility of this study. In addition, the credibility and accuracy of this research were enhanced through employing triangulation by drawing data from multiple sources: the leader, the hosts, the non-hosts, and the non-participants. The triangulation was undertaken

by conforming data from different informant groups to provide data accuracy. This approach ensured that representation of all the groups in the village was obtained.

A manual analysis of data using Microsoft Word was undertaken and textual analysis was performed. This was achieved through the recording and verbatim transcription of responses, and the process involved content analysis where textual materials were read, annotated, and coded to form categories that were relevant to the emerging issues in the empirical settings under study. The codes were then collapsed into several themes that were relevant to answer the research questions. Core themes and issues were elicited from the transcripts. Interconnection of themes was also undertaken in this thematic analysis involving similar responses from different respondent groups on certain issues.

Results and Discussion

The community-based homestay programme in this village has been in operation for the past 25 years. The population of the village is approximately 2,300 people with 350 houses. The village is primarily an agricultural village and the main agricultural products include palm, rubber, coconut, and cocoa. With so much agricultural land, 47% of its residents are farmers, 20% are civil servants, 15% work in factories, and 10% are entrepreneurs. The majority of the villagers are self-employed, giving them the time and opportunity to engage in homestay activities. There are 68 registered hosts and the homestay programme is the third-largest contributor to the economy of the village after agriculture and the small-scale food processing industry.

In this study, the informants comprised five hosts, two non-hosts, and three non-participants. Three of the hosts were the homestay programme's committee members, including the leader of the village, the Head of the Economics Bureau of the village (who is also the Chairman of the homestay programme), and the head of the village's Women Advancement Group (WAG). There were two female informants in this host group: the head of WAG and another villager. They were both housewives. The village leader and the homestay leader were involved in business while another male host was a farmer. The non-host group comprised two housewives. Although not hosts, they were indirectly involved in homestay activities as they provided catering services to the homestay guests, and they were members of WAG. The three informants in the non-participant group were males: a restaurant owner, a shopkeeper, and a mechanic. They were not involved in the homestay activities. All the informants were between 34–57 years old. Except for the Chairman of the homestay programme who had a university degree, the rest of the informants had primary to secondary levels of education. In line with the Social Exchange Theory, it was found that economic benefit was the major reason for supporting the homestay programme among the community members. As a commercial entity, economic viability was seen as crucial in sustaining the community-based homestay programme. The leader realised the importance of

economic sustainability and therefore, focused on expanding the economic benefits not only to the hosts of homestay but also to the villagers who were non-hosts. Although the three non-participant informants were not involved in the homestay activities, they reaped economic benefits from the programme when guests of the homestay used their services, ate at the restaurant, or bought goods from the shop. Thus, the role of a leader is essential in sustaining local participation in community-based tourism. Without community participation, a community-based homestay programme cannot be sustained. In this study, the leader was proactive in influencing the locals to participate in the homestay programme. By proactively obtaining control over decision-making, he created managerial positions and established partnership with the private sector with the objective of attracting tourists to his village. The critical success factors that contributed to the sustainability of the community-based homestay programme in this village included a proactive leader, effective dynamics management, private sector involvement, and community support.

(i) Proactive Leaders

A proactive leader was seen as vital in sustaining the homestay programme. This finding is consistent with that of Kunjumaran and Hussin (2017) whereby poor local leadership was identified as one of the causes of an unsustainable homestay programme operation. The leader of the homestay village in this study initiated the tourism project in the village for his community and managed to sustain it for almost 25 years.

The community-based homestay programme (CBHP) in this village was among the earliest to be established. Subsequent to winning the best village award at the state level in 1993, it attracted many visitors, resulting in field trips from village associations from within Malaysia. However, frequent visits to the village meant increasing costs for the Village Development and Security Council (VDSC) as food and beverage had to be provided to the visitors. The leader realised that the expenses associated with these visits had become unbearable. The costs exceeded the benefits. The exchange was unfavorable to the village community. Thus, the idea of charging visitors was put into practice to cover the cost of food, drinks, and tours of the village. This approach seemed reasonable as visits had become more frequent and the number of domestic visitors had increased. Price-fixing for visits led to the establishment of the commercial homestay programme. The community members, particularly the hosts, benefitted economically and socially from this commercial exchange. They gained some income from their guests while the guests gained the experience of staying with the local people. This finding reflects the Social Exchange Theory. So long as the economic activities were viable and community members gained benefits from the exchange, the homestay programme as a development strategy could be sustained.

The CBHP in this village was launched in April 1995, initiated by the leader as a result of increasing costs related to the growth in the frequency of free visits. There were only 15 registered hosts when the programme started. The number increased to 80 hosts in 2017 as the local people believed they could earn some supplementary income from the homestay programme. Although hesitation from the community was evident during the initial stages of the programme, the leader of the village continued to actively persuade more community members to be involved in the CBHP. He managed to influence the villagers' attitude towards this alternative source of supplementary income. Previously, the villagers were keener on the construction of houses for rental to obtain supplementary income. However, this entailed high capital, about RM30,000, yet the average monthly rental was low, about RM250 per month. Hence, homestay was seen as a more viable alternative source of additional income.

If a household managed to host just five visitors staying only one day in a month, they could earn RM300 a month, almost without any capital expenditure since there were rooms readily available in the villagers' houses. The leader further observed that most of the villagers had more than three rooms in their houses and some had even more than two vacant rooms, particularly in situations where their children had moved out because of study, work, or marriage. Hence, these vacant rooms could be utilised to generate additional income by accommodating tourists. In this way, the leader explained, the villagers had the opportunity to be involved in the tourism industry without having to build a chalet or a hotel, which required substantial capital. The homestay programme, on the other hand, required minimal capital since only a spare bedroom was required. The additional income gained by a host from hosting guests was between RM800 to RM1,000 a month. Based on the Social Exchange Theory, the perceived benefits would stimulate greater support from the local community (Latip et al., 2018) and the number of hosts increased from 15 in 1995 to 80 in 2017.

At the early stage of establishment, the homestay programme relied heavily on government support. Having been in operation for more than 20 years, the village's leader had proactively developed a system of self-reliance as demonstrated by the use of internal resources, such as the village's women group and several informal managers to support the homestay activities. Although the relationship between this village and the government agencies was good and the village had received much assistance, this proactive leader felt that the village ought to take the lead.

“The government can only assist but if we do not take up the leading role, we'll be left out because the government agency does not know what is homestay, how do we want to promote it and how do we establish the homestay programme that we want to run” (Leader, Host)

The leader was confident that the homestay programme in his village could stand on its own without assistance from governmental agencies, unlike when it first started. This was in contrast to the dependability syndrome found in other homestay programmes (Nor & Kayat, 2010; Pusiran & Xiao, 2013). Over dependence on the government assistance posed a risk to the sustainability of the CBHP. Nevertheless, the leader acknowledged that assistance from government agencies was fundamental at the initial stage. Leadership is considered one of the success criteria for community-based homestay programmes in Malaysia (Ibrahim & Abdul Razzaq, 2010; Yusnita et al., 2013).

(ii) Dynamics Management

Managerial aspects dictate and facilitate the process of achieving economic sustainability as demonstrated by the effective management of this homestay organization. “Managerial” is also considered as an important dimension of sustainability besides economic, environmental, and socio-cultural (Bramwell & Sharman, 2000).

Apart from influencing community members to participate in the homestay programme, the leader in this study had also improved the management of the homestay organisation in order to attract guests to their homestay. More guests meant greater financial gains for community members. The successful management of the village’s homestay programme could also be partly attributed to the establishment of managerial positions by the leader. He had appointed two other managers among the hosts to help him in getting more tourists to the village and this proved to work well for the homestay operation as each of the managers had their own strengths in bringing tourists from various market segments: government staff, school children, and university students. The leader had also empowered the Women’s Advancement Group (WAG) by appointing the group’s head as one of the managers so that the coordination between the activities of the homestay programme and the women’s activities could be done more efficiently. In general, the services provided by WAG for the homestay programme included the catering of meals and beverages as well as the demonstration of skills in cottage industries. The WAG members who were not hosts got involved in homestay activities by providing catering services and thus benefitted from the payments they received. The WAG was also active in cottage industries, known as Small Medium Industries (SMIs), and held workshops for members to work together. The women were involved in food manufacturing such as tapioca snacks, anchovies, oyster sauce, and *buah rotan* (a traditional food). These products were sold to the guests of the homestay as well as to suppliers at the weekly agricultural market in a nearby town. In short, the participation of women in the homestay programme was facilitated by the village women’s organisation. These women earned income and benefitted economically from the services they rendered, hence obtaining a degree of

financial freedom. The support of the WAG members could be explained by the Social Exchange Theory, which demonstrated social behaviour exchange among its members. Community members would support the exchange from an activity when it provides them more benefits than costs (Ap, 1992; Homans, 1958).

(iii) Private Sector Involvement

The village's homestay programme started to evolve with the establishment of a relationship with a commercial travel intermediary in 1996. The private tour company was expected to promote and bring tourists to the village. Following involvement from the private sector, tour packages were developed consisting of elements such as staying with the locals, engaging in traditional games, and visiting farms and cottage industries. Special arrangements could also be requested, at an additional cost, for a Malay-style wedding, party arrangements with a traditional musical band (*cempuling*), fishing, and boating. Subsequently, the business venture expanded. Three of the villagers, including the village leader and the Chairman of the homestay programme became directors of a travel agency. Instead of being the recipients of the role played by the travel intermediary, they were now owners of the travel agency. Over the years, these proactive leaders forged business relations with more travel intermediaries as they realised the village lacked marketing resources. Thus, private sector intermediaries were regarded as important in procuring more guests and tourists. These intermediaries played a marketing role for the village's homestay programme and proved successful in attracting tourists as the number had increased over the years, particularly from foreign tourist groups. According to the leader, private sector involvement had benefitted the village's homestay programme as indicated by the steady growth in the tourist numbers, particularly from the foreign market. The research was undertaken before the Covid-19 pandemic and the flow of tourists into the village was seen as a positive indicator of the demand for the village's homestay programme. Even villagers who were not involved in the homestay programme noticed the increasing earnings they received from the tourists.

An informant suggested that there had been an improvement in the number of visits to the village and viewed this as a positive sign of sustainability.

“It would seem that the homestay programme is sustainable because now I see more guests. Unlike before, now it is very frequent” (Villager 2, Non-participant)

In terms of the market, this village had received foreign tourists from Japan, England, Australia, Korea, China, Hong Kong, the Middle East, United States, and Canada. This proved that private sector involvement was essential in increasing the number of tourist arrivals in this village, particularly foreign tourists. It was suggested

that external parties could facilitate and collaborate with the local community, thus promoting sustainable community development through empowerment of the community members (Giampiccoli & Mtapuri, 2017).

The homestay programme benefitted financially from its partnership with the private sector, leading to economic sustainability. Thus, fostering relationship with the private sector could be an effective business model for community-based homestays in Malaysia.

(iv) Community Support

The sustainability of the community-based homestay programme (CBHP) was also attributed to the support from all community members. The programme was not only accepted and supported by those involved with homestay programme but also by other community members in the village. This support was shown by the increasing number of hosts. The homestay programme started in 1995 with only 15 registered hosts. In 2017, the number of registered hosts had increased to 80. The success of the programme had encouraged villagers to participate directly in the programme. They believed that the programme would benefit them economically and socially. Economic and social gains were the main factors that drove most of the local people to participate in homestay programme. One host participant felt that his family would gain economically and socially by hosting guests from different cultural backgrounds, especially foreign tourists.

“I think that this homestay programme is beneficial to my family and me in terms of profitability. In addition, we can exchange insights with other people from outside” (Villager 8, Host)

The homestay programme also gained the support of villagers who were not registered hosts. This was associated with the pride they had in the programme, which had made their village a well-known attraction.

“The homestay is part of the village’s activities. When there is something on, we will participate. Though we are new here, we participate in whatever the people do” (Villager 1, Non-participant)

A good relationship was maintained among the villagers regardless of their involvement in the programme. It was apparent that there was unity among the village’s community members.

“There is no problem either from the participants or non-participants, they still cooperate” (Villager 3, Host)

All informants felt that the programme had contributed to the development of the village. This was one of the reasons for the support of the homestay programme.

“The longer the programme goes on, I see more developments” (Host 4)

These findings conform to the Social Exchange Theory as individuals only participated in the exchange of resources when they received some form of benefits—not only economic benefits but also socio-cultural benefits (Latcova & Vogt, 2012). Conversely, if the local people perceive the cost from tourism development to be greater than the benefit, they would want to restrict tourism development. In short, the growth of the homestay programme was mainly attributed to cooperation between community members in the village. In order to sustain the CBHP as a developmental strategy for the rural community, participation among community members is critical because their support has an impact on the sustainability of community-based projects (Abdul Razzaq et al., 2017; Blackstock, 2005; Kayat, 2002; Kayat & Nor, 2005; Nor & Kayat, 2010). In contrast to a homestay study by Nor & Kayat (2010), internal challenges such as leadership problems and community conflict were not found in this homestay programme. Each homestay community could face similar or different challenges in managing the operation due to the different packages that they offer and challenges may differ from one community to another (Pusiran & Xiao, 2013). It was observed that in this community of Javanese descendants, the relationship was close. For example, the act of *rewang* (working together to prepare a feast) for a wedding ceremony involved all community members and the preparation was made several days before the wedding. Hence, the inherited culture played an important role in this community, and it led to unity. Likewise, the homestay programme strengthened the community through the culturally driven *gotong-royong* (the act of working together), resulting in the villagers becoming closer to each other. Social networks and relationships among the members of the community could effectively increase their participation in tourism (Hwang & Stewart, 2016; Liu et al., 2014; Park et al., 2012). Thus, the homestay programme in this village gained full community support due to the close relationship between the members of the community. With this continuous support, it was likely that the homestay programme would be sustained. This places community support as a fundamental requirement of a sustainable CBHP.

In summary, the sustainability of the programme is due to various critical factors including a proactive leader, dynamics management, involvement of the private sector, and support from the community members.

Conclusion

This study demonstrates that it is possible to achieve a successful and sustainable community-based tourism project to develop rural areas. In the process of achieving

Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), the community-based homestay programme (CBHP) as a developmental strategy is able to eliminate poverty in rural areas by providing a supplementary income to the community. Thus, CBHP should be sustained in order to continue reaping the benefits it provides to the local people in rural areas. This study demonstrates how well sustainability and community-based tourism integrate. The CBHP in this village has been in operation for the past 25 years and it is still in existence. The programme continues to benefit the villagers, whether directly or indirectly, and in return the community continues to support the programme. Several critical factors that lead to sustainability of CBHP include a proactive leader who is able to drive community members to participate and work together; effective dynamics management that fully utilises community resources to bring more development; private sector involvement that enables growth in the demand for the homestay programme as well as empowers the community members; and lastly, community support. These factors have successfully mobilised the community towards greater development and led to the sustainability of the homestay programme. Therefore, it is recommended that these factors be included in the business model of a CBHP. Surely, the community-based homestay programme in this village is considered a success by many as it continues to benefit the community. More research is required to discover other sustainable factors in community-based tourism.

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Empirical Paper

Quality Upgrading of Culinary Tourism in Mataram: The Existence from Local to Global

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Abstract: This study discusses strategies to improve the quality of local culinary products in the Mataram tourism area according to the needs of the tourism market. This improvement was essential due to the competitiveness and existence of various local cuisine in the tourism industry. The approach used in this study was a qualitative descriptive approach with a phenomenological analysis that examined phenomena and reality related to culinary tourism activities in the area. Primary data collection was carried out using in-depth observation and interview techniques, while secondary data was collected through document and literature studies. The results showed that the current level of local culinary products in the Mataram tourism area was still meagre. The factors for this situation were varied, such as few innovative products, facilities, and services, and limited market share. A possible strategy suggested to resolve this was to enhance the quality of local cuisine from production and distribution stages. Culinary product quality could be improved by modernising the products without changing local characteristics and authentic values, arranging more attractive places, improving hygiene and sanitation, and modifying the products according to market tastes with the principles of adhering to local authenticity and global quality. The improvement of the distribution aspect was implemented through a collaborative programme with a travel agency to expand the distribution of information to the tourist market, the strengthened ability of traditional traders in the promotion, and the latest distribution media to increase local market interest.

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Introduction

One of Lombok Island's leading tourist attractions, especially in the city of Mataram, is a variety of local culinary products. Several dishes are famous among Indonesians. Some are very common among the locals and have become the island's culinary branding, such as Taliwang chicken, Rembiga satay, Bulayak satay, Tanjung satay, *plecing kangkung* (water spinach with sambal), and various Lombok tofu-based dishes. Many local culinary delights use raw materials obtained from the country's natural resources. Therefore, local culinary products have the potential to develop culinary tourism (also known as gastronomic tourism or food tourism) in Mataram.

The availability and reputation of cuisine at a destination is an essential factor when choosing a tourist destination. According to the consumer survey by Global Data (2018), in general, 27.6% of respondents think the popularity of food and drinks at a destination is a pull factor that helps them to decide where to go on holiday. Several years earlier, the World Tourism Organization (WTO) noted that culinary activities had a 30% share of tourism revenues (WTO, 2012, pp. 12–14), and 88.2% of those who participated in world tourism activities indicated that eating and drinking played a big part in choosing their tourism destinations. Similarly, tourists are very keen on travelling to destinations that have built a reputation for themselves as places to visit and enjoy local culinary products (Berg & Sevón, 2014; WTO, 2012).

According to Redl (2013), culinary tourism is a trip made with the aim of consuming the food and beverages in the area visited, or for the observation of food production studies. This type of tourism also proposes to discover the culture of a place through its local cuisine. Furthermore, Harvey (2012) mentioned that culinary tourism may reveal three things about a geographic area: its history, the characteristics of its community, and its landscape. Culinary tourism reflects “place”, enriches experiences, and can be a valuable tool to boost economic, social, and community development. It helps to increase rural revenue sources and to improve local labour income levels and employment, especially for women.

For the last few decades, culinary tourism has been developing very rapidly, which is limited to support for tourism in meeting the basic needs of tourists. Culinary tourism is currently becoming one of the main attractions in tourist tours. Hall and

Mitchell (2004) and Lai, Khoo-Lattimore, and Wang (2017) also described culinary tourism as developing exponentially in the tourism industry, and being viewed as a crucial component of the tourism system. Montanari (2006) and Croce and Perri (2008) explained that local cuisine is regarded as an essential element in tourism, since it can show the people's culture through the food production process and the variety of food choices made available in the tourist destination. Likewise, the process of consumption and appreciation characterises, expresses, and communicates human identity and social behaviour.

The city of Mataram is the most strategic area for accommodating various local culinary potential to serve as a famous tourist attraction. This city is also the centre of MICE (Meeting, Incentive, Conference, and Exhibition), business, and tourism activities, bringing many people from various regions and countries together. Mataram's strategic position at the crossroads between the Senggigi area of the three little islands (Trawangan, Meno, and Air) and the area in the central area of Mandalika will contribute to tourism development in West Nusa Tenggara (*Nusa Tenggara Barat*/NTB) significantly. Therefore, the urgency of culinary development in the Mataram area lies in its future role in supporting Lombok Island tourism, significantly ahead of holding the big MotoGP event in the Special Economic Zone – Mandalika (KEK Mandalika), Central Lombok.

This activity will be followed by other similar events, which will undoubtedly attract more people and tourists. Therefore, culinary tourism is a solution for producing diversification of tourist attraction products for the tourists who visit. Culinary tourism activities are valued basic needs of tourists, and the primary motivation for tourism as a product that is not separate from tourists experiences. Culinary products are the main strategic elements for creating a brand and image, in view of offering a compelling tourist destination, maintaining cultural heritage, overcoming food homogeneity, and renewing the sociocultural environment of a destination (Everett & Aitchison, 2008; Frochot, 2003; Horng & Tsai, 2011; Shalini & Duggal, 2015; Tikkanen, 2007).

However, culinary tourism development has not been carried out optimally by prioritising the quality of local culinary products and the friendly service that characterises the island of Lombok. This problem stems from the poor understanding of tourism by local culinary entrepreneurs which prioritises tourists satisfaction and experiences. In addition, there are other issues related to human resources in maintaining local culinary delights which are not limited to a weak grasp of tourism services. More importantly, there is also the far more serious issue of a decrease in the regeneration of local culinary business actors. Therefore, it is essential to make a breakthrough to increase the local culinary economic value, primarily through tourism. The younger generation is more interested in taking part in preserving the existing local culinary culture. This step will enhance the existence and sustainability

of culinary culture in society. Consequently, sustainable tourism can also be achieved, especially sustainability in cultural aspects such as the heritage of local recipes, traditional cooking techniques, and traditional culinary arts.

The readiness of products and services must follow the importance of local culinary availability in increasing the variety of tourists experiences. There are hitherto several weaknesses of these local culinary efforts, especially as to the feasibility of place, cleanliness, hygiene, service, lack of creativity, and innovation. Local culinary products tend to be less desired. Likewise, the aspect of hospitality services, which is the main characteristic of tourism, is still fragile. This aspect of hospitality is vital because, as explained by Kotler and Gertner (2002), tourism products have unique characteristics that distinguish them from other physical goods and services. Tourism products consist of tangible elements and intangible services. Kotler and Gertner also stated that tourism products include components that contribute to tourist satisfaction. In this context, what tourists enjoy are the physical product of food and the services that accompany it.

Therefore, it is imperative to conduct a study on the right steps in improving the quality of local culinary products, especially with regard to the feasibility of a place, recipe, quality of taste, presentation, and process, all of which have to be appealing. Besides that, it is also necessary to improve the supporting aspects, such as service, promotional techniques, and the competency of culinary actors or human resources. Public understanding of tourism and its role in preserving local culture is critical as well. There must be a mutual benefit between tourism and the community, in order to achieve sustainable tourism goals.

Literature Review

The development of culinary tourism was highlighted by previous researchers (Alderighi, Bianchi, & Lorenzini, 2016; Băltescu, 2016; Kim, Kim, & Goh, 2011), who suggested that the use of local culinary products as a tourist attraction meant a place tended to be in great demand as a travel destination. Culinary tourism might also influence tourists to visit the place (Băltescu, 2016; Rahmanita, Suprina, & Puarag, 2017; Saputri & Widyaningsih, 2019). The existence of culinary tourism products was an opportunity for the community to integrate tourism and local food systems (Green & Dougherty, 2009). Local culinary products were a characteristic of the local area that distinguished them from other regional products (Tsai & Wang, 2017). This characteristic of local culinary delights was expected to be the key in marketing a tourist destination and attracting many tourists (Rand & Heath, 2006). Moreover, promoting local culinary delights via culinary tourism meant that they could be widely recognised as a characteristic of regional cultural wealth (Richards, 2012).

Wardani, Wijaya, and Saeroji (2018) argued that several things needed to be done in developing culinary tourism products, namely (1) developing innovative products based on natural resources and local human resources, (2) conserving the environment or being environmentally friendly, (3) characterising local characteristics, (4) maintaining the value of local authenticity, and (5) having an authenticity of local products that is not found elsewhere. The development of culinary tourism products must be prioritised by tourism stakeholders for a place to become a leading tourist attraction. Culinary tourism product development, as a tourist attraction, would positively impact the recognition of an area's culture related to food and beverages (Entas, Kurniawati, Harwindito, & Karlina, 2016; Sorcaru, 2019).

Pullphothong and Sopha (2013) revealed that culinary tourism activities could reflect the community's culture at a destination, be the tools for local culture communication, and reveal one's culinary culture history. Thus, the culinary culture of a country, region, or zone could also be described in culinary tourism. The current local culinary availability was crucial in supporting tourism activities to add to tourists' "memories" of food culture characteristics in tourism destinations. One of the goals of travellers was to find authentic and unique experiences in the area visited, and local culinary options was a component that could fulfill this goal (Global Data, 2018).

Undeniably, culinary tourism is fundamental because it can increase sources of economic income, employ the community, support local culture and culinary products, contribute to the sustainability of social life, and increase the attractiveness and competitiveness of an area (Horng & Tsai, 2011; Rawal & Takuli, 2017; Richards, 2012; Rinaldi, 2017). This statement aligns with the sustainable development goals (SDGs) of 2017 to support inclusive and sustainable economic growth, a full and productive workforce, and decent work for all local communities. Additionally, through culinary tourism development, it could be a strategic forum in achieving cultural sustainability, especially those related to local cuisine. Hence, the focus of tourism would not only be on the economic benefits generated, but also on preserving local culture in achieving sustainability.

The existence of culinary tourism in an area positively influences its economy, society, and culture. However, the problem is: the selling price of home-based business products tends to be low (Green & Dougherty, 2009) due to low quality. They must also compete with products made by large businesses such as hotels and restaurants. Therefore, in the process, the commodification of local culinary products could be taken while still paying attention to quality without neglecting local culinary authenticity (Rahmawati, Artawan, Widiastini, Andiani, & Trianasari, 2019). This step is possible because it adjusts to developments in the global era, so that local products can compete in the global scope without losing authenticity (Mardatillah, Raharja, Hermanto, & Herawaty, 2019).

Material and Methods

Based on the problems related to the development of local cuisine in the Mataram tourism area and several studies from the review of literature, this research focused on improving the quality of the local culinary products in adapting to the development of market needs, especially tourism. To study this, the approach used was descriptive qualitative to explore the phenomena related to culinary tourism development. The research location focused on the Mataram regency, including the Rembiga, Cakranegara, and Sriwijaya areas.

Data was collected using structured observation and interviews. The sample used was 25 culinary businesses selected through purposive sampling by selecting businesses with traditional Lombok culinary offerings. The actions taken during the observation technique were perceiving the facilities, hygiene, and sanitation of culinary tourism, and observing the various behaviours of service providers and culinary connoisseurs. The observation findings indicated the object observed and entered into the research notes. Furthermore, the structured interview technique of a purposive selection of respondents resulted in 25 local culinary entrepreneurs.

Data validation was done by triangulating data sources or comparing each data with other types of data obtained through the observation and interviews, so that the data that best fit the phenomenon under study was found. Data analysis was performed interactively with the data reduction stage, wherein data was selected and grouped according to the subject matter, presented, and sorted data was compiled, then described in the form of narrative texts. The concluding stage was done by analysing and providing meaning to the data. Literature reviews, concepts, and theories were also used in guiding the data analysis stage.

Results and Discussions

The Existence of Local Culinary Tourism in Mataram

Mataram's tourism area has great potential and various interesting features to offer, especially cultural heritage tourist attractions, shopping tours, and—the most interesting of all—culinary tours. The development of tourism on Lombok Island provides more excellent opportunities for this region to develop, especially in the tourism sector. One of the potential attractions that plays a vital role in supporting tourism development is local culinary products. There are two groups of local culinary specialities in Lombok, that is, those served daily and those served only during certain ceremonies or *begawe* (traditional events in the Lombok community). The latter are mostly cuisine served in generous portions, such as *jukut ares* (young banana stem soup) and *bebalung* (beef bone soup). However, generally, culinary entrepreneurs sell types of daily dishes. Some of the most prevalent and well-known local dishes that characterise the area are Taliwang chicken (chicken grilled with spicy

traditional sambal), Rembiga satay, Bulayak satay, Tanjung satay, *plecing kangkung* (water spinach with sambal), *beberuk* (fresh vegetables with sambal), *wrap-wrap* (mixed vegetables and grated coconut with traditional seasoning), and Lombok tofu.

This richness of potential allows the locals to make culinary tourism one of the tourist attractions. Based on research of three culinary centres in the Mataram tourism area, including Rembiga, Cakranegara, and Sriwijaya, all three centres have different characteristics of culinary products. The Rembiga region owns the most substantial positioning as the culinary provider of Rembiga satay; a leading local food and well-known Lombok speciality, among others. Unfortunately, the environment, availability of facilities, processing, and presentation of the various culinary products available have not been packaged attractively. Hence, the area functions only as a place to buy food rather than a place for a culinary tour. In the context of tourism, food not only functions to sate hunger and meet humans' basic physiological needs, but it is also an essential component in determining the level of travel experience (Quan & Wang, 2004). Thus, as one of the elements of tourism, Rembiga region's culinary potential needs to be developed and boosted with various attributes that reflect the characteristics of tourism.

Besides that, culinary destinations can provide cultural experiences in the production of food and food choices, activities, and creations. The process of consumption and appreciation characterises, expresses, and communicates human identity and social behaviour (Croce & Perri, 2008; Montanari, 2006). Therefore, the cultural knowledge, attractions, and experiences of tourists who visit the Mataram tourism area can be shaped through the availability of culinary tourism services. As such, Rembiga, being one of the strategic locations, must be developed into a better representative of a culinary tourism destination.

Next, the Cakranegara area—a business centre, tourist accommodation, and location of MICE facilities—provides a variety of culinary tourism facilities. Restaurant service is provided directly by hotels. There are also several culinary businesses, ranging from classy restaurants to street food vendors. Nevertheless, most food, especially local culinary delights, are sold in the form of street food. Many types of food, notably local food, can be found around this area. In addition, the place is accessible on foot while enjoying the atmosphere of a night tour. The location is also in the middle of the city, and is very close to hotels and other lodging types. However, similar to Rembiga, the tourists who visit Cakranegara just come for a taste of the food, before leaving immediately. Uniqueness, information about recipes, the philosophy behind food stories, values, and cultural elements that might add to tourists experience are still elusive.

In line with this problem, the strategic step needed is to increase the insight of business actors, in order to carry out commodification of local food that emphasises the value of tourists experience. As explained by Hall and Mitchell (2004) and Sormaz,

Akmese, Gunes, and Aras (2016), ideally, the activities of culinary tourism should be to taste unique dishes and to observe the production process and preparation of cuisine by famous chefs, including being able to see a cooking guide or recipe and also a menu list, equipped with facilities and tour guides. This strategy could be adopted to provide tourists with an added-value experience without having to eliminate the authenticity of existing culinary activities.

The third location is alongside the Sriwijaya food court complex, and is also one of the business districts in Mataram. The attraction of culinary tourism in the Sriwijaya area has been developed with modern or contemporary concepts. Facilities, services, and the quality of culinary products have followed market developments and sufficiently meet set standards, both in terms of hygiene and sanitation and the services of hospitality staff. However, with a more contemporary concept such as this, it becomes challenging to find authentic Lombok culinary products, since many are offered food and drinks that have evolved. The facts in the field show that the types of culinary products that are developing mostly appeal to or cater for the local market's interest, which gravitate towards adapted culinary delights and modern creations of food rather than local food that people are familiar with. However, in the context of tourism, tourists experience is critical, especially the authenticity of experiencing and tasting local culinary offerings. Business actors must not ignore the value of the experience provided to the audience. Therefore, in the communication of local culinary products, it is necessary to improve the quality aspect without overriding local culinary authenticity (Rahmawati et al., 2019). However, commodification steps are necessary to adapt to developments, so that local products can compete in the global scope without losing authenticity (Mardatillah et al., 2019).

Of course, from the perspective of tourism, this cannot show the critical side of culinary tourism activities. In this context, what is highlighted are the activities, attractions, and culinary essence consumed by tourists. Thus, the emphasis lies in the value of the cultural experience that is received by tourists. One of the essential elements in culinary tourism activities is the existence of activities for cultural communication of local communities in representing the culture of a country, region, or destination in a culinary form (Pullphothong & Sopha, 2013). Besides that, the activities can be a tourism asset that influences tourists visiting a destination (Frochot, 2003; Kim et al., 2011; López-Guzmán & Sánchez-Cañizares, 2011; Su, 2015). Culinary or gastronomic attractiveness can also be a fundamental factor that encourages and motivates tourists to travel to a destination area (Kim et al., 2011; Kivela & Crofts, 2006, 2009; Pullphothong & Sopha, 2013; Quan & Wang, 2004; Shalini & Duggal, 2015; Smith & Xiao, 2008; Tikkanen, 2007).

Based on the above-mentioned description, it can be stated that the existence of local cuisine in the Mataram area has been maintained. However, as an essential element in tourism, the area still needs a touch of attractive tourism services and

to provide more connoisseur experience. Most of the community's local culinary use has only reached the stage of meeting the surrounding's consumption needs with a minimal market share, even though tourism will raise the value of local food and preserve its culinary culture to achieve sustainability. As Smith and Xiao (2008) argued, the tourism development process consists of physical production, service, hospitality, freedom of choice, and the involvement of service providers and recipients. Furthermore, Montanari (2006) and Croce and Perri (2008) also stated that the essence of culinary tourism would be realised, which is the centre of the experience and culture in the production of and choice of food, performance, and creation. The process of consumption and appreciation characterises, expresses, and communicates human identity and social behaviour, especially in a tourism destination. Therefore, by adding attributes such as this, the audience's information, knowledge, and experience will be more diverse. On the other hand, the existence of local culinary delights will increase and have a positive impact on the environment, local economy, and preservation of the culinary culture.

Quality Upgrading of Local Culinary Delights

Improving the quality of local cuisine is one option that needs to be done at this time, especially in terms of products, facilities, and distribution in the market. Adapting to the consumers' taste and trends is also essential, even though local food recipes already have a standard which is passed down from generation to generation. However, for the sake of the market, adjustments need to be made without losing any original identity. Wardani et al. (2018) argued that several things were needed in local culinary innovation, such as developing the product, making it environmentally friendly, having local characteristics, maintaining local authenticity, and having the authenticity of local products found nowhere else. Through this concept, local culinary product development will provide benefits to the local community and have an impact on the empowerment of local resources, both from the aspect of local raw materials and human resources. Adopting the right concept will also positively impact environmental, sociocultural, and local economic sustainability.

Based on the characteristics and various weaknesses of the local food in the Mataram area, several aspects need to be improved to meet the criteria of a tourist attraction. The components that require improvement include the facilities for culinary production, quality of services and distribution to the tourists, and promotion strategy. Quality improvement in the aspect of culinary tourism facilities, especially for street businesses, needs to be carried out starting from the feasibility of the place, hygiene and sanitation, availability of a place for washing hands and washing equipment, seating, and cleanliness and hygiene of processes. In addition, improvement is also needed in the availability of better raw material storage tools

and food storage windows. To show the authenticity of the culture, the tools used can highlight ethnic and regional cultural elements.

The most important thing in improving the quality of local cuisine is product quality, which can be seen in terms of the selection of raw materials, recipes used, activities shown to tourists, and presentation. To improve quality while maintaining identity, the development of local culinary products needs to adapt to the culture of the people in Lombok. In line with the opinion of Ondieki, Kotut, Gatobu, and Wambari (2017), six principal elements are essential in determining a culinary identity. They are geographical elements or the areas of culinary origin, culinary history elements, the ethnic diversity of the people, culinary ethical values or culinary philosophy, the flavours contained, and the elements of recipes. By looking at these six elements, of course, tourists must have a complete experience of the destination through the culinary delights they enjoy in culinary tourism activities.

Representation of Lombok Island's natural wealth can be shown by the local food composition. Choosing local raw materials also helps to empower local farmers, in addition to showing Lombok's natural wealth. Culinary business actors and raw material providers must jointly control quality, so that improving the quality of raw materials is also fulfilled. Therefore, culinary tourism products are an opportunity for the community to integrate tourism and local food systems (Green & Dougherty, 2009). Local culinary products are a characteristic of an area that distinguishes them from other regional products (Tsai & Wang, 2017).

Although inherited from earlier generations, some recipes of traditional Lombok cuisine can be modified, especially the strength of the spices used and the amount which is deemed more flexible. This, however, should be done in a way that does not eliminate the authenticity of the cuisine. This recipe element can also interpret the characteristics of the culinary culture of the Mataram community. Furthermore, to display the historical and philosophical values contained in local cuisine, food menus could include a brief explanation that adds insight for the tourists. Thus, local culinary characteristics could be the key in marketing the Mataram tourism area to increase tourist visits (Rand & Heath, 2006). This also becomes a place to introduce regional wealth, especially culinary culture (Richards, 2012).

The next component that needs to be improved is the services quality and culinary distribution to the tourists. Improving the service aspect, in particular, is vital, especially for street culinary entrepreneurs. The understanding of hospitality services by businesspeople could help the process of distributing services that are prepared. This understanding is essential because food is not only a product; it is also a service that tourists can enjoy. Likewise, culinary processing activities could be an attraction, so they need to be more attractive by design, namely by promoting various cooking classes specifically for traditional cuisine, equipped with tutorials and guided by a cook. Tourists could learn the food-making process first-hand, from the

preparation, processing, to serving. Although enjoying local cuisine with a concept like this has never been done before, this could be an option in the future to increase local culinary competitiveness in the context of tourism. Efforts such as these need to be supported by the government, such as by holding local culinary exhibition events, using local culinary products as part of the menu in various activities which involve the participation of many people, and creating engaging promotional content in regional tourism marketing. These actions could raise the image of the local cuisine in a wider tourist market.

The existence of the local cuisine in Mataram could also be boosted by expanding its market share, especially through networking and cooperation with travel businesses and accommodation in the vicinity. Travel agents could include activities related to local culinary delights in their itinerary. Besides that, they could offer travel packages that specifically promote culinary activities. Thus, the existence of the local cuisine will be known by a wider audience. The implementation of culinary tourism will thereby increase sources of economic income, employ the community, support local culture and culinary products, contribute to the sustainability of social life, and increase the attractiveness and competitiveness of the area (Horng & Tsai, 2011; Rawal & Takuli, 2017; Richards, 2012; Rinaldi, 2017). Hence, increasing the competitiveness of the local cuisine as a tourism product will help towards sociocultural sustainability and the local economy.

Conclusion

As one of the local potential owned by Mataram, local cuisine can be used as a supporting tourist attraction, given the various types of culinary products that are well known and becoming the food branding of Lombok Island. Culinary tourism activities have yet to become a major tourist attraction due to several factors, notably the competitiveness of products, facilities, and distribution in the tourism market. Innovation to improve quality can be carried out, starting from local culinary tourism facilities providers, especially in small businesses, the feasibility of places, hygiene, and sanitation equipment. Production aspects that need to be improved involve selecting raw materials, refining recipes, processing, exploring culinary philosophies, and storing local natural resources to achieve environmental, sociocultural, and local economic sustainability. Increasing the quality of services by business actors is also a crucial step in improving the quality of the distribution to tourists. Increasing the human resources in marketing, especially that of local entrepreneurs, is another important step in improving the quality of marketing.

To encourage an escalation in local culinary competitiveness towards sustainable tourism in the city of Mataram, there are of course many things that need to be looked into. This research certainly still has many weaknesses that need to be further refined in future studies to help develop potential and local resources in

the culinary field, especially in the Mataram tourism area. The suggested research are related to exploring human resources in the local culinary field, increasing cross-sector collaboration in developing culinary potential, and strengthening local culinary branding as a leading tourist attraction. This is inseparable from the role and participation of every pentahelix element of tourism in developing culinary tourism towards sustainable tourism.

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Empirical Paper

The Development of Local Cultural Festivals as a Tourist Attraction in the Islamic City of Kota Bharu: A Qualitative Inquiry

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Abstract: Very little is known about the perception of experts on local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction, considering the vital role their perspective and knowledge play in the sustainability of a destination. Thus, this study intends to explore how experts perceive the role of local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction in an Islamic city like Kota Bahru, as well as discover the success factors that help these local cultural festivals attract tourists. Data were collected through a focus group discussion (FGD) and in-depth interviews involving six experts. All the experts who participated demonstrated a positive reception towards local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction in Kota Bharu and highlighted that the uniqueness of those festivals has given Kota Bahru a strong image and sustains its tourism businesses. Further, the Islamisation policy set by the local authority has not hindered the growth of Kota Bahru's tourism sector. In fact, the city's Islamic status is one of its strengths, especially in facilitating the development of local cultural festivals to attract tourists.

Keywords: Cultural City, experts, Islamic City, Kota Bharu, local cultural festivals, tourist attraction

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Introduction

Kota Bharu is the capital city of Kelantan, with a population of 2.001 million in 2018 (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2020). Apart from being the administration centre for the state, Kota Bharu is also one of the top tourist cities in Malaysia. Kelantan was forecasted to receive 5.5 million tourists in 2020 (Kelantan Tourism Information Centre, 2020) before the pandemic hit. In preserving the city's image as an Islamic and Cultural City, Kota Bharu's Islamic City Municipal Council (MKBP-BRI) adopted the policy of designing every aspect of the city's planning and development according to Islamic values and the Kelantan Malay culture. For instance, historical elements as well as art and cultural heritage were blended with Islamic design and landscapes (Hassan, Ahmad, & Che Aziz, 2017). In this regard, Nasir and Salleh (2014) opined that besides promoting Islamic tourism packages, Kota Bharu can also maintain its reputation as a cultural tourism destination. This is because tourists normally visit Kota Bharu for various cultural, arts, and heritage-based attractions. These attractions include kite flying, *wayang kulit*, *makyong*, *main puteri*, *dikir barat*, *songket* weaving, *batik* drawing, *menorah*, spinning top, and drum festivals. Apart from arts and performance-based attractions, other attractions such as Masjid Muhammadi located at the Cultural Heritage Zone amplifies the cultural and Islamic landscape of Kota Bharu (Hassan et al., 2017).

The blend of Malay culture, arts, and heritage with Islamic values satisfies the demand of modern tourists seeking to experience cultural and authentic destinations (Moutinho, 2016). Indeed, visiting a cultural destination exposes one cultural knowledge (Uguz & Gacnik, 2016), cultural experience (Oalere, 2019; Raj & Vignali, 2010; Zeng, 2017), unique ethnic experiences, and local customs (Akhoondnejad, 2016). In addition, Hassan et al. (2017) as well as Nasir and Salleh (2014) are of the opinion that the success of Kota Bharu in incorporating the image of an Islamic city while preserving the identity of Malay culture have stimulated tourist arrivals. Furthermore, incorporating Islamic values and the traditional identity of the Kelantan Malay into the state's landscapes can conserve the culture for future generations (Mohd Nasir, 2011).

MKBP-BRI's efforts in conserving the integrity and beauty of the Kelantan Malay culture in Kota Bharu is aligned with the 11th goal of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which espouses the protection and safeguarding of the world's cultural and natural heritage. In line with this goal, many projects and actions are being taken up on the ground to protect and safeguard local cultural and natural heritage (United Nations, 2020). One of these actions include promoting culture and heritage as valuable resources of tourism. According to Eser, Dalgin, and Çeken (2013), integrating the local culture as a part of tourist attraction is one of the approaches that can sustain the culture and minimise damage at a destination. Likewise, in

sustaining culture, the National Trust Report (2014) advocated for the utilisation of culture-related content at a tourist site to enhance and sustain its attractiveness.

In contrast, some studies regard negatively the use of culture as a part of tourist attraction. According to these scholars, the use of culture to attract tourists is associated with the over-commercialisation of the culture (Loots, Ellis, & Slabbert, 2011; Richards & Palmer, 2010; Gursoy, Kim, & Uysal, 2004; Janeczko, Mules, & Ritchie, 2002); diminishing of authenticity (Gursoy et al., 2004); damage to cultural structures and artefacts (Eser et al., 2013) and other negative impacts such as overcrowding (Gursoy et al., 2004). Amidst these negative effects, Jeon, Park, and Ki (2016) highlighted that locals in some destinations simply tolerate them as the benefits that they receive from tourism far outweigh the cost. It has also been empirically proven that locals at tourism destinations support the use of culture as tools to attract tourism because the benefits are more than the costs (Jeon, Kang, & Desmarais, 2016). These findings are aligned with the social exchange theory (Kayat, 2002; Ap, 1992). The social exchange theory is a good basis to understand the locals' support as it suggests that residents are more likely to support community tourism development when the perceived benefits outweigh the perceived costs (Ap, 1990).

However, it should be noted that not only do locals, but tourists themselves also favour tourism destinations that are rich in culture (Moutinho, 2016). Indeed, many travel to a tourism destination to experience the uniqueness of the local culture, arts, and heritage.

Cognisant of Kota Bharu's position as the cradle of the Malay culture and the demand for cultural destinations, the city's local authority is driven to promote their culture as a part of tourist attraction (Nasir & Salleh, 2014). Based on the background given, this study aims to explore and gain a deeper understanding of the use of local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction from the perspective of experts. Specifically, the study looks at the role of local cultural festivals in Kota Bharu's tourism development and the contributing success factors in promoting Kota Bharu's culture through local cultural festivals.

Tourist Attractions in an Islamic City: Kota Bharu Perspective

The portrayal of Kota Bharu as an Islamic city is not only evident from the design and landscape of the city but, also through specific policies known as Islamisation policies formulated by the state government, *Parti Islam Semalaysia* (PAS). According to Mustafa, Abdullah, and Dian (2020), the rationale for the implementation of these policies is to prohibit any form of entertainment that contradicts Islamic principles. The Control of Entertainment and Places of Entertainment 1998, the Cultural Performance Guidelines (Entertainment) Act 1998, and the Control of Entertainment Enactment 2003 are some of the enactments in place to regulate the arts and entertainment activities.

The purpose of these enactments is to ensure Shariah compliance for arts and cultural activities. Earlier in 1998, for example, PAS introduced the Kelantan Entertainment Control Enactment (KECE 1998) to remove Buddhism and Hinduism influences in the *makyong* performances. Even though *makyong*, *wayang kulit*, and *main teri* are part of the tourist attraction, this law has been implemented to control and modify any original content of this cultural heritage that are found to contradict any principles of Islam (Mustafa et al., 2020).

Methodology

Based on Hancock, Ockleford, and Windridge's (2006) outlook that qualitative approach offers an effective way to broaden or deepen the researcher's understanding of how and why things happen, the present study adopted this approach. To understand how experts perceive the use of local cultural festival as a tourist attraction and why, two techniques were utilised for data gathering: focus group discussion (FGD) and in-depth interviews. Firstly, a FGD was conducted among three knowledgeable locals who are well-versed with local cultural festivals as they were directly involved in hosting these festivals at the village and state level. Secondly, in-depth interviews were conducted with state government officers and academicians.

In selecting the study participants, two sampling techniques were employed: snowball sampling and purposive sampling. The snowball sampling technique was used to select the FDG informants while the purposive sampling technique was used to select the informants for the in-depth interviews. The main criteria used for the selection of the informants include their professional knowledge and experience in organising local cultural festivals, as well as their extensive knowledge in the development of tourism products such as Islamic tourism, heritage tourism, community development, and event tourism.

Firstly, a set of interview protocol which also doubles as a research tool, was developed to obtain the necessary data. Questions for the FGD and in-depth interviews were formulated based on the objectives of the study which are to understand the roles and factors that contribute to the use of local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction. During the data collection stage, all information obtained from the FDG and interviews were recorded using a recorder, transcribed, and interpreted. In creating explanatory and meaningful output, the connectivity and interrelation between the data were observed throughout the analysis.

In this study, the experts were categorised into three categories: the first, informants who were involved directly in organising local cultural festivals at the village and state level as they know and understand the nature of the festivals very well. The second category includes state government officers who were directly involved in managing local cultural festivals in Kelantan and worked with the city's local authority. The expert in this category also worked closely with another

stakeholder which is MPKB-BRI in managing local festivals, including the Kelantan International Kite Festival, drum festivals, and others. The third category comprised academicians. The first academician was a panellist for Kelantan's Islamic tourism development and his personal experience in the development of tourism for Kelantan has been a valuable contribution to this study. The second academician has 17 years' teaching experience in event and festival management.

Results and Discussion

The data gathered from the FGD and in-depth interviews were thematically analysed according to several categories. In discovering the convergence and coherence of data from both sources, the emerging themes were compared. This comparison is important in validating the opinions of experts representing the different groups of primary stakeholders involved in the development of local cultural festivals in Kota Bharu. The responses received from the informants can be used to strengthen the understanding of the research phenomenon.

The Demographic Profiles of the Informants

Each of three groups of informants, as described earlier, play important roles in the growth of the local cultural festivals of Kota Bharu. For instance, the locals play a prominent role in directly developing and organising the local cultural festivals while the state government officer, as the authority figure, ensures that the local cultural festivals are developed in line with the rules and policies of the state government. Lastly, the academicians play another vital role of developing the knowledge base on local cultural festivals, specifically, in relation to the effectiveness of these festivals as a tourist attraction.

Attaining the perspectives of different types of informants with their unique roles is crucial in obtaining a holistic understanding of the issues related to the development of local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction in Kota Bharu. To recap, six informants (experts) participated in this study. Table 1 presents the demographic profiles of these informants (experts). However, in securing the anonymity of these informants, the pseudonyms of "L", "GO", and "A" were used throughout this study representing them as local, government officer and academician, respectively.

Table 1. Demographic profile of the informants (experts)

Informant (Expert)	Type	Ethnicity	Education level	Marital status
L1	Local 1	Malay	SPM	Married
L2	Local 2	Malay	SRP	Married
L3	Local 3	Malay	Degree	Single

Table 1 (con't)

Informant (Expert)	Type	Ethnicity	Education level	Marital status
GO1	State government officer	Malay	Diploma	Married
A1	Academician 1	Malay	Professor Emeritus	Married
A2	Academician 2	Malay	Master's degree	Married

The Role of Local Cultural Festivals as a Tourist Attraction in Kota Bharu

While the overall purpose of the study is to explore the experts' opinion on the use of local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction, it specifically aims to discover the specific roles played by local cultural festivals in Kota Bharu. This is because destinations that organise festivals to increase tourist arrivals have been associated with the over-commercialisation of these festivals merely for generating revenue (Loots et al., 2011; Richards & Palmer, 2010; Gursoy et al., 2004; Janeczko et al., 2002) which in turn, according to Gursoy et al. (2004), diminish the festivals' cultural authenticity and cause other negative impacts such as overcrowding. Similarly, Weaver and Lawton (2013) highlighted other unfavourable impacts associated with festivals such as incidents of drunkenness, disorderly conduct, and other anti-social behaviours. Hence, understanding the roles of local cultural festivals is important, not only to sustain the festivals but also to avert negative impacts.

The overall findings from the FGD and in-depth interviews demonstrate that the informants have a positive reception to the use of local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction in Kota Bharu, based on their perspectives about these festivals' specific roles. The state government officer mentioned that traditional performances (such as *makyong*, *dikir barat*, *silat*, *wayang kulit*, *gendang*, *wau festival*, etc) which are performed in the local cultural festivals provide entertainment for locals and tourists. He shared:

"I would say that the purpose of hosting the local cultural festivals such as the Kelantan International Kite Festival, and Dikir Barat is because we want to give something to the locals. You know....in Kelantan, we have limited entertainment, and residents have nowhere to go on weekends or during night-time. Therefore, by having these local cultural festivals, at least they have places to go to spend time with the family." (GO1)

The state government officer also highlighted the element of culture in the local cultural festivals that attract more tourists to Kota Bharu. One of the local experts concurred on the roles of the local cultural festivals:

"Other than the existing attractions that we already have, we want tourists to come to Kelantan because of the local cultural festivals." (GO1)

"[...] many tourists visit Kota Bharu for cultural and art performances. Our strength is our culture. So why not we use it to attract tourists? And perhaps it could give us more income." (L1)

The informants also validated that these local cultural festivals instill local pride towards their cultural heritage, especially amongst the younger generations:

"Even though I am from a younger generation, I do love cultural performances. Early exposure to local cultural festivals makes me feel proud to be a Kelantanese and we have a special feeling towards local cultural festivals." (L1)

"Based on my observation, we are lucky to have a younger generation that appreciates the cultural performances, that is the uniqueness of our local cultural festivals." (L2)

"Yeah, indeed, our government also works hard to portray Kota Bharu as a cultural city." (L3)

Based on the interview results, there are indications from the informants that the local cultural festivals attract tourists because they allow them to experience a unique culture that cannot be found elsewhere. One informant gushed:

"We love to see our city as so eventful. We love to see tourists coming to our place, and some of them participate in Dikir Barat, playing kites, eat nasi kerabu, nasi ulam, budu and many more. So, it is a beautiful moment for us when others are willing to spend their time knowing our culture and trying our food." (L2)

With regard to the first objective, the findings revealed other significant roles of the local cultural festivals, in addition to its role as a tourist attraction. Figure 1 summarises these findings.

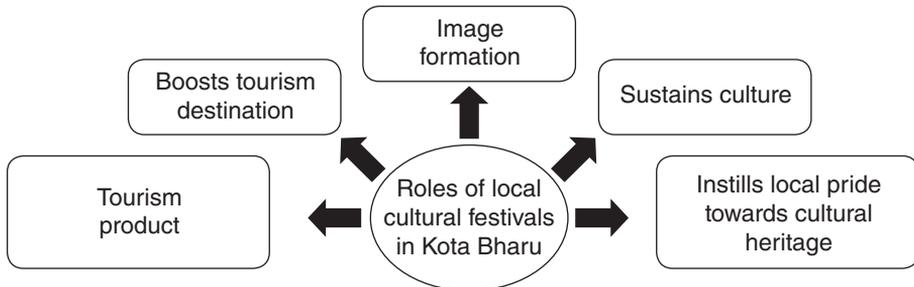


Figure 1. Summary of the roles of local cultural festivals in Kota Bharu

The informants stressed that the local cultural festivals are attractive due to the uniqueness of the roles they play, which can in turn, potentially boost Kota Bharu's tourism. For instance, the richness of the Malay culture in Kota Bharu accentuates cultural images that can sustain the culture whilst continuously promotes the attractiveness of its culture and arts.

Factors that Contribute to the Use of Local Cultural Festivals as a Tourist Attraction

In addition to expressing their perceptions about the roles of the local cultural festivals, the study informants also verified the success factors that contribute to the development of the local cultural festivals in Kota Bharu and the sustenance of its image as a cultural city as well as the formation of the city's Islamic image. For example, Kota Bharu's remarkable hosting of the annual Kelantan International Kite Festival for the past 37 years demonstrates the local authority's capability of sustaining and promoting an international event.

As stated by the experts, one of the factors that contribute to the sustainability of local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction in Kota Bharu is local support. Local support, in this regard, refers to the positive feedback and reception from members of the community such as hospitable treatment, friendliness and politeness to visitors and positive recommendations on local attractions, amongst others. This positive reception from the local community can further enhance the experience, enjoyment, and excitement of the tourists towards the festival. Locals shared :

"We show our support towards local cultural festivals by going and attending the festival. I will bring my family to the festivals. To give the kids some exposure about local culture." (L2)

"We can't wait to have festivals. To be specific, every year, we await the Kelantan International Kite Festival. It has been hosted here since a long time ago [...] it has become part of our lives." (L3)

The transformation of Kota Bharu from a cultural city into an Islamic City since 2005 (Hassan et al., 2017) has never damaged the image of Kota Bharu as a cultural city. For example, the built environment and landscape in Kota Bahru were well-planned and well-executed to depict the Islamic image (Nasir & Salleh, 2014). All these progressive actions by the MPKB-BRI and Tourism Information Centre (TIC) have bolstered further the efforts of the state government in promoting local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction in Kota Bharu.

The government officer validated:

“The development of local cultural festivals in Kota Bharu actually does come from the local authority. Other than local food as an attraction, local cultural festivals is actually our main product [...] so in developing local cultural festivals, we are getting full support from most of our stakeholders, but [...] when it comes to the budget...there is a limitation. You know, we are the opposition of the federal government.” (GO1)

The other factor that has helped in the development of the local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction in Kota Bharu is its image as a cultural city. As the state government officer attested:

“Other than an Islamic city, Kota Bharu is widely known as a cultural city, specifically the cradle of the Malay culture. Thus, I assume that the positive image of the originality of cultural festivals makes others think that Kota Bharu as the best place for a cultural experience.” (GO1)

Tourist destinations with culture-based elements such as festivals have always been appreciated as they deliver something unique and remarkable to tourists. For instance, tourists can learn about the unique cultural heritage, local customs, and historical background of the local ethnic groups through such festivals (Akhoondnejad, 2016). In the case of Kota Bharu, the second academician asserted:

“The nature of the event, especially local cultural festivals that get people together for a specific purpose gives them the opportunity to share their knowledge about the culture. In hosting the local cultural festivals, it is important for the organiser to consider the five senses that could give the 3E (experience, enjoyment, excitement) to the attendees”. (A2)

Additionally, the degree of acceptance amongst tourists for the performances in the local cultural festivals also determine the success of these festivals as a tourist attraction. The first academician and the first local informant had this to say:

“In terms of acceptability and moral suitability, local cultural festivals should be hosted at the right times, with the right content and possibly convey a positive message”. (A1)

“Each of the cultural performances such as Dikir Barat, Mak Yong, Wayang Kulit has its purpose and motive. For example, Dikir Barat and Wayang Kulit are performed to remind us to be a good person.” (L1)

Figure 2 summarises the factors that contribute to the success of local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction.



Figure 2. Summary of factors that contribute to the success of local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction

As illustrated in Figure 2, the success of local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction in Kota Bharu is facilitated by the community's positive reaction towards these festivals. As the primary stakeholder, the local community is strongly concerned with the perceived benefits of the local cultural festivals. Apart from being a tourism product, local cultural festivals have also become a medium for the community to expose their young to the local culture inherited from the previous generations, as well as for spending time with family. The commitment of the state government in improving the image of Kota Bharu as an Islamic city whilst maintaining the image of Kota Bharu as a cradle for the Malay culture also sustains the local cultural festivals.

As mentioned earlier, the state government plays an important role in ensuring that the image of Kota Bharu as a cultural city is maintained. The formation of the city's image via Islamic and cultural landscape (and policies) demonstrates the seriousness of the local authority in balancing the elements of Islamic values and cultural values for tourism growth. Lastly, the uniqueness of performances that provides a cultural experience not found elsewhere is an added value to the tourist's visit.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the choice of using the local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction can be regarded as a flawless decision made by the local authority. However, as an Islamic city, MKPB-BRI needs to ensure that performances during the local cultural festivals are performed according to shariah. Although the roles of the local cultural festivals in Kota Bharu are generally similar to that of festivals in tourist destinations elsewhere — as a tourism product, as a booster for tourism destination, formation of an image, to sustain local culture, and to promote unique culture and arts —, it is interesting to note that the unique nature of these attractions is not found

elsewhere. This certainly strengthens Kota Bharu's own distinctive and authentic identity.

Further, the factors contributing to the success of local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction are critical in ensuring their continuity and sustainability. The findings also prove that culture-based attractions bring the least damage to the environment as compared to other tourism products. Thus, the 11th SDG is also supported.

Future studies could fruitfully explore this research topic further by studying the development of local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction in other states such as Malacca, Sabah and Sarawak. Following this, a comparison among the states can be conducted, specifically on the roles and contributing success factors of local cultural festivals as a tourist attraction.

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Empirical Paper

Community Involvement and Participation for Sustainable Tourism: A Case Study in Gili Trawangan Post-earthquake

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Abstract: The locus of study is the Gili Trawangan Nature Reserve (Gili Tramen National Natural Park) which is located in the North Lombok municipality under the West Nusa Tenggara (*Nusa Tenggara Barat/NTB*) province of Indonesia. Sustainable tourism has long been viewed as beneficial to the environment, community, and economy. Further studies confirmed that community participation has a role and is an important tenet of tourism planning. While community empowerment and social capital have always been hot research areas in tourism development, only a few studies have explored the implementation of community involvement and participation, especially after the 2018 earthquake. The aim of this study was to determine the forms of involvement and participation of local communities in the recovery and sustainability of Gili Trawangan tourist destinations under the Tosun theory approach. This study used a qualitative approach. In-depth interviews were the method used to gather data through key respondents (purposive sampling). The study asserted that the community involvement and participation approach was a strategy to encourage recovery and to sustain the nature park of Gili Tramen. The study found that community involvement and participation formed significantly after the earthquake. The type of community participation was dominated by spontaneous participation, and this study showed that the recovery of Gili Trawangan was a great success. The findings of this research served as a recommendation to the government, investors, and stakeholders on the approach strategy in Gili Trawangan's development.

Keywords: Community participation, community involvement, community-based tourism (CBT), sustainable tourism, resilience, responsible tourism

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Introduction

In the last two decades, the issue of sustainability has been a topic of discussion and debate among researchers in relation to development, particularly in the tourism sector (Byrd, 2007; Vles, 2009). The principles of sustainability are pivotal in the implementation of future development, especially in local communities. Sustainability is a solution offered by many researchers because it has long been considered beneficial for the environment, community, and economy (Gibson, Kaplanidou, & Kang, 2012; Swarbrooke, 1999). The three benefits of sustainability are popularly known as the dimensions of sustainability. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development has a global commitment towards successfully achieving sustainable development in the three domains of economic, social, and environment, in a balanced and integrated manner (United Nations, 2015).

There are many obstacles in the implementation of sustainability in the field of tourism, especially with respect to the community (Aref & Redzuan, 2008; Dogra & Gupta, 2012). The community is the part which is often marginalised. However, various gaps become apparent with community involvement. For instance, local communities tend not to be directly involved in tourism development, be it in the planning or decision-making process. The community also considers the enjoyment of benefits brought about by tourism to be limited to business people and government officials rather than being used for the benefit of the entire community. Nevertheless, scholars have paid much attention to the rationality of local community involvement and participation. This includes the need for the community to be active in the growth of tourism during the planning and decision-making process, for example (Gumede & Nzama, 2019; Moyo & Tichaawa, 2017; Muganda, Sirima, & Ezra, 2013; Sebele, 2010; Tosun, 1999, 2006; Yu, Chancellor, & Cole, 2011). Research has presented questions about the unsustainable and ineffective participation and involvement of local communities in the development of tourism (Dixey, 2008).

The unsustainability of community participation does not only occur in parts of the European world, but also in East Asia. Gili Trawangan is one of the tourism development areas in Lombok, Indonesia, which the government decided to develop as a marine nature park. Tourism development as a whole, however, may potentially have the tendency to marginalise the involvement of the local community. Gili Trawangan as an island destination is also vulnerable to natural disasters. This island is in the path of the Flores Ascending Fault (Flores Back Arc) which extends from East Nusa Tenggara (*Nusa Tenggara Timur*/NTT) to northern Bali. The earthquake in 2018 was one such natural disaster. This earthquake devastated Gili Trawangan on 5 August 2018, with a strength of 7 on the Richter scale (SR). But the next six months after the disaster has offered the island charm.

Many researchers also encourage the engagement and participation of society as a crucial and beneficial measure for sustainable tourism in the planning and growth

of tourism (Cárdenas, Byrd, & Duffy, 2015; Dogra & Gupta, 2012; McLoughlin & Hanrahan, 2019). The community has a role in protecting destinations by developing a sense of community participation. The sense of community needs to be reinforced by local communities for tourism growth (Conway & Hachen, 2005).

Despite its problems, the development of Gili Trawangan has been, and still is, a magnet for tourists to come to the island. Only a few have witnessed the synergy resulting from the empowerment of community participation and disaster recovery. Therefore, this paper seeks to explain and evaluate the forms in which community involvement and participation was implemented in tourism creation in and around Gili Trawangan after the disaster in 2018. This article is expected to be able to contribute ideas and recommendations in the development of knowledge related to community participation in the aftermath of a disaster.

Literature Review

Community Participation and Involvement in Tourism Development

Sustainable tourism is tourism which takes full account of its current and future economic, social, and environmental impacts and addresses the needs of tourists, the industry, the environment, and host communities (UNEP, 2005). Owing to a lack of understanding and information about tourism development, most groups in the local community shy away from participation. Lack of community participation has been an encumbrance in prevention, control, and intervention management. It typically restricts community members' participation in tourism growth planning and decision-making (Dogra & Gupta, 2012; Kala & Bagri, 2018; Okech, 2016). In addition, the lack of tourism expertise restricts community members from becoming the leaders of their community's tourism projects as well as succession planning for tourism growth, and many governments in developed countries have used this as an excuse to push community members from being involved in tourism development (Abdul Razzaq et al., 2011; Moscardo, 2008).

Community involvement is regarded as a means of grassroots democracy, where people are entitled to make decisions on topics that concern their lives directly (Burns, 2004). Host community participation and involvement as a corrective style to control tourism development has encouraged the goal of sustainable tourism creation through voluntary participation of the local communities (Bello, Carr, Lovelock, & Xu, 2017; Styliadis, Biran, Sit, & Szivas, 2014). Snyman (2012) promoted the concept of community-driven tourism, where community members manage tourism infrastructure and facilities in their region. Cole (2006) indicated that the local community finds favourable and unfavourable tourist outcomes, either directly or indirectly, or that its involvement is necessary to better deal with the impacts and to gain the advantages produced by tourism activities. Kala and Bagri (2018) supported greater advocacy for community involvement, better synchronisation among the government authorities concerned, local education and training, and the

need to determine unique strategies to promote local participation that is tailored to an evolving destination context.

There are three forms of community participation that can illustrate community involvement (Arnstein, 1969; Pretty, 1995; Tosun, 1999). According to Pretty (1995), the typology of community participation was divided into seven levels: (a) manipulative participation, (b) passive participation, (c) participation by consultation, (d) participation for material incentives, (e) factional participation, (f) interactive participation, and (g) self-mobilisation. Arnstein (1969) posited that the typology of community participation was divided into eight levels. Meanwhile, Tosun (1999) noted that the typology of community participation consisted of three levels: (1) spontaneous participation, (2) induced participation, and (3) coercive participation.

Tosun (2006) argued that forms of involvement contextualised the categorical term “community participation”, which enabled individuals, people, and host communities to participate at various levels (local, regional, or national) and in different ways. The most important thing probably lies in the power of the power distribution. In the context of general developmental studies, the typologies of community participation by Arnstein (1969) and Pretty (1995) were established. They were not linked to the economic field in particular. However, the typology by Tosun (1999) was planned especially for tourism. It defined each form of involvement of the group with a particular reference to tourism. Figure 1 shows a comparison of the community participation typologies by Arnstein, Pretty, and Tosun (1999).

7. Self-mobilisation	←	8. Citizen control	Degrees of Citizen Power	→	Spontaneous Participation Bottom-up; active participation; direct participation; participation in decision making, authentic participation; self-planning.	
6. Interactive participation		7. Delegated power				6. Partnership
5. Functional participation	←	5. Placation	Degrees of Citizen Tokenism	→	Induced Participation Top-down; passive; formal; mostly indirect; degree of tokenism, manipulation; pseudo-participation; participation in implementation and sharing benefits; choice between proposed alternatives and feedback.	
4. Participation for material incentives		4. Consultation				3. Informing
3. Participation by consultation		2. Therapy				Non-participation
2. Passive participation	1. Manipulation	→	Coercive Participation Top-down; passive; formal; mostly indirect; participation in implementation, but not necessarily sharing benefits; choice between proposed limited alternatives or no choice; paternalism; non-participation; high degree of tokenism and manipulation.			
1. Manipulative participation						
Pretty's (1995) typology of community participation		Arnstein's (1971) typology of community participation			Tosun's (1999a) typology of community participation	

Key: Corresponding categories in each typology ⇔ ⇐

Source: Tosun, 2006

Figure 1. Normative typologies of community participation

Tosun's Three-level Typology of Community Participation

- A. **Spontaneous participation** means community participation occurs voluntarily, without being pushed by outside parties. This is the optimal type of involvement by the society. For a detailed explanation, this type of participation is divided into several dimensions, including:
1. **Active participation**, whereby participation occurs if the community achieves its own goals and satisfaction.
 2. **Direct participation**, whereby there is direct interaction with the community to make decisions, and the community members can convey their aspirations directly.
 3. **Informal participation**, whereby interaction occurs outside the official status of participation between local leaders and community development parties.
 4. **Authentic participation**, whereby the community is aware that it has to be fully responsible for the decisions taken. It also expects a greater share of the development results. Normally, this participation type shows the involvement of local communities; they not only need a change in the field of national politics, but also want a change in the economic field.
- B. **Induced participation** essentially means there is support, there are orders, and it is officially approved. This participation type is most commonly encountered in developing countries, where the government has a major role in initiating participatory action through strategies to encourage and train local leaders into taking a leading role, building cooperation, and supporting communities. To provide a deeper understanding of this type of participation, it is divided into several sections as follows:
1. **Passive participation**, whereby the group participates only in the implementation, and does not engage in the decision-making process.
 2. **Indirect participation**, in which people do not convey their decisions directly, but through representatives of certain institutions or groups who are appointed in general.
 3. **Formal participation**, which is officially approved and has status. The rules and limits for participation are set by the government.
 4. **Pseudo participation**, whereby the community is not concerned with decision-making, but the community is included in the execution of decisions made by others.
- C. **Coercive participation** is the most extreme form of participation, whereby the community is obliged and manipulated by the authorities to get involved in

tourism development. In the short term, there may be immediate results. However, in the long term, this type of coercion will erode the support of the community. It will also not result in, or even invoke, the interest of the community to be involved in development activities.

The Geographic Scope of the Study

Gili Air, Gili Meno, and Gili Trawangan are part of a Marine Tourism Park (*Taman Wisata Perairan/TWP*), and are known collectively as the Gili Matra Marine Park (Gili Matra). This park has a total area of 2,954 hectares (ha), which includes:

- ± 175 ha of land area for Gili Air, with a circumference of ± 5 km
- ± 150 ha of land area for Gili Meno, with a circumference of ± 4 km, and
- ± 340 ha of land area for Gili Trawangan, with a circumference of ± 7.5 km.

The rest of the surrounding area is marine water. The locus of research is shown in Figure 2.

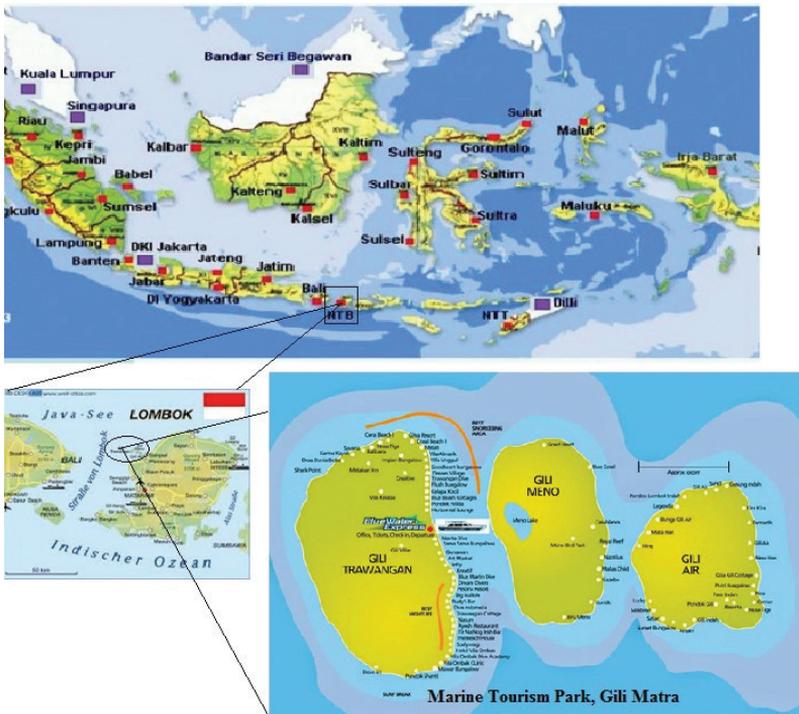


Figure 2. Gili Matra Marine Park of Indonesia

Gili Matra has a latitude of 8° 20'–8° 23' South and a longitude of 116° 00'–116° 08' East. Gili Trawangan, which is the largest of the three islands, is located at the tip of Lombok Island. Gili Air and Gili Meno are the two smaller islands. This region can be categorised as semi-open inner islands. The Gili Matra region is protected by Lombok Island in the south-eastern part, and influenced by the Java Sea in the northern side, Lombok Strait in the western part, and Indonesian Throughflow coming from the Indian Ocean (Murdana, 2010; Sprintall, Potemra, Hautala, Bray, & Pandoe, 2003).

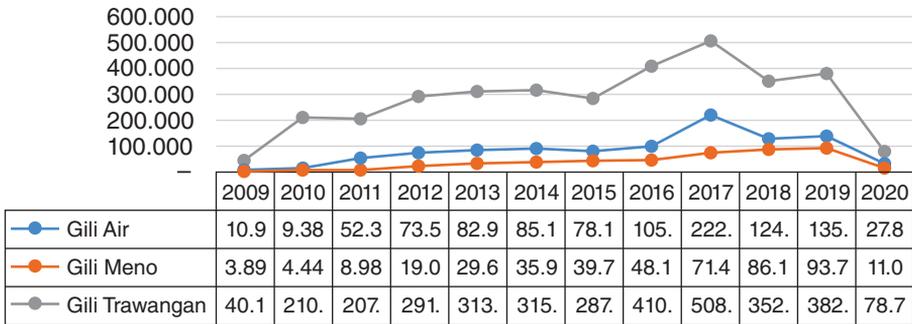
Gili Matra has a tropical climate that is influenced by rainy and dry seasons. The temperature in this area ranges from 200° C–320° C. Wet periods with a rainfall of 200 mm/month generally occur from December to February, while dry periods with a rainfall of below 10 mm/month occur in August and September. The highest monthly rainfall occurs in January and the lowest rainfall occurs in September.

Gili Trawangan is the most popular destination and is widely known as the party island. This island has long been the benchmark for Lombok tourism. So much so that, a holiday in Lombok is not complete without visiting Gili Trawangan. The island is beautiful and famed for its white sand and clean beaches. It is a very happening island, where tourists can enjoy lively night entertainment.

Among the three islands, Gili Trawangan has the widest area (2 km wide, and 3 km long), with a total area of about 340 ha. Tourists can tour the island by foot or bicycle. Alternatively, they can ride a traditional Lombok horse-drawn carriage called *cidomo* to enjoy the beauty of the island because there is no use of motorbikes or cars in the area (Halim, 2017).

Administratively, the Gili Matra region is part of the Pemenang Subdistrict in the North Lombok Regency, West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) province. Gili Trawangan is known as a natural area with the development of marine ecotourism. It is a Marine Tourism Park (TWP) area through the Decree of the Minister of Marine Affairs and Fisheries, Indonesia, No. Kep. 67/MEN/2009. In the planning and development of the Gili Trawangan area, many areas are identified as having vulnerabilities, by internal, external, and natural factors (Murdana, 2013, 2019). Gili Trawangan is also very vulnerable to excessive resource exploration (Pradjoko, Bachtiar, Matalatta, & Sugihartono, 2015; Santamarta, Naranjo, & Arraiza, 2014).

The population of tourist visits to Gili Trawangan and its surroundings has been increasing yearly. The following Figure 3 shows that from 2009 to 2017, the level of tourist visits was on the increase. In 2018, however, the arrival of tourists dropped significantly, but gradually increased again in 2019. The sharp decline of 2018 was caused by the impact of the earthquake that struck the island of Lombok in August of that year. Tourist visits in 2018 had declined to 30.72%, before rising by 8.76% in 2019. In 2020, tourist arrivals again fell greatly by 79.42%, this time due to the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic.



Source: Government Tourism Offices of the North Lombok Regency, 2020

Figure 3. Gili Matra tourist arrivals

As a Marine Tourism Park (TWP), Gili Trawangan has great potential, and it faces various opportunities and threats from internal and external factors in tourism development. Natural disasters are one of the biggest threats to the island's existence. In addition, the role of local communities in tourism development is very important. The success of the development is tantamount to the participation of the local communities. The forms of participation and involvement of the local communities is the goal of this study, with regard to the recovery and sustainability of Gili Trawangan as a tourist destination.

Materials and Methods

This study used a purposive sampling approach in determining the respondent allocation. Purposive sampling was one of the non-random sampling techniques applied, where the researchers determined sampling by ascertaining specific characteristics in line with the research objectives. The aim was for the study to be able to answer research problems as expected (Sugiyono, 2011). Purposive sampling was used in an in-depth exploration of information to respondents, who were really familiar with the implementation of community participation and involvement in Gili Trawangan and its surroundings. Observation, thorough interviews, and an empirical study were the data collection approaches used. Participatory observation was employed and it included an observation checklist in the data collection process. The empirical study and in-depth interviews were combined to obtain more complete and accurate data. The samples included several key respondents, namely the lead of the Gili Trawangan Community Forum (*Forum Masyarakat Gili Trawangan/FMGT*), the lead of the Gili Trawangan Entrepreneurs Association (*Asosiasi Pengusaha Gili Trawangan/APGT*), the Head of Gili Eco Trust, the Head

of Gili Trawangan Hamlet, and the Chairman of the Gili Hotel Association (GHA). The qualitative approach was used in the study during the collection, analysis, and interpretation of data. This approach was chosen because qualitative research is a research method aimed at understanding human issues in a social context, generating a complete, nuanced image, reporting a comprehensive view of information sources, and performing them naturally, without researchers interfering (Sudaryono, 2019).

Results and Discussions

The first part of this section focuses on Gili Trawangan and its surroundings that suffered significant damage after the earthquake in August 2018. The island, which was previously a vibrant place where people had fun, was reduced to devastation and ruin and left totally devoid of tourists. The residents busied themselves packing and salvaging what was left of their belongings in the wake of the disaster. Supporting facilities and tourism infrastructure were all damaged. Almost everyone who had survived the incident was shocked and shaken; others experienced severe trauma. Some people were dedicated to Gili Trawangan, choosing to stay on to protect the island and take care of its remaining resources. Communities voluntarily carried out clean-ups, repairs, and various island restoration activities in mutual cooperation. The community recovery movement was spontaneous. Cleaning was done on access roads that were filled with building debris due to the tremor. In some places, the community set up emergency tents for temporary shelter. At night, the island—dark and deserted—seemed tense.

Based on the observation and empirical study conducted from September 2018 till December 2018, the researchers confirmed that *adat* (traditional institution) as a village community institution and the non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in Gili Trawangan played a significant role. They executed active recovery collaboratively. They also encouraged and developed the spirit of community to recovery. This spirit of community has been proven capable of generating a sense of solidarity to awaken and perform destination recovery.

This research thus found that the earthquake had contributed positively to growing and strengthening the spirit of the community to protect and help each other in developing Gili Trawangan and its surroundings. These research results reinforced the findings made by Conway and Hachen (2005) that developing and strengthening a sense of community was capable of protecting and sustaining tourism destinations.

The research also found that the involvement and participation of the Gili Trawangan community arose spontaneously, due to the members' awareness and responsibility to protect and maintain the Gili Trawangan destination. The findings were analysed based on the typology of community participation (Tosun, 1999). These

findings both endorsed and reinforced Tosun's concept of community involvement in tourism. In fact, in accordance with Tosun's typology of community participation, the findings revealed that spontaneous participation was developed from the bottom up, direct participation, participation in decision-making, authentic participation, and self-planning (Tosun, 2006). Meanwhile, induced and coercive participations did not occur in Gili Trawangan's community during the research. Induced participation is characterised by top-down participation, formality, mostly indirect, a degree of tokenism, manipulation, pseudo-participation, participation in implementation and sharing of benefit, and the choice between proposed alternatives and feedback. On the other hand, coercive participation is characterised by top-down participation, formality, mostly indirect, participation in implementation (but not necessarily in sharing of benefit), the choice between proposed limited alternatives and no choice, paternalism, non-participation, a high degree of tokenism, and manipulation (Tosun, 2005, 2006).

The implementation of community involvement and participation was carried out through (1) an image and education approach, (2) a mythological and cultural approach, and (3) an annual event approach. Implementation of community participation using the image and education approach essentially means that the community was directly involved in the planning and development of Gili Trawangan. Image implementation took place in the form of the Safe Gili campaign, Gili triathlon, weekly clean-ups, and coral reef plastic clean-ups.

The Safe Gili campaign aimed to show the world that the Gili islands were safe to visit. It was proven that the community and tourists were not fearful of the disaster, and had collaborated in conducting sports exhibitions, clean-ups, and marine conservation in Gili Trawangan and its surroundings. The community and NGOs were in collaboration; not only in participatory action, but also in the sharing of event expenses.

The mythological and cultural approach aimed to involve the community in the development of tourism cultural aspects. The implementation of the mythological and cultural approach was done through traditional activities, such as *gili megibung* and *mandi safar*. *Gili megibung* is the traditional approach to community involvement and participation of maintaining solidarity through eating together. Apart from that, all materials and equipment must use a natural traditional approach. Materials made of plastic were prohibited. The essence of the event was community learning, collaboration, and participation to care for and protect nature.

Meanwhile, *mandi safar* or *rebo bontong* is one of the traditional rituals of the Gili people which originated from Bugis. The aim of the ritual was to purify themselves by bathing in the sea together through a traditional process. In general, the purpose of the mythological and cultural approach was to balance and sustain nature.

The study results also found a significant relationship between the spirit of the community through a sense of solidarity and community involvement and participation as a salient point of sustainable tourism, especially after an earthquake or a natural disaster. Community spirit and the spontaneous actions of community participation in Gili Trawangan and its surroundings were strongly influenced by several factors, including (1) the similarity of emotional relationships due to the disaster, (2) the feeling of a Bugis tribe family, (3) the influence of *adat* power through several NGOs in Gili Trawangan and its surroundings, (4) the integrity and hope of island recovery and economy, and (5) a responsibility-based culture.

The factors that influence direct and spontaneous community participation in Gili Trawangan and its surroundings are proposed as a recommendation to policymakers in formulating future actions for sustainable tourism. Theoretically, research findings can upgrade scientific knowledge, especially in the implementation of community involvement and participation linked to sustainable tourism, and can reinforce the theory used.

Conclusion

Although community participation has been considered one of the effective strategies as well as a salient point of sustainable tourism, the fact remains: its success hinges extensively on the factors influencing the spirit of community participation. There is an interplay between collective spirit and community engagement after the tragedy. The implementation of community involvement and participation in Gili Trawangan and its surroundings has been encouraged by direct and spontaneous participation. Community power has dominant influence on the planning and development of Gili Trawangan as a tourism destination. *Adat* and the NGOs of Gili Trawangan acted as the initiator and executor of responsible development. Nevertheless, this research has its limitations, with regard to the method of data collection and sampling method to support the value achievement of justification. Future research is recommended to reconstruct the study using the quantitative approach so that it is more measurable.

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Empirical Paper

Achieving United Nation's Sustainable Development Goal 1 (SDG1) in Rural Heritage Sites by Marketing Towards Youth Visitors: Possible Motivating Factors

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Abstract: Understanding the tourism-related motivation and experience of youth visitors is important since the demands of this segment may shape the future of the tourism sector. This market segment has individual needs and expectations, as well as unique profiles and characteristics that requires in-depth investigation to be fully understood. This study aims to identify potential factors that motivate this market segment to visit the Sungai Batu heritage site located in Malaysia. Questionnaires, developed based on previous research on travel motivation, were used in this study. A total of 101 respondents who had never visited the site participated in the study. The results show that appropriate marketing strategies and improvements in site management could motivate more youth visitors to visit the heritage site. In the long run, this could lead to greater interest among youth visitors to choose heritage sites as their travel destination. This will help boost visitor numbers and improve the socio-economic status of local residents living near the heritage site.

Keywords: Marketing strategy, pull factors, push factors, rural heritage site, youth visitors

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Introduction

Eliminating poverty is one of the main reasons for tourism development initiatives as well as the first Sustainable Development Goal (SDG1) of the United Nations (UN) (UNDP, 2020). This paper focuses on the marketing aspect of tourism, specifically the importance of understanding the target market, as this provides information about customers that help destination management organisations (DMOs) plan. Destinations that do not understand the market are bound to fail because it is unlikely that they will provide products and services that customers actually demand (Yacout & Zoweil, 2020). This could result in bad travel experiences that leave customers feeling unsatisfied. The ultimate price would be loss of customers as they may never return, or may give negative reviews (word-of-mouth marketing) to their friends and relatives. As marketing is often an expensive affair, a good marketing plan is essential in ensuring the funds allocated for marketing are not wasted. This is especially important during tough economic times when funding is limited or not easily accessible.

In general, previous research has mainly focused on heritage tourism within the context of mainstream tourists (Boukas, 2014). There is a lack of information concerning the youth visitors' experience of heritage destinations. Therefore, this study used Sungai Batu heritage site as a case study to obtain insights into the nature and characteristics of the youth market to understand their motivation to visit heritage sites. Specifically, it looks at what youth visitors look for as far as a rural heritage tourism site is concerned. Additionally, the demographics, trip characteristics, and their reasons for visiting were also investigated.

Such baseline information is key to the development of new marketing strategies, especially creating new markets for quality market share. Additionally, heritage tourism is now in its mature stage of development and needs to focus efforts in attracting newer tourist segments (Lee & Phau, 2018). Yet, a study by Jaafar, Noor, and Rasoolimanesh (2015) has contended that youth generally have only superficial awareness about heritage and heritage sites. As such, research to examine what attracts youth visitors to a heritage tourism site is considered timely and much needed. A quantitative approach using self-administered questionnaires was adopted for this study.

The study was conducted within the context of Sungai Batu, which translates to Stone River. Sungai Batu is one of the oldest Southeast Asia civilisation ever found. Located in Sungai Petani, Kedah, the site is believed to be a buzzing seaport during its time due to archaeological finds that indicate old jetties, warehouses and administrative buildings. The site also boasts remnants of ancient religious temples and iron melting facilities indicating the presence of social and industrial activities for the people of this ancient civilisation. As such, Sungai Batu is poised to be a good heritage tourism product for people keen on learning about the past (Loh, 2019). However, the location is surrounded by oil palm estates with a scattered population

of villagers, some of whom have been hired by the heritage site management as exhibition actors, guards and maintenance personnel. There are 11 villages around the heritage site. Among them are Kampung Sungai Tua, Kampung Sungai Kertas, Kampung Nakhoda, Kampung Laksamana, Kampung Melayu Batu Caves, Kampung Baru Batu Caves, and Batu Caves Indian Settlement.

Literature Review

Tourism as a business is particularly dependent on good marketing strategies because it is built entirely on interaction between hosts and guests, which determines the quality of the customer experience. Hence it lacks tangibility and is subject to the information exchange prior, during and post consumption of tourism products and services. The quality of experience is also determined by the subjective picture the customer has, which influences their expectations and reactions to their relative tourism experience. In this regard, marketing heritage tourism is particularly challenging. McKercher & duCros (2002) pointed out that marketing heritage tourism is an “interplay between tourism, the use of cultural heritage assets, the consumption of experience and products, and the tourists” (p.6).

Heritage tourism is one of the fastest growing tourism sectors and is considered a niche market in which relieving the past has become a critical tourist experience (Bonn, Joseph-Mathews, Dai, Hayes, & Cave, 2007). Heritage destinations, especially those in rural areas, have become major tourist attractions due to their distinctive product offering such as the presence of ancient ruins, religious monuments and archaeological artefacts. These tourism products invoke a sense of belonging, especially to those who wish to discover and understand more about their heritage and historical background.

Defining the term “heritage” is complex and challenging as heritage is “not simply part of a past chronological sequence but rather includes various dimensions of culture, identity, language and locality” (Trinh, Ryan, & Cave, 2016, p.130). Heritage tourism is popular as it encompasses a wide variety of landscapes and settings including museums, aquariums, performing arts centres, archaeological digs, religious centres and monuments (Bonn et al., 2007). Each attraction has its own unique combination of advantages with some of them focusing on cultural aspects while others focus on geographical elements.

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) estimates that heritage tourism accounts for 37% of global tourism and is expected to grow continuously (Wang, Wu, & Yuan, 2010). Yao (2013) highlighted that although no single definition of heritage tourism has gained widespread attention, previous research indicates that heritage destinations require well-designed physical attributes, such as historic buildings and beautiful scenery, as well as the concurrent participation and involvement of tourists. Heritage sites and destinations are especially popular because most individuals are naturally curious about their societies and personal

pasts (Trinh et al., 2016). Thus, heritage tourism relies on historical sites that have attractive settings to appeal to visitors.

Among the most common motivations for visitor trips to heritage destinations include relaxation and education, in which visitors learn about the site and seek to be educated (Wang et al., 2010; Boukas, 2013a). Destination authenticity, which is a key attribute of heritage tourism, can also be an important motivator for heritage tourists (Lee & Phau, 2018). The authenticity of the heritage site is commonly reflected by external cues such as external artefacts, local activities and the general ambiance of a destination. Furthermore, the heritage site's physical environment plays an important role in determining both visitor attitude towards the heritage attraction, repeat visits and willingness to recommend the attraction to friends and relatives (Bonn et al., 2007).

In terms of the youth travel market, previous research has established that this segment is interested in exploring other cultures, looking for excitement, increasing knowledge, relaxing and socialising (Richards & Wilson, 2004). Thus, marketing heritage sites to this particular segment may well be a good strategy to increase visitor numbers. Youth visitors are also interested in culture and/or heritage that are yet to be uncovered (Boukas, 2013a). This has been demonstrated in the study by Richards and Wilson (2003) who concluded that youth visitors seek historical sites and monuments during travel and by Shoham, Schrage, and Van Eeden (2004) who proposed that youth, particularly students, prefer culture during travel. McKercher and duCros (2002) also made a similar conclusion by emphasising that culture is not only consumed by older tourists but also by young tourists as well. Hence there is a need to understand the needs and expectations of youth in destinations as they are different from other age segments and are often dictated by the youth culture. A way to peek into the youth culture is by understanding their perceptions because perceptions can affect choice (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2000) especially in the tourism context. Perceptions, whether positive or negative, could influence how they see a tourism destination. Hence, understanding perceptions could help in destination planning and development (Boukas, 2013a), particularly in relation to marketing.

Although the majority of young people travel on a strict budget and choose cheaper accommodation and modes of transportation, they spend time longer at a destination than other tourists and spend money directly with local communities. Young people also tend to travel more frequently than their older counterparts as they have less work and family commitments. Additionally, their higher-spending limit is due to the fact that they are mostly funded by their parents and have the chance to work during their travels. Further, compared to mainstream tourists, the youth market is more resilient during an economic crisis or situations of political unrest, as they tend to continue ahead with their travel plans (Richards, 2011).

It is important for the tourism industry to analyse the trends and characteristics of the youth travel market in order to serve them well and profitably. Studying the travel behaviours of this market segment is especially important for making significant contributions to the development of marketing strategies. Youth travellers have distinct identities, special interests and different needs which distinguish them from adult tourists (Lee & Phau, 2018). Sadly, the youth travel market has been largely neglected as they are often viewed as merely younger versions of adult tourists (Josiam, Clements, & Hobson, 1994). In terms of heritage tourism, this segment needs to be catered to as heritage is considered as one of their major motives for travelling as they seek to enrich their knowledge during their travels (Boukas, 2013b). Furthermore, as youth travellers grow up to become adult travellers, understanding their current travel behaviour would provide insight into their behaviour later in their adult lives. As such, the current study will focus on the youth market segment.

The Sungai Batu heritage site, located in the north of Malaysia, is one of Southeast Asia's oldest archaeological complex, believed to date back to the 1st century AD (Boon, 2015). This archaeological complex is located within Bujang Valley, which is another archaeological site with more than 50 ancient temple ruins being unearthed at the site. Research has indicated that Bujang Valley was a centre for the spreading of Hindu-Buddhism as well as the centre for trade in the region due to its strategic location. The recent discovery of the Sungai Batu archaeological complex by the Centre for Global Archaeological Research, Universiti Sains Malaysia has also gained renewed interest among historians, archaeological experts as well as the public.

Based on the excavations carried out between 2009–2010, researchers revealed important evidence of a Southeast Asian civilisation based on trade and iron industry, in which Sungai Batu played a major role. The excavation revealed jetty remains, iron smelting sites and clay brick monuments dating back to 110 AD, making it the oldest man-made structure to be recorded in Southeast Asia. Recognising the significance of this discovery, Malaysia's Department of National Heritage has gazetted the site as a National Heritage under the National Heritage Act 2005. This initiative by the government aims to ensure that the site continues to be protected and maintained for future generations.

Materials and Methods

The data used for this study were collected from individuals who have never visited the Sungai Batu Heritage site. A quantitative approach was adopted whereby respondents were recruited among 19 to 26-year-old students attending selected universities in the Northern region of Malaysia. The questionnaires were distributed to students in 2018 for a period of two months. Convenience sampling was used in this study whereby students at the selected universities were approached and then asked if they could participate in this research. Prior to the distribution of

questionnaires, a qualifying question was asked to determine if the respondents have been to Sungai Batu Heritage site within the last three years.

The questionnaire consisted of three sections. The first section included questions about visitor characteristics/demographic profile. The second section contained questions concerning trip characteristics. The last section consisted of questions related to the push factors (benefits sought) and pull factors (destination characteristics). All the questionnaire items were based on previous themes extracted from the literature (Chhabra, 2010; Kim, Oh, & Jogaratnam, 2007).

Results and Discussion

A total of 101 university students participated in the study as they are considered potential youth visitors to a heritage site. As detailed in Table 1, there were more female than male respondents and their ages were below 23 years old. Two-thirds of the respondents were Malaysian students, while the rest represented international students. In terms of academic qualification, the majority has a bachelor degree, which indicates that the respondents may mostly be postgraduate students. Their income level reflected their status as students and not as employed individuals.

Table 1. Background of potential future visitors

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	38	37.6
Female	63	62.4
Age		
Less than 23	92	91.1
More than 23	9	8.9
Country of Origin		
Chad	3	3.0
Malaysia	74	73.3
Qatar	3	3.0
Saudi Arabia	3	3.0
Somalia	12	11.9
Sudan	6	5.9
Occupation		
Student	101	100.0
Academic Qualification		
Certificate/High school	24	23.8
Bachelor degree	74	73.3
Master's degree	3	3.0
Household Income		
<RM2,000	66	65.3
RM2,000 – RM4,000	20	19.8
RM4,001 – RM6,000	9	8.9
>RM8,000	6	5.9

To understand the benefits that future youth visitors seek from a heritage site attraction, a selected number of attributes were presented to them. Table 2 illustrates the results of a descriptive analysis of the importance of attributes from their viewpoints where the future visitors rated each attribute with high importance, with a mean score ranging from 3.84 to 4.15. This descriptive finding on mean values show that the participants perceived the highest level of importance towards “learning” (mean = 4.4.6) and “operating and pricing” (mean=4.15) attributes, followed by “site attraction” (mean=3.98), “amenities” (mean=3.95), “accessibility and guidance” (mean=3.93), “experience” (mean=3.92), and “maintenance” (mean=3.84). These are the benefits future youth visitors seek in relation to heritage site attraction.

Table 2. Descriptive analysis of the importance of attributes from the viewpoint of future visitors

	Percentage (%)					Mean
	1	2	3	4	5	
LEARNING (push factor)						4.46
Discovery of new landscape	1.0	-	20.8	44.6	33.7	4.10
Contemplation of nature/artistic archaeological heritage	-	-	18.8	48.5	32.7	4.14
Contact with local community	-	-	16.8	57.4	25.7	4.09
Contact with nature	-	-	25.7	38.6	35.6	4.10
Stay at accommodations that benefit the local community	-	-	25.7	54.5	19.8	3.94
Learning the history of the site	-	-	25.7	51.5	22.8	3.97
Support for local development projects and environmental protection	1.0	-	17.8	52.5	28.7	4.08
Involvement of local guides	-	-	24.8	51.5	23.8	3.99
OPERATING AND PRICING (pull factor)						4.15
Steady and clear timetables	-	1.0	16.8	60.4	21.8	4.03
Cheap ticket prices	-	-	10.9	54.5	34.7	4.24
Cheap concession tickets/free entrance for special interest group	-	-	12.9	53.5	33.7	4.21
Special package	-	-	15.8	54.5	29.7	4.14
Opening until late evening	-	1.0	15.8	50.5	32.7	4.15

Table 2. (con't)

	Percentage (%)					Mean
	1	2	3	4	5	
ACCESSIBILITY AND GUIDANCE (pull factor)						3.93
Accessibility to/from the site	-	1.0	16.8	55.4	26.7	4.08
Accessibility around the site	-	1.0	25.7	50.5	22.8	3.95
Signposting to/from the site	-	1.0	23.8	58.4	16.8	3.91
Efficient transport services to/from the site	-	1.0	28.7	54.5	15.8	3.85
Clear and well-located signage within the site	-	1.0	33.7	50.5	14.9	3.79
Colourful signage within the site	-	-	25.7	50.5	23.8	3.98
AMENITIES (pull factor)						3.95
Nice looking ticket booth	-	-	22.8	51.5	25.7	4.03
Sufficient parking	-	-	15.8	54.5	29.7	4.14
Plenty of eating/refreshment area	-	-	21.8	54.5	23.8	4.02
Plenty of shopping facilities/souvenir	-	-	24.8	53.5	21.8	3.97
Clean toilets	-	-	28.7	58.4	12.9	3.84
Plenty of area for resting in the site	-	-	24.8	63.4	11.9	3.87
Plenty of educational activities in information centre	-	-	32.7	50.5	16.8	3.84
Plenty of entertainment activities in information centre	-	-	30.7	51.5	17.8	3.87
MAINTENANCE (pull factor)						3.84
Cleanliness of the area	-	1.0	28.7	50.5	19.8	3.89
Maintenance of the attractions	-	1.0	31.7	54.5	12.9	3.79
SITE ATTRACTIONS						3.98
Well-promoted site	-	1.0	19.8	56.4	22.8	4.01
Cultural place of major fame	-	1.0	24.8	50.5	23.8	3.97
Beauty of scenery and landscape	-	1.0	24.8	62.4	11.9	3.85
Peaceful and calm place	1.0	-	13.9	57.4	27.7	4.11
Variety of exhibits and display	-	1.0	16.8	67.3	14.9	3.96
Quality of museum/interpretation centre	-	-	15.8	68.3	15.8	4.00

Table 2. (con't)

	Percentage (%)					Mean
	1	2	3	4	5	
VISIT EXPERIENCE (push factor)						3.92
Authentic experience	-	-	25.7	59.4	14.9	3.89
Experiencing the site's past	-	1.0	23.8	61.4	13.9	3.88
Experiencing the history in general	-	1.0	25.7	57.4	15.8	3.88
Seeing an aspect of the area's archaeological heritage	-	1.0	23.8	57.4	17.8	3.92
Seeing old building /monument	-	1.0	12.9	71.3	14.9	4.00
Experiencing a different environment	-	1.0	15.8	63.4	19.8	4.02
Watching digital exhibits	-	-	28.7	56.4	14.9	3.86
Participating in experiential digital exhibits	-	-	31.7	60.4	7.9	3.76
Watching in live re-creation of historical events/moments	-	-	28.7	60.4	10.9	3.82
Participating in live re-creation of historical events/moments	-	-	20.8	68.3	10.9	3.90
Watching hologram	-	-	18.8	64.4	16.8	3.98
Participating in volunteer programs related to the sites	-	1.0	26.7	59.4	12.9	3.84
Participating in charity work organised by the site	-	1.0	17.8	67.3	13.9	3.94
Donating to the sites	-	-	19.8	60.4	19.8	4.00
Donating to the local community around the sites	-	-	17.8	58.4	23.8	4.06

Notes:

1: Highly Unimportant

2: Fairly Unimportant

3: Neutral

4: Fairly Important

5: Highly Important

Table 3 describes the visiting intention of potential future visitors. Among the 101 future visitors, 64.4% of them indicated that they have the intention to visit a heritage site, indicating high interest among the youth market for such tourism products.

Table 3. Visiting intention of future visitors

Intention to visit heritage sites	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	65	64.4
No	36	35.6

Table 4 illustrates the reasons why participants postpone their trip to heritage sites. The attribute ranked most for number 1 reason for not yet visiting is “no time” (64.4%). The participants also indicated that they have no family (ranked most for number 2 reason) and no friends (ranked most for number 3 reason) to go with. Reasons such as “no interest” and “not aware” were ranked most for the fifth reason of not yet visiting.

Table 4. Reasons for not yet visiting heritage site

	Frequency (Percentage)					
	Rank 1	Rank 2	Rank 3	Rank 4	Rank 5	Rank 6
No time	65 (64.4)	26 (25.7)	12 (11.9)	15 (14.9)	9 (8.9)	6 (5.9)
No interest	3 (3.0)	3 (3.0)	3 (3.0)	9 (8.9)	32 (31.7)	51 (0.5)
No opportunity	30 (29.7)	21 (20.8)	18 (17.8)	26 (25.7)	6 (5.9)	-
No friend to go with	9 (8.9)	21 (20.8)	38 (37.6)	27 (26.7)	3(3.0)	3 (3.0)
No family members to go with	11 (10.9)	24 (23.8)	18 (17.8)	18 (17.8)	18 (17.8)	12 (11.9)
Not aware about the site	15 (14.9)	6 (5.9)	12 (11.9)	6 (5.9)	33 (32.7)	29 (28.8)

Table 5 illustrates the results of the one-way ANOVA analysis of the importance of attributes from the viewpoints of future visitors by clusters. The analysis was conducted to determine if there were significant differences in their perceptions towards the importance of all attributes. Participants in Cluster 1 perceived the highest agreement towards all attributes, with a mean score that ranged 4.39 (experience) to 4.97 (operating and pricing). Further analysis for the importance of each item also indicates that the participants from 4 Clusters perceived different viewpoints, except for four items in the Experience attributes.

Table 5. Importance of attributes by cluster

	Cluster (Mean)				Sig. F
	1(n=6)	2(n=66)	3(n=28)	4(n=1)	
Discovery of new culture	4.83	4.42	4.57	1.00	0.000
Discovery of new landscape	4.83	3.98	4.32	1.00	0.000

Table 5. (cont')

	Cluster (Mean)				Sig. F
	1(n=6)	2(n=66)	3(n=28)	4(n=1)	
Contemplation of nature / artistic heritage	5.00	3.98	4.36	3.00	0.000
Contact with local community	5.00	3.86	4.46	3.00	0.000
Contact with nature	4.67	3.86	4.57	3.00	0.000
Stay at accommodations that benefit the local community	4.83	3.80	4.07	4.00	0.000
Learning the history of the site	5.00	3.74	4.32	3.00	0.002
Support for local development projects and environmental protection	5.00	3.91	4.39	1.00	0.000
Involvement of local guides	4.83	3.71	4.50	3.00	0.000
OPERATING AND PRICING	4.97	3.98	4.44	2.60	0.000
Steady and clear timetables	4.83	3.88	4.29	2.00	0.000
Cheap ticket prices	5.00	4.06	4.54	3.00	0.000
Cheap concession tickets/free entrance for special interest group	5.00	4.08	4.39	3.00	0.000
Special package	5.00	3.92	4.50	3.00	0.000
Opening until late evening	5.00	3.97	4.46	2.00	0.000
ACCESSIBILITY AND GUIDANCE	4.86	3.73	4.24	2.33	0.000
Accessibility to/from the site	4.83	3.86	4.50	2.00	0.000
Accessibility around the site	5.00	3.70	4.39	2.00	0.000
Signposting to/from the site	5.00	3.76	4.11	2.00	0.000
Efficient transport services to/from the site	4.67	3.74	4.00	2.00	0.000
Clear and well-located signage within the site	4.83	3.61	4.07	2.00	0.000
Colourful signage within the site	4.83	3.74	4.36	4.00	0.000
AMENITIES	4.71	3.77	4.25	3.00	0.000
Nice looking ticket booth	4.83	3.79	4.46	3.00	0.000
Sufficient parking	4.83	3.94	4.50	3.00	0.000
Plenty of eating/refreshment area	4.83	3.86	4.25	3.00	0.000

Table 5. (cont)

	Cluster (Mean)				Sig. F
	1(n=6)	2(n=66)	3(n=28)	4(n=1)	
Plenty of shopping facilities/ souvenir	4.67	3.80	4.25	3.00	0.000
Clean toilets	4.50	3.64	4.21	3.00	0.000
Plenty of area for resting in the site	4.67	3.68	4.18	3.00	0.000
Plenty of educational activities in information centre	4.83	3.68	4.04	3.00	0.000
Plenty of entertainment activities in information centre	4.50	3.73	4.11	3.00	0.004
MAINTENANCE	4.50	3.76	3.96	2.00	0.000
Cleanliness of the area	4.17	3.86	3.96	2.00	0.040
Maintenance of the attractions	4.83	3.65	3.96	2.00	0.000
SITE ATTRACTIONS	4.69	3.88	4.14	2.00	0.000
Well-promoted site	4.83	3.86	4.25	2.00	0.000
Cultural place of major fame	4.83	3.85	4.14	2.00	0.000
Beauty of scenery and landscape	4.67	3.68	4.14	2.00	0.000
Peaceful and calm place	4.83	4.05	4.21	1.00	0.000
Variety of exhibits and display	4.50	3.91	4.04	2.00	0.001
Quality of museum / interpretation centre	4.50	3.94	4.07	3.00	0.027
EXPERIENCE	4.39	3.84	4.04	2.53	0.029
Authentic experience	4.50	3.82	3.96	3.00	0.000
Learning more about the site's past	4.67	3.80	3.96	2.00	0.000
Learning about the history in general	4.67	3.77	4.04	2.00	0.000
Seeing an aspect of the area's archaeological heritage	4.67	3.77	4.18	2.00	0.000
Seeing old building / monument	4.17	3.95	4.14	2.00	0.001
Experiencing a different environment	4.17	4.02	4.07	2.00	0.011
Watching digital exhibits	4.00	3.82	3.96	3.00	0.391
Participating in experiential digital exhibits	4.33	3.73	3.75	3.00	0.051

Table 5. (cont)

	Cluster (Mean)				Sig. F
	1(n=6)	2(n=66)	3(n=28)	4(n=1)	
Watching in live re-creation of historical events / moments	4.33	3.73	3.96	3.00	0.024
Participating in live re-creation of historical events/moments	4.50	3.73	4.21	3.00	0.000
Watching hologram	4.67	3.91	4.04	3.00	0.007
Participating in volunteer programmes related to the sites	4.33	3.74	4.04	2.00	0.001
Participating in charity work organised by the site	4.67	3.86	4.04	2.00	0.000
Donating to the sites	3.83	3.98	4.11	3.00	0.292
Donating to the local community around the sites	4.33	4.02	4.14	3.00	0.208

The results of this study will now be discussed in relation to previous studies, followed by insights into its practical implications. Firstly, since the majority of respondents have the intention to visit heritage sites, this shows that young people are interested in cultural elements for their travels, supporting previous studies by Boukas (2014) and Chhabra (2010). This demand should be fulfilled by the management of heritage sites by actively promoting the site to reach this market segment. Secondly, respondents also rated “operating and pricing” as the most important attributes, so this may indicate that this segment is hard to please since they want the best experience at the lowest price. Their preference for low prices supports Carr’s (1998) conclusion about young visitors being price sensitive. This may mean that heritage site managers must improve the image of the site in terms of the quality of operations while at the same time, offer low prices. Thirdly, most of them have been postponing their trip to heritage sites due to lack of time or having no friends or family to go with. Thus, heritage site marketers could offer group or family-friendly packages that could motivate group bookings.

Additionally, results reveal that the main reason for wanting to visit heritage sites is because they value learning and seek to discover/learn about new culture and support local projects. Therefore, the site management could utilise this information by offering activities that could encourage further learning, contemplation and hands-on participation. Youth visitors also value accessibility, parking availability, cleanliness, peacefulness and calmness of a place. Their preference for parking, cleanliness and calmness support Jansen-Verbeke’s (1986) contention that site characteristics are as

important as the core attractions of a heritage site. They also like to experience a new environment, which may mean that they will not be repeat visitors. However, they do like to donate to the local communities around a heritage site, which suggests that management of heritage sites could offer them the opportunity to be involved in social responsibility projects and the like.

Conclusion

The youth market is a significant but largely overlooked segment, particularly within the context of rural heritage destinations. This study showed that just as their older counterparts, youth visitors also have similar interest in visiting such destinations and have certain expectations that need to be fulfilled by the site managers and operators. Nevertheless, the results of this study should be taken with caution due to some of its limitations. For example, this study only focused only on university-educated youth visitors. Hence, it does not cover youth groups outside of this segment. Future research on youths in general could explore deeper into the influence of education on youths' tendency to visit a heritage site to see if there are any significant differences between university educated and non-university educated youths. Such comparative studies could provide insight into the influence of formal education on youths' interest towards heritage tourism.

In addition, qualitative approaches would provide more in-depth knowledge about youth visitors' interest and experience of heritage sites and identify which attributes need to be emphasised by heritage site managers. To conclude, this study has highlighted that the right marketing strategies, coupled with better site management efforts could ensure that youths are motivated to visit a heritage site. In the long run, this could lead to greater interest among youths to choose heritage site as one of their travel destinations.

Acknowledgement

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Empirical Paper

Analysis of Factors Affecting International Tourists' Length of Stay in West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) Province, Indonesia

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Abstract: In line with the increasing number of tourists in West Nusa Tenggara (*Nusa Tenggara Barat/NTB*), the province has to fulfill a growing demand for accommodations, including hotel rooms and beds. The data showed that in 2017, the number of hotels in the province was 947 units, which consisted of 65 star-rated hotels and 882 non-star rated hotels. The number of rooms available in that same year increased by 13,265 units to 4,118 rooms for star-rated hotels and 9,147 rooms for non-star rated hotels. From January 2019 to November 2019, the average length of stay (LOS/RLM) of tourists was 3.36 days. Average LOS is one factor that influences the economy by encouraging sustainability, inclusivity, and economic growth for the people of West Nusa Tenggara (NTB). Job opportunities in the tourism sector will open and people will be able to gain decent jobs. This is one of the sustainable development goals (SDGs) that will be achieved if more international or foreign tourists came and stayed in the province for a long time. The samples in this study were 399 foreign tourists. Sample selection was determined using cluster random sampling (CRS). Twenty-four variables were used and analysed to produce the most dominant and influential factors on foreign tourists' LOS. The analysis method used was the Cochran's Q Test to determine the dominant factors. The results showed that 15 of the 24 variables investigated dominantly influenced the LOS of foreign tourists. The 15 variables were Personal motivation (X_1), Availability of tourism objects and products (X_2), Word-of-mouth recommendations from friends, relatives, and colleagues (X_3), Political and security conditions in tourist destinations (X_6), Hygiene or cleanliness and environmental conditions in tourist destinations (X_7), Weather and climate (X_9), Attitudes, opinions, and perceptions of destination tourism (X_{10}), Current knowledge about travel destinations (X_{12}), Hobbies and interests (X_{13}), Personal health (X_{17}), Income level

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(X_{18}), Personality (X_{19}), Transportation and road access (X_{20}), Main and supporting facilities (X_{21}), and Events and entertainment in tourist destinations (X_{23}). This research is expected to be a reference for tourism stakeholders in West Nusa Tenggara (NTB), in view of creating marketing and promotional programmes for their tourist destinations based on factors that are considered important or dominant by foreign tourists, and increasing tourists' LOS.

Keywords: Cochran's Q Test, dominant factors, length of stay, West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) province

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Introduction

Economic growth through regional development is one part of national development that cannot be separated from the principle of regional autonomy. In order to support the implementation of regional autonomy, authority that is broad, tangible, and responsible is needed in each region. As a follow-up to implementing regional autonomy with the issuance of Law No. 32, 2004, about the provincial government, some policies were born in the context of responding and fulfilling the demands to reform democratisation between central and regional relations as efforts to empower regions (Law of the Republic of Indonesia, 2004).

Economic growth aims to improve the lives of people, expand employment, equalise incomes, enhance regional economic relations, and oversee the shift in economic activities from the primary sector to secondary and tertiary sectors. Currently, efforts are needed to increase national economic growth and the capabilities of all sectors, and all existing potential should be used as economic strength. One industry that has the potential to be directed towards becoming an economic powerhouse is the tourism industry (Indonesia Investments, 2016).

The development of tourism in the province of West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) has produced growing results. This can be seen from the increasing number of tourists who come to Lombok. The number of foreign and domestic guests staying at star-rated hotels in Lombok reached 825,378 people in 2017.

The tourism sector in the West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) province is mostly from the hotel industry. However, in January 2019, the number of guests and occupancy rate of rooms in star-rated hotels in Lombok fell. This was a downward trend compared to December 2014, and even January 2015. The decrease was not directly proportional to the promotions carried out by the provincial government of West Nusa Tenggara (NTB). It was also found that the number of hotel guests, room

occupancy rate, and average LOS in the province in January 2019 was lower than that of January 2018 to December 2018 (BPS NTB, 2019).

The government has intensified the promotion of tourism with the use of several media by launching national and international events, as it can be said that tourism promotion has not been fully maximised. To support the volume of tourists in the West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) province, there is a demand for an increase in accommodations, including hotel rooms and beds. The number of hotels in the province in 2017 was 947 units, comprising 65 star-rated hotels and 882 budget hotels. The number of rooms available in 2017 increased by 13,265 units. Meanwhile, the number of foreign tourists travelling to West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) from January 2019 to November 2019 was 155,503 people (BPS NTB, 2018). The average LOS of foreign guests at star-rated hotels in 2019 are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Foreign tourists' average length of stay (LOS) at star-rated hotels in 2019

Month	Average Length of Stay at Star-rated Hotels					Total
	1 day	2 days	3 days	4 days	5 days	
January	3,84	2,40	2,72	3,60	2,62	15,18
February	8,26	3,21	3,16	3,46	2,71	20,80
March	5,28	5,51	2,90	3,72	3,02	20,43
April	5,96	5,46	3,31	3,46	3,62	21,81
May	3,04	5,82	2,77	3,95	2,88	18,46
June	3,13	4,04	1,89	2,80	2,97	14,83
July	1,32	3,92	2,52	2,70	3,61	14,07
August	1,99	4,12	2,36	2,89	3,49	14,85
September	1,78	3,56	3,35	2,37	3,32	14,38
October	3,38	3,89	2,56	2,30	3,71	15,84
November	2,31	3,24	2,18	2,25	4,27	14,25
Total	40,29	45,17	2,18	2,25	4,27	184,90

Source: BPS NTB (2019)

Based on the data in Table 1 issued by BPS NTB, the average LOS of tourists from January 2019 to November 2019 was 3.36 days. Average LOS is a factor, among others, that can influence the economy by encouraging sustainability, inclusivity, and economic growth for the local community of West Nusa Tenggara (NTB). Job opportunities in the tourism sector will open up, and more people will have access to decent jobs. This is one of the sustainable development goals (SDGs) that can be achieved if more foreign tourists visit and stay for a long time (DSDG, 2021).

Theoretically, the longer a tourist stays in a tourist destination, the more money is spent in that area. Therefore, one of the main indicators of a successful tourism industry is the average length of tourists' stay. This study, thus, aims to identify the most dominant factors that influence the stay of foreign tourists in West Nusa Tenggara (NTB).

The potential of this foreign tourist market segment is boosted by the increase in the number of local middle-class consumers. The potential of the middle class is the gateway to advancing the tourism industry in Indonesia, besides relying on foreign tourists. This happens because the more advanced the life stage of a human being, the greater the need for leisure and relaxation. People need a way to release their fatigue and stress after working tirelessly. One outlet for the release of their tension is to take a holiday or tour, as this activity is one of every human's social need.

For this market segment, it is necessary for tourism organisers or stakeholders to understand the consumers' decision-making process and the factors influencing their choice of tourism destinations that will in turn affect their LOS. According to Swarbrooke and Horner (2007), the two main factors considered by tourism consumers—which increased the LOS of tourists—were: (1) whether they were able to take a holiday or not, and (2) the type of trip and experience to be had while on holiday. In the context of this study, the factors included: (a) personal motivation, (b) the availability of tourism objects and products that are attractive, (c) recommendations from travel agents, (d) information about tourist destinations from tourism organisations and travel agents, (e) word-of-mouth recommendations from friends, relatives, and colleagues, (f) the political conditions, security, and technology of tourism destinations, (g) the environmental hygiene conditions of tourist destinations, (h) the special promotions from tourism organisations, (i) the climate and weather of tourist destinations, (j) attitudes, opinions, and perceptions of destination tourism, (k) the lifestyle of tourism consumers, (l) current knowledge about travel destinations, (m) hobbies and interests, and (n) the past experiences of tourism consumers who have visited a certain tourist destination. Goeldner and Ritchie (2012) added several factors that influenced the choice of a tourist destination, which would have an impact on the LOS. These factors were (a) commitment to family, (b) income level, (c) consumer personality, (d) transportation and road access, and supporting infrastructure, (e) accommodation, and (f) hotel food and beverages.

There are various factors that must be considered by foreign tourists in planning their holidays and tours, thus creating challenges for tourism organisers or stakeholders. What needs to be taken into consideration is that the level of importance of the above-mentioned factors would differ for each consumer or foreign tourist, whether seen from a demographic, geographic, or psychographic point of view. Establishing the factors that support travel decisions to determine the LOS is essential for tourism stakeholders in formulating their marketing strategy—this includes determining products, prices,

distribution, and promotion for tourist destinations, in order to attract and convince foreign tourists to visit the destinations. The inability of the stakeholders to ascertain the most critical factors may lead to a tourism marketing strategy error. It could mean promoting factors that may not be significant. Instead of paying attention and coming to Indonesian tourist destinations, foreign tourists may end up going to other tourist destinations, such as Malaysia, Thailand, and Singapore. Tourism organisers or stakeholders are also aggressively working on the tourism sector to suit their consumers' preferences. Thus, the purpose of this study was to find out the most important or dominant factors that affect the LOS for foreign tourists in West Nusa Tenggara (NTB). The results of this study could be used to identify the most prevalent factors affecting tourists' LOS in the province in 2019. The results of the study obtained were expected to provide an overview of foreign tourists' LOS for the West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) provincial tourism office, as a reference or guideline in determining policies.

Literature Review

Tourism Economics

The term "tourism" is different from the term "travel". Not all trips are included in tourism. All trips are included in recreation, but not all recreation are included in tourism trips. All tours are carried out during spare time, but not all free time is used for tour trips (Thrane, 2016).

According to McIntosh and Goeldner (1990), tourism is a combination of symptoms or relationships, arising from the interaction of tourists, businesses, the government, and host communities in attracting and serving tourists and other visitors. The tourism trip is not a shuttle movement, as defined by Gunn (1988); tourism is all tourist trips that cover a large area, but it is not included in the shuttle movement.

Tourism is a multidimensional activity from a series of development processes. The development of the tourism sector involves sociocultural, economic, and political aspects (Spillane, 2002, p. 14).

Tourism Demand

According to Wahab (2003), what is meant by "tourism demand" was anything related to the number of tourists (quantitatively), where the tourism demand could be converted into potential demand and actual demand. What is meant by "potential demand" was the people who would be able and capable of travelling. Meanwhile, "actual demand" was the people who had visited a tourist destination. Furthermore, Yoeti (2008) and Wahab (2003) stated that tourism demand has several characteristics, namely (a) elasticity, (b) sensitivity, (c) seasonality, and (d) expansion.

Costs influences the demand for tourism, the number of visits in tourist destinations, tourism occupations, the security of tourist destinations, the time and

length of travel, the accommodations used, and the modes of transport, among others. All of these aspects were considered by tourists before they decided to take a tour.

Length of Stay

According to Wijaya (2011), the LOS of tourists determined the size of foreign exchange received by countries that rely on foreign exchange from the tourism industry. Length of stay (LOS) is the number of days spent by a tourist in a country outside their residence. There was a tendency that the farther the country of residence of foreign tourists who left Indonesia through state ports, the longer their stay in Indonesia were compared to foreign tourists who left Indonesia through seaports.

Theoretically, the more tourists there were and the longer they stayed in a tourist destination, the more money was spent in that tourist destination, at least for food, beverages, and lodging while staying in the area during the tour. This created consumptive symptoms for products in the tourist destination (Austriana, 2005). With the consumptive activities of foreign tourists, the income received by business owners in the tourism industry would increase from payments made for tourists services.

Previous Research

Based on the theoretical study described, a review of several past studies was also conducted. This research was mainly based on the research objectives similarity, as can be seen in Table 2.

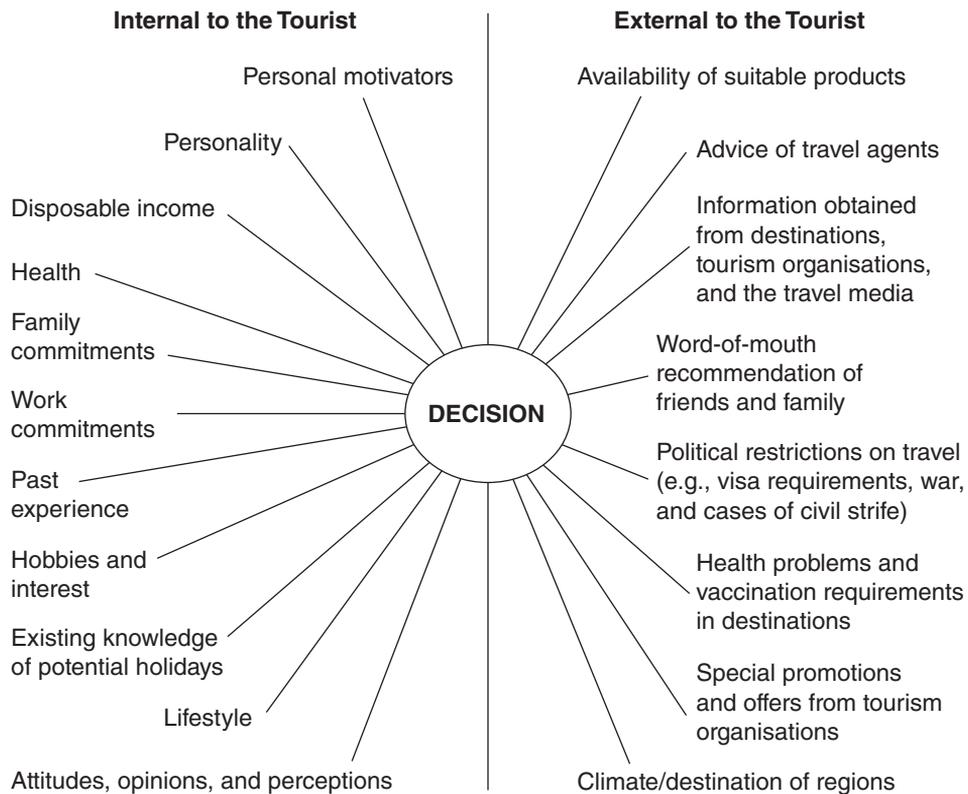
Table 2. Previous research

No	1	2	3	4
Name	Benedicto Kazuzuru, 2014	Christer Thrane and Eivind Farstad, 2012	Bagus Cunduk, 2013	I Gede Yoga Suastika and I Nyoman Mahaendra Yasa, 2017
Title	Determinants of tourist length of stay in Tanzania	Tourists' length of stay: The case of international summer visitors to Norway	Factors that affect the length of stay of foreign tourists in the province of Special Region of Yogyakarta	The influence of the number of tourist visits, length of stay of tourists and occupancy rate of hotels on the Local Government Income and the welfare of the community of regencies/cities in Bali province

Table 2. (con't)

No	1	2	3	4
Research Objective(s)	Examining the factors that influence the length of stay (LOS) of tourists in Tanzania, as an essential indicator in tourism sector revenue	Examining how nationality and some independent variables affect travellers' length of stay (LOS)	Identifying the factors that affect the length of stay (LOS) of domestic tourists, and finding a formula that can increase foreign tourists' LOS in Yogyakarta Special Region (DIY)	Analysing the impact of the number of tourist visits, tourists' length of stay (LOS), and hotel occupancy rates, and how these aspects influence the welfare of the local community through revenue in regencies/cities in the Bali province
Research Result(s)	To increase revenue from the tourism sector based on the length of stay (LOS) of tourists, tourism sector actors needed to provide various tourism activities (e.g., long tour packages), so that the duration of tourist visits were longer.	The total length of stay (LOS) of tourists coming from neighbouring countries to Norway tended to be shorter/ more brief than that of the tourists from countries that were not neighbours. Distance influenced the LOS; in that, the farther away travellers were from, the longer their LOS were.	The main factors that affected the length of stay (LOS) of foreign tourists were the objects and main tourism attractions in DIY, attraction supporters, nature-based attractions, and artificial attractions. These were still very limited and were not appropriately managed.	The number of tourist visits and hotel occupancy rates had a positive and significant effect on the local government revenue. In contrast, the length of stay (LOS) of tourists had no impact on local revenue in the regencies or cities within the Bali province.
Difference Variables	Age, type of accommodation, and percentage of visits	Local government revenue	Tourist attractions	Community welfare, local government revenue, and hotel occupancy rates

Two main considerations of tourism consumers were (1) whether or not they were able to take a holiday, and (2) the type of trip and experience to be had while on holiday (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007). These considerations were further divided into personal factors for a tourist (Internal to the tourist) and details that were external to a tourist (External to the tourist), as can be seen in Figure 1.

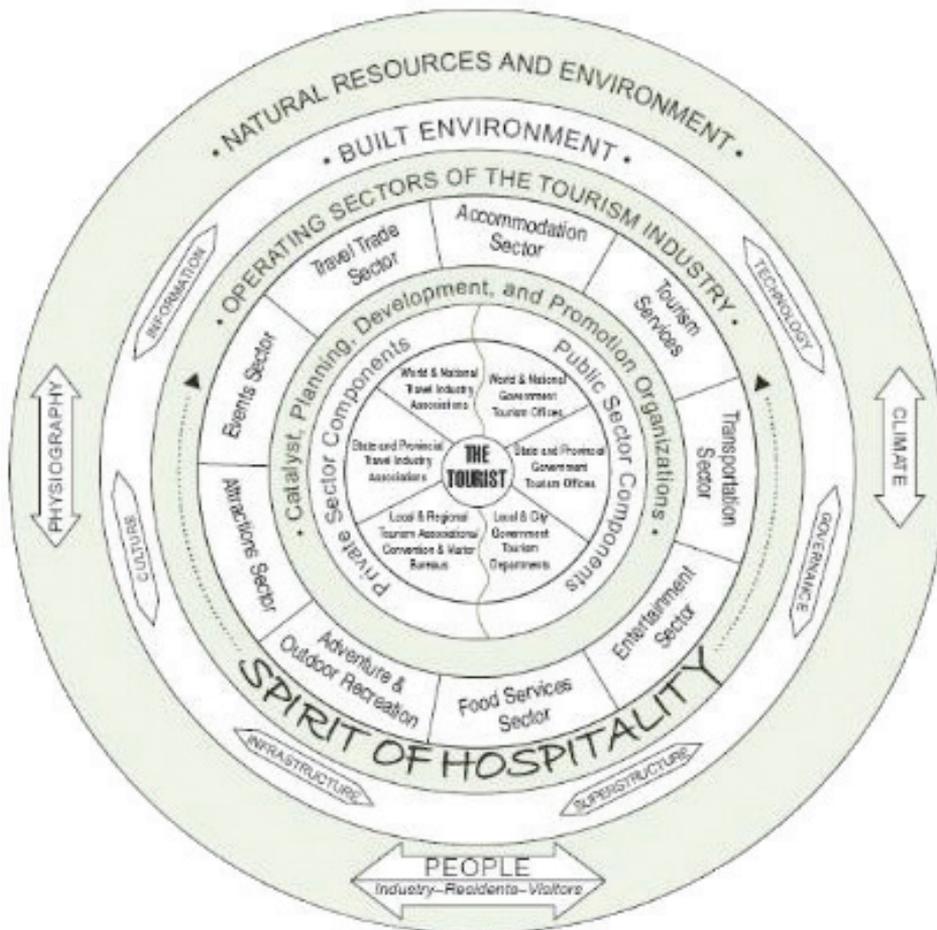


Source: Swarbrooke & Horner (2007)

Figure 1. Destination selection factors that influence tourists' length of stay

Goeldner and Ritchie (2012) added factors that influenced the decision in choosing a tourist destination that would affect the LOS. The researchers did this by including elements of main and supporting tourism facilities, such as accommodation and the food and beverages of hotels. Additionally, they cited transportation and road access as significant factors for the choice of a tourist destination because some

tourists disliked places that were difficult to reach. Nevertheless, there were those who welcomed a challenge. Apart from these factors, the price of tour packages and tourism-based events and/or entertainment as well as the supporting technology (i.e., the Internet and information technology (IT)) also received attention from tourists in determining their tourist destinations. Figure 2 shows the details of the factors that have an influence on tourists' choice of tourist destinations that will affect the LOS.



Source: Goeldner & Ritchie (2012)

Figure 2. Factors that influence the choice of tourist destinations that will affect tourists' length of stay

Behaviour and Decision-making Process of Tourism Consumers

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2018), an organisation or a company would find it easier to create marketing and promotional programmes if they understood and could thus provide what consumers needed and wanted. Therefore, it was necessary to understand the needs and wants of and the things that were regarded as important by consumers, which directed their behaviours. This concept led us to the study of consumer behaviour, in order to understand consumers and form marketing strategies based on the data that was collected and summarised. Kotler and Keller (2015) defined consumer behaviour as the study of how individuals, groups, and organisations choose, purchase, use, and dispose goods, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy their needs and desires.

Materials and Methods

Population and Determination of the Number of Samples

This study's population was 155,503 foreign tourists who travelled in West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) from January 2019 to November 2019. The sample was determined using cluster random sampling (CRS) from the total population under study, and the number of samples were determined using the Solvin method with the formula (Simamora, 2002):

$$n = \frac{N}{(1 + Ne^2)}$$

N = Total population

e = Boundary fault tolerance (Error tolerance)

The fault tolerance limit used in this study was 0.05 (5%) to obtain the number of samples, as follows:

$$n = \frac{155.503}{(1 + 155.503 (0,05)^2)} = 398.97$$

Rounded to 399 sample respondents

Operational Definition

Factors that affected the LOS for foreign tourists are shown in the following Table 3.

Table 3. Operational definition of research

Variable	Description	Variable	Description
X_1	Personal motivation	X_{13}	Hobbies and interests
X_2	Availability of tourism objects and products	X_{14}	Past experiences
X_3	Recommendations from travel agents	X_{15}	Commitment to work
X_4	Information about tourist destinations from tourism organisations and travel agents	X_{16}	Commitment to family
X_5	Word-of-mouth recommendations from friends, relatives, and colleagues	X_{17}	Personal health
X_6	Political and security conditions in tourist destinations	X_{18}	Income level
X_7	Environmental hygiene conditions	X_{19}	Personality
X_8	Special promotions from tourism organisations	X_{20}	Transportation and road access
X_9	Weather and climate	X_{21}	Main and supporting facilities
X_{10}	Attitudes, opinions, and perceptions of destination tourism	X_{22}	Tour package prices
X_{11}	Lifestyle	X_{23}	Events and entertainment in tourist destinations
X_{12}	Current knowledge about travel destinations	X_{24}	Supporting technology (the Internet and IT)

Cochran’s Q Test Method to Determine Dominant Factors

According to Simamora (2004), the Cochran’s Q Test was used to analyse the success rate (success of data statistically) in testing hypotheses of related variables. The results were dichotomous, and had the same mean value. The Cochran’s Q Test was used if:

- (a) the data was nominal,
- (b) there were more than two samples,
- (c) the data was not independent, and
- (d) the data had a binary response, such as “Success” (1) versus “Failure” (0) or “Yes” (1) versus “No” (0).

By using the formula of the Cochran's Q Test in this study, the importance of each valid factor was tested and the element of subjectivity to a factor was eliminated. In this test, the existence of a relationship between several factors was discovered. The factors that obtained the most "No" responses in the statistical iteration were discarded until the factor that described the most considered level (the highest level of importance) in determining the decision in choosing a tourist destination was obtained. The formula used for the Cochran's Q Test is:

$$Q = \frac{(k - 1)\{k\sum C_j^2 - (\sum C_j)^2\}}{k\sum R_i\sum R_i^2}$$

Where:

k = Number of variables

n = Number of respondents (Observations)

C_j = Total responses to j variable (Column)

R_i = Total responses to i observations

The hypotheses proposed in this study were:

H_0 : All factors that influence the decisions of domestic tourists in the archipelago have the same proportion of "Yes" responses.

H_a : All factors that influence domestic tourists' decisions have different ratios of "Yes" responses.

The inference decision was to reject H_0 and accept H_a , if $Q_{hit} > Q_{Tab}$, and to accept H_0 and reject H_a , if $Q_{hit} < Q_{Tab}$.

Where:

- If H_0 was rejected, it would mean that the proportion of "Yes" responses was still different for all influencing factors. It would also mean that there was no agreement among the respondents on the factors analysed.
- If H_0 was accepted, it would mean that the proportion of "Yes" responses was considered the same for all factors. Thus, all respondents would be deemed to have agreed on all attributes considered factors.

Results and Discussions

This study aimed to find the factors considered most important or dominant by foreign tourists when deciding on a tourist destination, which would affect their LOS. Successful determination of the dominant factors would provide tourism stakeholders with the insight to formulate tourism marketing and promotional

strategies that were suited to the needs and wants of consumers, namely foreign tourists.

This study investigated various sources and included 24 factors that were usually considered by tourists in determining tourist destinations (refer to Table 3). These factors were tested using the Cochran's Q Test iteratively to obtain the factors that were considered most dominant and important by domestic tourists. The results of the Cochran's Q Test can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4. Cochran's Q Test on factors that influence the determination of tourist destinations

Stage	Cochran's Q Test	X_2 Table (<i>df</i>)	Test Result	Description
1	816.699	41.951 (23)	H_0 rejected	Refused X_3 (Recommendations from travel agents)
2	517.434	40.566 (22)	H_0 rejected	Refused X_{15} (Commitment to work)
3	368.429	39.171 (21)	H_0 rejected	Refused X_{24} (Supporting technology such as the Internet and IT)
4	302.801	37.767 (20)	H_0 rejected	Refused X_8 (Special promotions from tourism organisations or travel agents)
5	234.948	36.352 (19)	H_0 rejected	Refused X_4 (Information about tourist destinations from tourism organisations and travel agents)
6	160.557	34.926 (18)	H_0 rejected	Refused X_{14} (Past experiences)
7	91.465	33.488 (17)	H_0 rejected	Refused X_{16} (Commitment to family)
8	62.043	32.037 (16)	H_0 rejected	Refused X_{11} (Lifestyle)
9	34.920	30.571 (15)	H_0 rejected	Refused X_{22} (Price of tour packages)
10	10.646	29.089 (14)	H_0 received	Received (All responses had the same "Yes" answers)

In Table 4, the Cochran's Q Test was conducted in 10 stages to identify which factors were the most dominant in influencing domestic tourist destination decisions. Fifteen out of the 24 factors (refer to next page) were found to be the most dominant and important, and their importance were ranked based on the "Yes" and "No" responses given by the respondents (domestic tourists). The results in terms of ranking can be seen in the following Table 5.

- Personal motivation (X_1),
- Availability of tourism objects and products (X_2),
- Word-of-mouth recommendations from friends, relatives, and colleagues (X_3),
- Political and security conditions in tourist destinations (X_6),
- Hygiene or cleanliness and environmental conditions in tourist destinations (X_7),
- Weather and climate (X_9),
- Attitudes, opinions, and perceptions of destination tourism (X_{10}),
- Current knowledge about travel destinations (X_{12}),
- Hobbies and interests (X_{13}),
- Personal health (X_{17}),
- Income level (X_{18}),
- Personality (X_{19}),
- Transportation and road access (X_{20}),
- Main and supporting facilities (X_{21}), and
- Events and entertainment in tourist destinations (X_{23}).

Table 5. List and ranking of travel destinations preference factors

No.	Factor	No	Yes	Ranking
1	Personal motivation	81	315	1
2	Attitudes, opinions, and perceptions of destination tourism	84	312	2
3	Availability of tourism objects and products	85	311	3
4	Personality	85	311	3
5	Transportation and road access	89	307	5
6	Hygiene or cleanliness and environmental conditions in tourist destinations	91	305	6
7	Word-of-mouth recommendations from friends, relatives, and colleagues	92	304	7
8	Current knowledge about travel destinations	94	302	8
9	Main and supporting facilities	96	300	9
10	Income level	97	299	10
11	Personal health	98	298	11
12	Events and entertainment in tourist destinations	99	297	12
13	Weather and climate	101	295	13
14	Hobbies and interests	101	295	13
15	Political and security conditions in tourist destinations	110	286	15

Source: Data processed, December 2020

Table 5 shows that the factor with the highest ranking of importance is Personal motivation, based on its proportion of "Yes" and "No" responses. This is a normal factor because motivation is a "trigger" of the tour process. It can be called a trigger because every tourist has their reasons for LOS which are influenced by the strength of the push factors and the socio-psychological pull factors. These are factors that will drive a person towards wanting to take a tour, which Swarbroke and Horner (2007) said consists of (1) physical motivations (relaxation, health, comfort, etc.), (2) social motivations (visiting friends and family members, meeting colleagues, doing things that bring prestige, etc.), (3) the desire to know the culture, customs, traditions, and other regional arts, (4) self-actualisation, and (5) security. On the other hand, Political and safety conditions is the factor with the lowest ranking of importance. Political and security requirements are viewed with a lower level of concern in domestic tourism compared to the other 14 factors. Meanwhile, Availability of tourism objects and products and Personality are both ranked third most important because they have the same proportion of "Yes" and "No" responses. Similarly, Weather and climate as well as Hobbies and interests are both ranked the same in terms of importance.

The results of the calculation and analyses of the data in Table 5 can be used to create the relevant marketing and promotional programmes to attract domestic tourists in the country, according to the situation and condition of specific tourism consumers' characteristics. Tourism stakeholders can design a tourism marketing mix in the form of (a) Product (tangible aspects, service elements, and branding), (b) Price (discounts, affordability, etc.), (c) Place (determining intermediary roles, direct selling, etc.), and (d) Promotion (advertising, brochures, sales promotion, etc.), taking into account the factors considered important by domestic tourists in determining tourism destinations. For example, when these stakeholders create promotional programmes to invite tourists to visit specific tourist destinations, they can consider materials related to personal motivation, the formation of positive attitudes, opinions, and perceptions, and the prioritising of the uniqueness of tourism objects and products. Between tourist destinations and the personalities of certain tourism consumer groups, the stakeholders can pay attention to consumer behaviour and segmentation. Promotions can also consider the use of the Internet and word-of-mouth campaigns in communities to raise awareness of and increase the knowledge about these tourist destinations. The destinations can be promoted by informing people about the facilities available and the full transportation modes and convenient road access. All promotional programmes based on these crucial factors are expected to be able to generate more significant opportunities for domestic tourism.

Conclusion

The Cochran's Q Test conducted on 24 factors that influence foreign tourists in determining tourist destinations resulted in 15 of the factors being identified as the most important or dominant by domestic tourists in Indonesia. The 15 factors were: Personal motivation (X_1), Availability of tourism objects and products (X_2), Word-of-mouth recommendations from friends, relatives, and colleagues (X_5), Political and security conditions in tourist destinations (X_6), Hygiene or cleanliness and environmental conditions in tourist destinations (X_7), Weather and climate (X_9), Attitudes, opinions, and perceptions of destination tourism (X_{10}), Current knowledge about travel destinations (X_{12}), Hobbies and interests (X_{13}), Personal health (X_{17}), Income level (X_{18}), Personality (X_{19}), Transportation and road access (X_{20}), Main and supporting facilities (X_{21}), and Events and entertainment in tourist destinations (X_{23}).

Based on the proportion of "Yes" and "No" responses for each of the 15 factors, the ranking of importance for these factors were determined. The results obtained were discussed under the section on Results and Discussion. Personal motivation was the factor with the highest ranking of importance, and it was considered more significant than the other factors.

Tourism stakeholders in West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) can create marketing and promotional programmes for their tourist destinations based on the factors that are considered important or dominant by foreign tourists, in view of increasing tourists' length of stay (LOS).

It is necessary to conduct further research on the factors that are considered important or dominant by foreign tourists, so that the LOS can be increased. This research focused only on what the most important factors were and not on a detailed description of the factors concerned. Thus, it is necessary to conduct further studies on, for example, Personal motivation to determine the driving factors for foreign tourists to take a holiday, or the formation of attitudes, opinions, and perceptions of a tourist destination in greater detail, so that tourism stakeholders can get tourists to stay longer in West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) province.

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Empirical Paper

The Role of Social Media in Sustaining the Demand for Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly Destination

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Abstract: The Muslim travel market is growing rapidly and has become an important market segment in the travel industry. As the population of Muslim travellers grows significantly, there is an increased demand for travel to a Muslim-friendly destination. Muslim tourists are becoming more concerned about Muslim-friendly products and services when travelling abroad from their own country. As a Muslim country, Malaysia offers a variety of Muslim-friendly products, and has the potential to become one of the top Muslim-friendly destinations. As such, one way to sustain demand from this travel market is by using social media. The focus of this research is to examine the form of social media used by international Muslim tourists to build their impression of Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination. A self-administered questionnaire was distributed at the Kuala Lumpur International Airport (KLIA) among 462 international Muslim tourists between January 2020 and March 2020. The results from the survey found that Muslim tourists relied more on social media to gather information about Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination, while government websites received less attention from these tourists. These results illustrate the importance of raising awareness among service providers in Malaysia to provide visitors with a more pleasant experience, while, at the same time, alerting government agencies to step up their role in promoting a destination.

Keywords: Destination image, international Muslim tourists, Muslim-friendly destination, social media, sustaining demand

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Introduction

Dinar Standard (2012) forecasted that the total number of Muslim tourist arrivals would reach up to 98 million in Organisation of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) countries by the year 2020, with a growth rate of 51.8% over the forecasted period. Even though most of the tourist arrivals were within OIC countries, the number of Muslim travellers from non-OIC countries was also forecasted to show an increase of 42.95% over the same period. As the population of Muslim travellers experiences significant growth, there is an increase in demand for travel to Muslim-friendly destinations (Battour, Battor, & Bhatti, 2014; Battour, Ismail, Battor, & Awais, 2017; Rahman, 2014). Battour and Ismail (2016) defined a Muslim-friendly destination as any tourism activities that is allowed according to Islamic regulations and is to be adhered to by Muslims.

Samori and Rahman (2013) and Battour and Ismail (2016) agreed that Muslim travel was growing globally, especially among Muslim countries. Kessler (2015) stated that Muslim travel referred to a type of tourism relating to Islam or Muslim tourists. Muslim tourists refer to the type of tourists who are religiously conscious (Battour, Ismail, & Battor, 2011). These are tourists who abide by Shariah law, which refers to rules and regulations that have been stated based on the Qur'an and Hadith. Shariah law is a way of life prescribed for Muslims by Islamic teachings. This includes a range of aspects such as financial and economic matters, as well as everyday matters from hygiene and manners, to charity and worship (Dinar Standard, 2012). Muslim tourists are restricted to consuming only anything that is halal, especially when they intend to travel abroad from their home country. Halal refers to anything that is permissible or allowed by Shariah law, and this concept has been used as a guide for all Muslims.

Literature Review

One of the factors that contributed to the growth of Muslim travellers was the growth of the Muslim population worldwide (Battour & Ismail, 2016). The Muslim population is reported to be the fastest growing religious segment in the world, which is expected to contribute 26% of the world's population by the year 2030 (Mastercard-Crescentrating, 2017). Another contributing factor to the growth of the Muslim travel market was the rise of the younger Muslim tourist population of 23 years of age in 2010 (Mastercard-Crescentrating, 2017). Yusof, Mohd Shariff, and Omar (2019) stated that there were younger and more educated Muslim consumers with more disposable income, which enabled them to travel more. These trendsetters were influencing the future of Muslim travel through the way their decisions were made and also their purchasing behaviours. This new younger Muslim generation, known as Generation M or Gen M, is a segment of Muslims who believe in encompassing

both faith and modernity in their everyday lives (Janmohamed, 2016). Gen M is not afraid to express what is on their minds, and they also have strong opinions. With regard to the growth of Gen M, destination and service providers need to become more aggressive and inclusive in creating products and services to cater for this unique segment.

“Muslim-friendly Malaysia” is the tagline used by the Islamic Tourism Centre (ITC) to develop and promote Malaysia’s Islamic tourism sector. Malaysia has the potential to become one of the top Muslim-friendly destinations for tourists (Yusof, Ramli, & Mohd Shariff, 2016). The Malaysian tourism industry provides products and services that are suitable for Muslims, thus it is capable of catering for the needs of Muslim tourists (ITC, 2021). Destination management organisations (DMOs) must, therefore, emphasise Malaysia’s Muslim-friendly attributes when promoting it at the international level to attract Muslim tourists. The development of destination marketing strategies is vital for the appropriate and optimal use of promotional tools, especially in managing the information uploaded to social media. Destination marketers should concentrate on the formulation of correct and up-to-date information to fulfil the needs of international Muslim tourists and to promote Malaysia as an attractive Muslim-friendly destination.

Potential tourists select their travel destinations based on their perception of these places. In the case of the tourism product, perception involves the process of categorising and filtering a variety of information about a destination. The tourist perceived image of a destination can be formed based on various sources of information, including travel intermediaries, DMOs, and travel magazines. Numerous information sources and the attributes of the destination could influence the tourist destination image formation (Molina & Esteban, 2006).

Digital information sources, also known as social media, are considered a powerful electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) tool that offers tourists a pre-visit image and later influences their perceived image of a destination (Williams, Inversini, Ferdinand, & Buhalis, 2017; Zhou, 2014). Social media refers to a sequence of websites and applications that is intended to allow people to distribute content quickly, efficiently, and in real-time (Hudson, 2017). Constructing social media products entails a professional team with various skill sets, such as analytical and production coordination abilities, artistic talent, and technical skills. Social media products can be found on different platforms, such as websites, mobile applications, videos, games (mobile, online, or console), and so much more. The advancements in the development of information technology (IT) has introduced tourists to a newer source of social media, namely Instagram, Facebook, and other social media platforms, that might influence the potential tourist’s decision to travel (Mack, Blose, & Pan, 2008). However, the information provided on these social media platforms might be interpreted differently by different audiences. Besides that, the

digital tourism information provided for tourists could influence destination image formation (Campo & Alvarez, 2014; Wong, Kler, & Sondoh, 2017).

The growth of social media is a major factor that changed tourism and travel industries in the ways of how tourists purchase and experience travel aspects (María Munar & Jacobsen, 2013). In this new era of technology, social media has been found to influence tourists' destination selection (Lian & Yu, 2017). Yasmin, Tasneem, and Fatema (2015) referred to social media as various promotional techniques deployed to reach customers via digital technologies. Social media represents a broad selection of products and services and marketing tactics which mainly uses the Internet as a core promotional medium. Digital marketing is one type of marketing that is widely used to promote products or services and to reach consumers using digital channels (Yasmin et al., 2015). Through social media, consumers can access information at any time and any place. With the presence of social media, consumers do not merely rely on what the destination says on the web about its attractions. At the same time, these consumers are able to follow information shared on other types of social media sites, such as the Instagram or Facebook account of an individual.

Previous studies found that the information portrayed and shared in digital media such as social media websites and travel blogs tend to influence the image of tourists of a destination (Huertas & Marine-Roig, 2016; No & Kim, 2015). For instance, travel blogs which contain recent and updated personal tourism experiences (Rutenbeck, 2013) and demonstrate the experiences of the travel bloggers (Pan, MacLaurin, & Crotts, 2007), were found to influence tourists to travel to a destination. Tseng, Wu, Morrison, Zhang, and Chen (2015) observed that travel blogs on China influenced tourists' images or the destination image formation of Mainland China. Although past studies have suggested that social media could influence destination image formation (Schmallegger & Carson, 2008), the use of this medium has not been evaluated in the context of Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly travel destination. This paper, thus, explored the types of social media platforms as new types of information sources as perceived by international Muslim tourists to Malaysia, and their importance in sustaining the demand for a Muslim-friendly destination, particularly Malaysia.

As the world is currently facing the coronavirus (Covid-19) pandemic, most economic sectors, especially the tourism sector, have suffered a tremendous loss in demand. Many people have lost their job as businesses were forced to shut down due to little to no demand for tourism activities. The distribution of Covid-19 vaccines is akin to a light at the end of the tunnel for many. With this in mind, countries such as Malaysia need to line up their strategies to revive the tourism sector as soon as the world is ready to open its door to travel again. This paper also acknowledged the sustainable development goal (SDG) strategy of the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) in sustaining economic growth, by means of tourism promotion for the

Malaysian tourism industry, especially of Muslim-friendly destinations, in order to bounce back after the Covid-19 pandemic.

Materials and Methods

The Muslim travel market is now a significant market segment for the tourism and travel industry. Hence, for this study, the population included the international Muslim tourists visiting Malaysia. According to the ITC (2020), there were 5.33 million international Muslim tourists in Malaysia in 2019. The convenience sampling technique, also known as availability sampling, was used for data collection. It was chosen because the population of Muslim travellers were from different regions, and the methodology was useful for compiling a precise number of research respondents. From January to March 2020, self-administered questionnaires for the study were distributed at KLIA to international Muslim tourists. Each distributed questionnaire was marked with the date for data coding purposes. Since each questionnaire took 10 minutes or less to complete, the questionnaires were given out and collected by the researcher immediately. This strategy was believed to provide a higher response rate.

Data collection was carried out in the departure hall, public areas, and lounge areas of the KLIA. The researcher engaged with as many prospective respondents as possible to reach a sufficient number of samples for this study. According to the model by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), the ideal number of respondents needed to represent a total population of more than 1,000,000 is 384. However, this study targeted a total of 500 samples. A final number of 462 questionnaires (92.4% of the return rate) was successfully obtained and used for this study. Thirty-eight respondents were unable to complete their questionnaires due to circumstances, and these questionnaires were marked as incomplete.

The questionnaire was split into three sections. Section A contained demographic details, such as gender and age. Meanwhile, Section B listed the types or forms of social media used, in view of collecting information about the respondents' image of Malaysia as a travel destination. Section C attempted to explore the tourists' understanding of the value of social media platforms as promotional tools, in establishing their impression of Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination. The questionnaire was developed by adapting those used in previous studies (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Királová & Pavlíček, 2015; Molina & Esteban, 2006; Molina, Gómez, & Martín-Consuegra, 2010; Yasmin et al., 2015). The elements in the sections were updated and rephrased, so that elements 9 and 11 for Sections B and C, respectively, corresponded to the goals of the analysis. Respondents were asked to rate the source of information used based on a given scale, in order to gather the information of Malaysia's image. The scale was developed as a 5-point Likert scale, with scores ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Always). Meanwhile, the respondents were

also asked to rate from 1 (Not at all important) to 5 (Very important) on another 5-point Likert scale, in order to examine the importance of social media data in shaping their perception of Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination.

The questionnaire was written in English and translated into Arabic to accommodate visitors who understood English as well as the Arabic-speaking tourists from Middle Eastern countries. Accuracy of the translation from English to Arabic was sought using the back translation method (El-Adly & Eid, 2017). According to Douglas and Craig (2007), the back translation method was most widely used in survey analysis to test the accuracy of translations. Data analysis was carried out using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS-PC) version 25 for Windows. Descriptive statistics and the simple linear regression technique were conducted to determine the influence of social media on the formation of Malaysia's image as a Muslim-friendly destination.

Results and Discussion

Demographic Profiles of Survey Respondents

The final valid samples of 462 respondents were used in this study. Table 1 shows the diversity of the respondents, in terms of gender, age, marital status, travelling companion, purpose of travel, and travelling pattern of the Muslim tourists. The statistics for gender indicated that the respondents were fairly evenly distributed, with 51.5% (238 males) and 48.5% (224 females). With regard to age, the purpose was to ensure that data was gathered from different age groups to represent real tourists' profiles. Respondents from the age group comprising 20 to 30 year-olds represented the highest percentage in the study, that is, 59.3% (274 people). This was followed by:

- 106 (22.9%) respondents who were aged between 31 and 40 years old,
- 43 (9.3%) respondents from the 41–50 age group,
- 27 (5.8%) respondents aged 19 years old and below,
- 11 (2.4%) respondents from the 51–60 age group, and
- 1 person (0.2%, that is, the lowest percentage of respondents) from the 61 and above age group.

Data about the marital status showed that 37.4% (163 of the respondents) were single, 56.3% (260) were married, 3.9% (18) were divorced, and 2.4% (11) were widowed.

Table 1. Demographic statistics of survey respondents ($N = 462$)

Characteristics	<i>N</i>	Percentage (%)	Characteristics	<i>N</i>	Percentage (%)
Gender			Travelling companion		
Male	238	51.5	Solo	95	20.6
Female	224	48.5	As a couple	165	35.7
Age			Group of friends	106	22.9
<19 years old	27	5.8	Family with children	96	20.8
20–30 years old	274	59.3	Purpose of travel		
31–40 years old	106	22.9	Business	77	16.7
41–50 years old	43	9.3	Leisure	290	62.8
51–60 years old	11	2.4	Others	95	20.6
>61 years old	1	0.2	Travelling pattern in Malaysia		
Marital status			Using tour packages	185	40.0
Single	163	37.4	Frequent independent travellers	277	60.0
Married	260	56.3			
Divorced	18	3.9			
Widowed	11	2.4			

Table 1 also shows that 35.7% (165 respondents) travelled in pairs or as a couple, 22.9% (106) travelled in a group of friends, 20.8% (96) travelled with their family and children, and a further 20.6% (95) travelled alone. Most of the international Muslim tourists visited Malaysia for leisure purposes, which comprised 62.8% (290 people), followed by 20.6% (95) for other reasons, and 16.7% (77) for business trips. In reference to the tourists' travelling pattern in Malaysia, the findings of this study showed that a majority of the respondents (60% or 277 people) were frequent independent travellers, while 40% (185) used tour packages as the means of travel to Malaysia.

Types of Social Media Used by Survey Respondents

This section explores the survey respondents' use of social media, in order to gather information about Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination based on the respondents' image. Descriptive statistics was used to analyse their opinion regarding this aspect. The survey participants were asked to provide answers on the types of social media platforms used, based on a 5-point Likert scale: 1 (Never), 2 (Seldom), 3 (Sometimes), 4 (Very often), and 5 (Always). This measurement scale consisted of nine items, namely Facebook, Instagram, YouTube, Twitter, online travel blogs,

online travel agencies (OTA), online travel documentaries, the Tourism Malaysia and ITC websites, and Muslim-friendly applications.

Table 2 shows the summated mean scores (*M*) and standard deviations (*SD*) as perceived by the international Muslim tourists. According to the summated mean scores of the types of social media used, YouTube recorded the highest mean score (*M* = 3.59), followed by Instagram (*M* = 3.48), and Facebook (*M* = 3.36). Figure 1 shows the overall summated mean scores for the nine types of social media discussed.

Table 2. Descriptive analysis of the types of social media used (*N* = 462)

Dimensions/Items	Summated Mean Scores (<i>M</i>)	Standard Deviations (<i>SD</i>)
Facebook	3.36	1.423
Instagram	3.48	1.356
YouTube	3.59	1.324
Twitter	2.76	1.476
Online travel blogs (Personal travel blogs, TripAdvisor)	3.00	1.425
Online travel agencies (Traveloka, Expedia, Hotels.com)	3.08	1.431
Online travel documentaries	2.71	1.357
Tourism Malaysia and ITC websites	2.85	1.386
Muslim-friendly applications	3.03	1.479

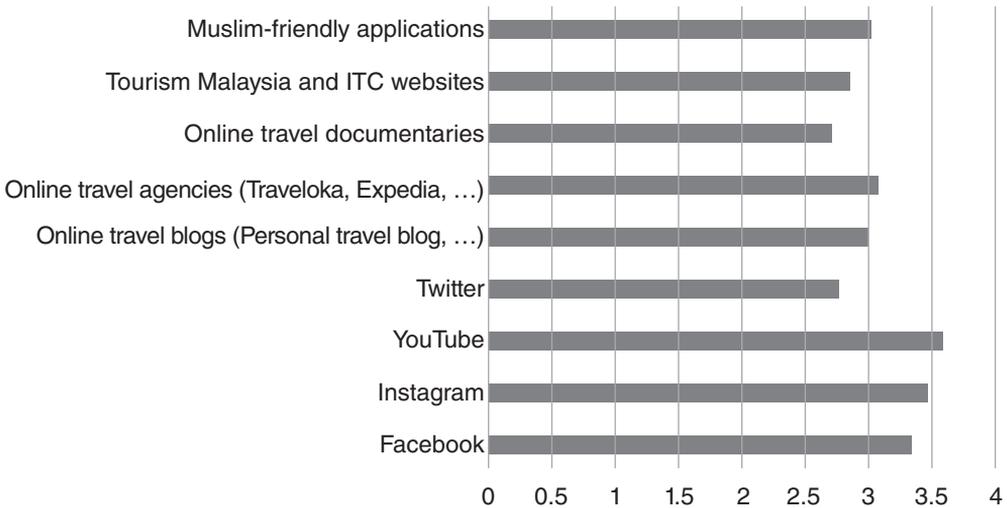


Figure 1. Summated mean scores for the types of social media used

The Role of Social Media as a Tool to Promote Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly Destination

This section explores the tourists' perception of the role of these social media platforms in promoting Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination. The 5-point Likert scale was again used, with scores ranging from 1 (Not at all important) to 5 (Very important). Table 3 shows the summated mean scores (M) and standard deviations (SD) of the importance of social media. The highest mean score of 4.26 was for "Increasing my intention to re-visit Malaysia in the future", followed by the subsequent top five mean scores for:

- "Providing necessary information about Muslim-friendly products and services in Malaysia" ($M = 4.23$),
- "Developing a positive image of Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination" ($M = 4.22$),
- "Creating and increasing my awareness of Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination" ($M = 4.20$),
- "Providing information consistent with the reality of Muslim-friendly products and services in Malaysia" ($M = 4.18$), and
- "Influencing my decision to travel to Malaysia" ($M = 4.12$).

Therefore, with only slight differences in the mean scores, it can be concluded that social media played a key role in promoting Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination.

Table 3. Descriptive analysis of the role of social media platforms as promotional tools for Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination ($N = 462$)

Dimensions/Items	Summated Mean Scores (M)	Standard Deviations (SD)
1. Creating and increasing my awareness of Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination	4.20	.857
2. Providing necessary information about Muslim-friendly products and services in Malaysia	4.23	.806
3. Providing information consistent with the reality of Muslim-friendly products and services in Malaysia	4.18	.809
4. Keeping me updated regarding information on Muslim-friendly products and services in Malaysia	4.14	.837
5. Forming my expected image of Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination	4.15	.784

Table 3 (con't)

Dimensions/Items	Summated Mean Scores (<i>M</i>)	Standard Deviations (<i>SD</i>)
6. Developing a positive image of Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination	4.22	.815
7. Comparing Muslim-friendly products and services offered by other travel operators	4.05	.852
8. Purchasing Muslim-friendly products and services instantly	4.08	.835
9. Comparing the prices of Muslim-friendly products and services	4.06	.846
10. Influencing my decision to travel to Malaysia	4.12	.879
11. Increasing my intention to re-visit Malaysia in the future	4.26	.819

The information received from secondary sources, such as advertising via social media, is important in attracting potential tourists to visit the country (Hui & Wan, 2003). The findings of this study were consistent with Amalia et al. (2018), who found that eWOM was a vital factor in influencing the decisions of tourists to travel to a destination. They added that tourists found the new social media platforms helpful in searching for various information on tourist destination attractions. Molina et al. (2010) and Boo, Koh, and Jones (2008) found that the use of social media rated as the most critical promotional tool in searching for and promoting the information of a destination. This highlighted the fact that Malaysia could rely on social media in sustaining the demand for its Muslim-friendly products, and social media could, in fact, be used to promote any destination.

Based on the study findings, the international Muslim tourists mostly agreed that they “sometimes” used YouTube, Instagram, and Facebook to look for information about Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination. The results of this study were in line with that of Bernkopf and Nixon (2019), who conducted an online survey to compare images of Mexico City. Their study found that images of a destination that were posted on Instagram were more effective at improving the image of the destination rather than the images reposted by destination marketing organisations. The results of this study were also consistent with Peluchette and Karl (2009) and Sinha, Ahuja, and Medury (2011), who stated that Facebook users used their profiles and postings to intentionally convey images of themselves as well as their knowledge about and experiences at a destination. This allowed them to show their emotional attachment through the content of social communication, which has become more functional or emotional in nature. Pagel and Aebli (2015) further highlighted that

the images portrayed on Instagram and Facebook had the ability to influence the destination image both significantly and promptly.

Tourists documented their travel experience at a destination by taking pictures of their whole journey, most of which were then posted to the online community by Instagram followers and Facebook contacts to show that they have visited the destination. Again, this indicated that people relied more on shared knowledge based on personal experience rather than on advertisements alone, which may be deceptive. Having said that, it is also pertinent for the authorities to identify solutions and means of motivating tourism service providers to offer goods and services that are appealing to visitors. Furthermore, Muslim tourists have certain needs and personal interests on the grounds of religious requirements. It is, therefore, crucial for a Muslim-friendly destination to fulfil the needs of these Muslim tourists, in the hopes that the latter will share their pleasant experience which, in turn, will draw more Muslim visitors to Malaysia.

In a study, Ashley and Tuten (2015) found that Facebook marketing was the most used method, closely followed by video sharing on YouTube. María Munar (2011) similarly discovered that information sources were also gathered by tourism organisations through digital network platforms such as Facebook and YouTube, and these sources have benefited the tourism organisations. The results of this study were also consistent with that of Hudson (2017), who indicated that the best way to connect with the consumer in digital media was to provide customer- and retailer-relevant information, thereby generating a discussion or an exchange that leads to shared posts and more follower engagement. The findings further confirmed the statement by Sheehan and Morrison (2009) that any content transmitted on digital media could link and appeal to consumers, as well as draw the interest of new audiences. They added that, in the creation of brand messaging that can be successfully distributed in digital as well as conventional media to foster customer interest and achieve desirable brand results, there was a need for creativity.

It is also necessary, however, to raise the question of visitor satisfaction with the destination, as the information to be posted in the specified social media cannot be controlled or regulated by the destination. This further illustrates the connection between the expectations of tourists and the real experience of visitors, and what is shared post-visitation. Destination marketers must also collaborate with local service providers to ensure that tourists do not come with unreasonable demands and expectations which would, in turn, have an impact on the sustainment of demand for the destination.

Other than that, the study findings revealed that international Muslim tourists also used OTA and online travel blogs to obtain information about Malaysia. Hoz-Correa and Muñoz-Leiva (2019) obtained similar results, whereas they also found that online information sources such as social networks, webpages, and blogs were commonly

consulted by former medical tourists when deciding whether to travel to a specified destination or not. Online travel agencies (OTA) could sell their packages and services all over the world, considering that American travellers (84%) used the Internet to buy air tickets or make online hotel reservations (Boo et al., 2008). The results supported the study of Királová and Pavlíček (2015), where OTA has transformed into one of the selling channels for the business nowadays. In terms of online travel blogs, Chen, Shang, and Li (2014) suggested that tourists would consider following and focusing on information from blogs that were relatively observed to be pertinent to their needs, which later helped in developing an image of destinations. This proved yet again that social media has allowed everyone to share their experiences and, on the other hand, other people were relying on the posts and sharing of information to perform the process of image formation about a particular destination.

Apart from that, respondents of this study agreed that they “seldom” used the websites of Tourism Malaysia and ITC, Twitter, and online travel documentaries to gather information on Malaysia. As stated by Kim, Kim, and Han (2007), the role of tourist boards was to promote travel-related products and services, and provide complete information about travel necessities to their potential customers. It becomes the responsibility of the country’s tourist boards to adequately advertise and promote the tourism destination, in order to create a favourable image (Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008). However, the results of this study showed that most of the international Muslim tourists “seldom” used the Tourism Malaysia and ITC websites to gather information about Malaysia before their visit, despite the host of useful information provided by these websites for Muslim tourists. This was because the respondents felt that other social media platforms could help in providing the necessary information about Muslim-friendly products and services offered in the country.

The results of the study confirmed the findings of Wilson, Guinan, Weinberg, and Parise (2011), who found that while digital media was a free advertisement medium, consumers seldom achieved the intended outcome. This suggests that it was important for regulatory bodies participating in the marketing efforts to analyse why prospective tourists had less interest in obtaining information from these websites. It is necessary to understand why this was the case, and also to remove any cynicism that these consumers might have about these websites. Thus, this paper addressed the issue of the trustworthiness of certain websites, which in this case may have distracted prospective tourists from using these particular information sources. Again, this was an indication that social media played a major role in retaining tourism demand and in supporting Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination.

This study explored the effect of digital media or digital information sources used by international Muslim tourists in shaping an image of Malaysia. The results were derived from a limited or select range of digital media in the questionnaire. Future studies could concentrate on various digital media, as this would help to ensure that

the digital media used for Malaysia's reputation as a Muslim-friendly destination are reliably and easily interpreted. The main objective of this paper was to define the type of digital media international Muslim tourists often used to create a Muslim-friendly image of Malaysia. However, the study did not focus on why the country's official websites, which supposedly provided the most accurate information about Malaysia, were to a large extent ignored. It is suggested that potential researchers further explore this issue.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this paper considered the value of digital media in developing and improving Malaysia's reputation as a Muslim-friendly destination. It found that international Muslim tourists used digital media to obtain information about Malaysia during their decision-making phase. The results highlighted the importance of providing reliable information about Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination. It also revealed the low level of use of government websites, in particular the Tourism Malaysia and ITC websites by tourists. While these websites are supposedly the most accurate ones to refer to, they were however found to be the least used as a source of information by these tourists.

Nevertheless, in promoting Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly destination, it is vital not to neglect the relevance of other information sources that these tourists have used to search for information about Malaysia. For instance, to draw Muslim visitors, marketers could emphasise Islamic morality in Malaysia, but, at the same time, not overemphasise it to the point of alienating non-Muslims. Therefore, the key is to have an intricate plan coupled with a well-balanced image to successfully portray an image of tourism in Malaysia, especially when it is done through digital media.

In addressing UNTWO's sustainable economic growth goal, this paper suggested a method of promoting Malaysia as a Muslim-friendly tourism destination to its niche market through social media. By doing so, Malaysia could create the demand for travel to the country, and once Covid-19 travel restrictions are lifted, Malaysia would then have already positioned itself in the list of countries to visit. This will help to resuscitate the country's economy, especially its tourism industry, and enable it to sustain the demand for the sector then.

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Empirical Paper

The Influence of Halal Label on Purchase Decisions in the Hospitality Industry : A Case Study in Palembang City

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Abstract: With the largest Muslim population in the world, Indonesia has immense market potential for the global halal industry. Unfortunately, the high demand for halal products from both domestic and foreign markets has not been accompanied with support from the Indonesian government. One example is the case of halal product certificates. This study aims to examine and analyse the influence of the halal label on the purchase decisions of the hospitality industry using Palembang city as a case study. Data were collected through survey questionnaires, and interviews with 359 respondents selected using the incidental sampling technique. Results of a simple linear regression analysis reveal that the halal label (a coefficient value of 0.711) affected 71.1% of purchase decisions at Hotel Swarna Dipa, Harper, and Aston Palembang as a dependent variable. On the other hand, the findings also reveal that the remaining 28.9% was influenced by other factors that were not included in the study.

Keywords: Halal label, hospitality industry, purchase decisions

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Introduction

Indonesia has the potential to become the principal halal tourism destination in the world. The tourism industry and the general public is increasingly aware of the importance of Muslim-friendly tourism. This is evidenced by the success of Lombok,

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West Nusa Tenggara, one of the best halal tourist destination in the world in being awarded the World Halal Tourism Award (WHTA) in 2015. It is this recognition and success that inspires other destinations in Indonesia to develop halal tourism. Furthermore, halal tourism has been encouraged by the Indonesian government since 2012. And in the last two years, the government has intensified its efforts to expand and develop halal tourism through the formulation of policies and legal frameworks.

In accordance with the Halal Tourism Management Guidelines published by the Ministry of Tourism, halal certification is one of the requirements that businesses must meet. The halal certification was developed for entrepreneurs to help them increase their sales. There are two functions of the halal certification: from the moral aspect, it is a form of responsibility of the manufacturer to the consumer and from the business aspect, as a means of marketing, and to increase consumer trust and satisfaction. A halal certificate refers to a halal label attached to a product. The purpose of implementing halal certification in food products, medicines, and cosmetics is to provide assurance of the legitimacy of a product and to calm the mind of the consumer who uses the product.

Halal certification not only benefits consumers but also manufacturers. With halal certification, consumer trust and loyalty will increase; besides, a halal product can reach more market segments, both Muslim and non-Muslim (Ramlan & Nahrowi, 2014). However, the increasingly large demand for halal products from both domestic and foreign markets is not accompanied by support from the Indonesian government. One example is the case of halal product certificates. Halal certification is one of the instruments that is required so that Indonesia can compete in the global halal industry. Currently, there are some contentious issues between the government and the Food Assessment Institute, Drugs, and Cosmetics Majelis Ulama Indonesia (LPPOM MUI) which is hindering the finalisation of an optimal halal certification process. As an emerging sector in the tourism industry, halal tourism provides accommodation that is halal-certified. Based on the given background, the study attempts to determine the impact of the halal label on purchase decisions in the hospitality industry using Palembang city as the case study.

Literature Review

Halal Tourism

To understand halal tourism better, it is necessary to shed light on some of the related terms and terminology:

- a. Muslim traveller: A Muslim who travels for various interests.
- b. Muslim tourism: Tourism for Muslims.
- c. Halal travel: Muslim tourists who do not want to compromise on faith-based

needs as they travel for permitted purposes. Or it can also be defined as a traveller who is aware of halal travel for any purpose that is allowed (halal). Halal tourism is part of the Muslim journey, as most Muslims will have at least some form of faith-based necessity when travelling. Thus, the majority of Muslim travel falls in the category of halal tourism.

- d. Islamic travel: Muslims travel mainly for religious reasons and/or visit Islamic religious sites.
- e. Muslim-friendly destination: A destination that serves/meets the needs of Muslim tourists
- f. Facilities / Services or Ramah Muslim: A service or facility that meets several needs based on the faith of Muslim tourists. Although halal-friendly facilities/ services are similar, this is more precisely a Muslim-friendly service.

The Halal Label

The perception of a halal label, that is, the process in which individuals (Muslim consumers) select, organise, and interpret information about halal products, is based on four aspects: 1) Security, 2) Religious value, 3) Health and 4) Exclusivity where halal food products should be separated from *haram* food products. This separation is necessary to avoid direct contact with illegal products, to avoid the risk of contamination, and ensure that the management of halal food products is in line with the perceptions of Muslim consumers.

Halal Certification

Halal certification is the certification process of products and services under the Islamic sharia provisions. Halal certification is a guarantee for Muslims to be able to meet the needs and provisions of their religion. The halal certificate is a mandatory requirement for every product and service consumed by Muslims and is currently considered as a product quality standard. Halal quality standards are applicable to the preparation and production processes of food, cosmetics, medicines, and medical products and also to services related to these halal products (Waharini & Purwantini, 2018).

Purchase Decision

According to Kotler and Keller (2007), in the evaluation phase, consumers form a preference for the available brand choices. Consumers also form the intention to buy the brand they like best. Hasan (2009) stated that the purchase decision involves:

- 1) An initiator as the person who first realises the need for unmet needs and takes the initiative to propose to buy a particular product.

- 2) An influencer as the person who often acts as an influencer because his views, advice, or opinion affect the purchase decision.
- 3) A decider as the person who acts as a decision-maker in determining what products to buy, how to buy, and where to buy the products.
- 4) A buyer as the person who makes the actual purchase.
- 5) A user as a person who consumes or uses the product purchased.

Marketing researchers have developed a consumer-level decision-making model that involves five stages (Kotler & Keller, 2007):

- 1) **Problem recognition.** The stage where a consumer becomes aware of a problem or need to be triggered by internal or external stimuli. Internal stimuli refers to one's normal needs.
- 2) **Information search.** The stage where a consumer seeks and gains knowledge about the product/service needed, from four main sources of information :
 - a. Personal: family, friends, neighbors, and colleagues
 - b. Commercial: advertising, websites, businesses, distributors, packaging, displays.
 - c. Public: mass media, consumer rating organisations.
 - d. Experimental: handling, inspection, product use.The amount and relative influence of these sources vary by product category and buyer characteristics.
- 3) **Evaluation of alternatives.** With the available information, the consumer evaluates how well each alternative can meet their needs and wants.
- 4) **Purchase decision.** At this stage, the consumer forms inter-brand preferences from the range of options available. Consumers may also form the intent to buy their favorite brand.
- 5) **Post-purchase behavior.** A purchase decision-making process does not end at the purchase transaction, but also involves to a certain extent, post-purchase behavior.

Methodology

Sample

The population for this study were guests at the Industrial Hospital (case study in Palembang City) from which a sample consisting of 359 respondents was selected using incidental sampling. Incidental sampling is a sampling technique based on chance, where anyone who happens to meet the researcher is used as a sample, provided that the person is suitable as a data source (Tarjo, 2019).

Data Collection

The data collection was carried out by the researchers through direct field surveys, interviews, and questionnaire administered to the selected respondents. The responses

for questions and variable statements on the questionnaire were measured using a 5-point Likert scale as follows:

- Strongly Agree — 5
- Agree — 4
- Neutral — 3
- Disagree — 2
- Strongly Disagree — 1

Data Analysis

To determine the effect of the halal label on purchasing decisions in the hospitality industry, the collected data were analysed using a simple linear regression equation:

$$Y = a + bX + e \quad \text{where } Y = \text{Dependent variable}$$

$a = \text{Constant}$
 $X = \text{Independent variable}$
 $b = \text{regression coefficient}$
 $e = \text{error}$

Results and Discussion

Profile of Respondents

Place of origin

Table 1. Place of origin

No	Place of origin	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Bengkulu	35	9.75
2	West Java	53	14.76
3	Central Java	2	0.56
4	Lampung	25	6.96
5	West Sumatra	34	9.47
6	South Sumatra	210	58.50
Total		359	100

Table 1 shows that the majority of respondents were from the South Sumatra Province with a total of 210 respondents (58.50%). The rest of the sample comprised 35 (9.75%) from Bengkulu, 53 (14.76%) from West Java, 2 (0.56%) from Central Java, 25 (6.96%) from Lampung and 34 (9.47%) from West Sumatra.

Age of Respondents

Table 2. Age of respondents

No	Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	21 – 35 years old	169	47.08
2	36 – 50 years old	152	42.34
3	> 50 years old	38	10.58
Total		359	100

Based on Table 2, the respondents aged 21–35 years were 169 or 47.08% of the sample. Meanwhile, 152 (42.34%) respondents were 36–50 years and 38 respondents (10.58%) were aged 50 and above.

Occupation

Table 3. Occupation

No	Jobs	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Undergraduates	29	8.08
2	Private employees	117	32.59
3	State officials	102	28.41
4	Entrepreneurs	111	30.92
Total		359	100

Table 3 shows 8.08% of the respondents were students. Meanwhile, 32.59% of the respondents were private employees (including employees in government entities without State Civil Apparatus (ASN) status), 28.41% civil servants or ASN status and 30.92% entrepreneurs.

Income

Table 4. Income

No	Monthly income (IDR)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	2 500 000 – 4 000 000	68	18.94
2	4 000 000 – 5 500 000	87	24.23
3	5 500 000 – 7 000 00	125	34.82
4	> 7 000 000	79	22.01
Total		359	100

As shown in Table 4, 18.94% of respondents earned a monthly income of IDR 2 500 000 – 4 000 000, 24.23% earned IDR 4 000 000 – 5 500 000, 34.82% earned IDR 5 500 000 – 7 000 000 and 22.01% earned more than IDR 7 000 000.

Monthly Expenses

Table 5. Monthly expenses

No	Monthly expenses (IDR)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	< 1 000 000	4	1.11
2	1 000 000 – 1 500 000	87	24.23
3	1 500 000 – 3 000 000	105	29.25
4	> 3 000 000	163	45.41
Total		359	100

Table 5 shows the monthly expenses of the respondents. A minority (1.11%) spent less than IDR 1 000 000. The remainder spent IDR 1 000 000 – 1 500 000 (24.23%), IDR 1 500 000 – 3 000 000 (29.25%) and above IDR 3 000 000 (45.41%).

Variables related to the Halal Label

Recognition of the Indonesian Ulema Council (MUI) logo

Table 6. Recognition of the MUI Logo

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly disagree	5	1.39	1	5
2	Disagree	2	0.56	2	4
3	Doubtful	31	8.64	3	93
4	Agree	133	37.05	4	532
5	Strongly agree	188	52.37	5	940
Total Respondents		359			
Maximum Score			1795		1574
Performance			87.69		

Table 6 shows that a large majority of the respondents (89.42% or 321 respondents) recognised the MUI logo (strongly agree or agree). A total of 31 respondents were doubtful (8.64%). Meanwhile, only a small minority did not recognise the MUI logo (1.95% or 7 respondents). The total score for this variable is 1574 which translates to 87.69% for its level of performance. In this case, the indicator's performance is considered as very good.

MUI logo on Hotel Product

Table 7. MUI logo on hotel product

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	6	1.67	1	6
2	Disagree	5	1.3	2	10
3	Doubtful	31	8.64	3	93
4	Agree	164	45.68	4	656
5	Strongly Agree	153	42.62	5	765
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1530
Performance			85.24		

Based on Table 7, 42.62% (153 respondents) strongly agreed with paying attention to the presence or absence of the MUI logo in the hotel products they look at. A total of 164 respondents (45.68%) agreed while 31 respondents (8.64%) responded as being doubtful. Meanwhile, 1.39% (2 respondents) disagreed and 1.67% (6 respondents) strongly disagreed with this variable. The total score was 1530 from 359 respondents (85.24%). In this case, the variable performed well.

The Halal Label on the Product is Clear

Table 8. The halal label on the product is clear

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	8	2.23	1	8
2	Disagree	1	0.28	2	2
3	Doubtful	77	21.45	3	231
4	Agree	129	35.93	4	516
5	Strongly Agree	144	40.11	5	720
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1477
Performance			82.28		

Table 8 shows that a large majority strongly agreed (40.11% or 144 respondents) and agreed (35.93% or 129 respondents) with the statement if the halal label can be seen clearly on the product. Only 77 respondents (21.45%) were doubtful about this. Meanwhile, 0.28% (1 respondent) disagreed or 2.23% (8 respondents)

strongly disagreed. Based on the total score of 1477, the performance of this variable is 82.28% which is very good.

The Halal Label Helps Identify Hotel Products Before Purchase

Table 9. The halal label helps identify hotel products before purchase

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	60	16.71	1	60
2	Disagree	13	3.62	2	26
3	Doubtful	27	7.52	3	81
4	Agree	115	32.03	4	460
5	Strongly Agree	144	40.11	5	720
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1347
Performance			75.04		

With regard to the statement on whether the halal label helps to identify hotel products, a large majority agreed (40.11% or 144 respondents strongly agreed and 32.03% or 115 respondents agreed). A small percentage 7.52% (27 respondents) expressed their uncertainty while 3.62% or 13 respondents disagreed and 16.71% or 60 respondents strongly disagreed. With a score of 1347, the variable's performance is calculated as 75.04%, which implies a strong variable.

Recognition of the Official Halal Label Issued By The Indonesian Ulema Council (MUI)

Table 10. Recognition of official halal label issued by The Indonesian Ulema Council (MUI)

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	15	4.18	1	15
2	Disagree	4	1.11	2	8
3	Doubtful	28	7.80	3	84
4	Agree	171	47.63	4	684
5	Strongly Agree	141	39.28	5	705
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1496
Performance			83.34		

In terms of recognising the official halal label issued by the Indonesian Ulema Council (MUI), 39.28% (141 respondents) and 47.63% (171 respondents) agreed and strongly agreed, respectively. Those who responded as doubtful were 28 respondents (7.80%). The results demonstrate that this variable is a strong one (total score of 1496 or 83.34%).

Halal Label as a Consideration in the Purchase Decision of Hotel Products

Table 11. Halal label as a consideration in the purchase decision of hotel products

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	32	8.91	1	32
2	Disagree	13	3.62	2	26
3	Doubtful	31	8.64	3	93
4	Agree	157	43.73	4	628
5	Strongly Agree	126	35.10	5	630
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1409
Performance			78.50		

Table 11 shows that a total of 282 respondents (78.83%) take into consideration the halal label before purchasing hotel products (strong agreed /agreed with the variable). Ony 31 respondents (8.64%) expressed their doubt. Meanwhile, 3.62% or 2 respondents disagreed and 8.91% or 32 respondents strongly disagreed with this variable. With a total score of 1409, this variable's performance is calculated as 78.50%; which means, this is a good variable.

Position of Halal Label on Hotel Product

Table 12. Position of halal label on hotel products

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	66	18.38	1	66
2	Disagree	13	3.62	2	26
3	Doubtful	65	18.11	3	195
4	Agree	100	27.86	4	400
5	Strongly Agree	115	32.03	5	575
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1262
Performance			70.31		

Based on Table 12, 115 respondents (32.03%) strongly agreed that they knew the position of the halal label on hotel products. Similarly, 100 respondents (27.86%) also agreed. However, 65 (18.11%) were not sure about this, while 3.62% or 13 respondents disagreed and 18.38% or 66 respondents strongly disagreed.

With a score of 1262, the variable was deemed strong with a performance rate of 70.31%.

Easier Information and Confidence About Product Quality through Halal Label

Table 13. Easier information and confidence about product quality through halal label

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	45	12.53	1	45
2	Disagree	28	7.80	2	56
3	Doubtful	34	9.47	3	102
4	Agree	108	30.08	4	432
5	Strongly Agree	144	40.11	5	720
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1355
Performance			75.49		

With regard to the halal label on hotel products, a majority of the respondents strongly agreed (144 or 40.11%) or agreed (108 or 30.08%), that the label made it easier to get information and confidence on the quality of the product. About 34 respondents (9.47%) remained doubtful while 7.80% or 28 respondents disagreed and 12.53% or 45 respondents strongly disagreed.

This variable was deemed a strong one based on a total score of 1574 or 75.49% performance.

Purchase Decision

Quality and Halal Assurance in the Selection of Products to be Purchased

Table 14. Quality and halal assurance in the selection of products to be purchased

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	26	7.24	1	26
2	Disagree	3	0.84	2	6
3	Doubtful	38	10.58	3	114

Table 14. (con't)

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
4	Agree	98	27.30	4	392
5	Strongly Agree	194	54.04	5	970
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1508
Performance			84.01		

According to Table 14, 194 respondents (54.04%) strongly agreed that quality and halal assurance were considered in the selection of products to be purchased. An additional 98 respondents agreed (27.3%). Those who responded as being uncertain, not agreeing or strongly disagreeing were 38 (10.58%), 3 (0.84%) and 26 (7.24%), respectively. With a total score of 1508 and a performance level of 84.01%, this variable is considered as strong.

Accurate Information as a Reference Before Hotel Product Purchase

Table 15. Accurate information as a reference before hotel product purchase

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	25	6.96	1	25
2	Disagree	8	2.23	2	16
3	Doubtful	52	14.48	3	156
4	Agree	169	47.08	4	676
5	Strongly Agree	105	29.25	5	525
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1398
Performance			77.88		

Table 15 shows that a majority of respondents strongly agreed (105 or 29.25%) or agreed (169 or 47.08%) that accurate information is required as a reference before buying hotel products. However, 52 respondents (14.48%) were unsure, 8 respondents (2.23%) disagreed, and 25 respondents (6.96%) strongly disagreed. This variable is deemed strong with a total score of 1398 or 77.88%.

Halal Label Provides Information About Guarantee and Product Quality of Hotel

Table 16. Halal label and information about guarantee and product quality of hotel

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	13	3.62	1	13
2	Disagree	7	1.95	2	14
3	Doubtful	76	21.17	3	228
4	Agree	142	39.55	4	568
5	Strongly Agree	121	33.70	5	605
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1428
Performance			79.55		

With regard to the guarantee and product quality of a hotel, 121 respondents (33.70%) and 142 respondents (39.55%) strongly agreed and agreed, respectively that, the halal label provides the relevant information. However, 76 (21.17%) respondents were doubtful of this while 1.95% or 2 respondents disagreed and 3.62% or 13 respondents strongly disagreed. Nevertheless, this variable is deemed strong based on its total score of 1428 and performance level of 79.55%.

Completeness of Influential Attributes in Decision Making

Table 17. Completeness of Influential Attributes in Decision Making

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	18	5.01	1	18
2	Disagree	18	5.01	2	36
3	Doubtful	36	10.03	3	108
4	Agree	194	54.04	4	776
5	Strongly Agree	93	25.91	5	465
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1403
Performance			78.16		

Based on Table 17, 93 respondents (25.91%) strongly agreed on the completeness of influential attributes in decision making while 194 respondents (54.04%) agreed. Meanwhile, 36 respondents (10.03%) were uncertain, 5.01% or 18 respondents disagreed and 5.01% or 18 respondents strongly disagreed. With a score of 1403 and performance level of 78.16% , this variable is deemed strong.

Many Considerations Before Purchase of Hotel Product

Table 18. Many considerations before purchase of hotel product

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	63	17.55	1	63
2	Disagree	6	1.67	2	12
3	Doubtful	36	10.03	3	108
4	Agree	185	51.53	4	740
5	Strongly Agree	69	19.22	5	345
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1268
Performance			70.64		

As shown in Table 18, the majority of respondents take into account many considerations before purchasing a hotel product (19.22% or 69 respondents strongly agreed and 51.53% or 185 respondents agreed). Meanwhile, 10.03% (36 respondents) were doubtful, 1.67% or 6 respondents disagreed and 17.55% or 63 respondents strongly disagreed. This variable is deemed as strong based on its total score of 1268 (70.64%).

Difficult Purchase Decision Making Process

Table 19. Difficult purchase decision making process

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	15	4.18	1	15
2	Disagree	7	1.95	2	14
3	Doubtful	59	16.43	3	177
4	Agree	194	54.04	4	776
5	Strongly Agree	84	23.0	5	420
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1402
Performance			78.11		

With regard to making decisions on purchase, a large majority (84 respondents or 23% strongly agreed and 194 respondents or 54.04% agreed) found it difficult to make a decision as there are many considerations to take into account. However, 59 respondents were not sure (16.43%), 1.95% or 7 respondents disagreed and 4.18%

or 15 respondents strongly disagreed. With a total score of 1402 and performance rate of 78.11%, this variable is considered strong.

Other Hotel Products that Affect Purchase Decision

Table 20. Other hotel products that affect purchase decision

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	19	5.29	1	19
2	Disagree	6	1.67	2	12
3	Doubtful	75	20.89	3	225
4	Agree	201	55.99	4	804
5	Strongly Agree	58	16.16	5	290
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1350
Performance			75.21		

Based on Table 20, a large majority admitted that other hotel products influence their purchase decision (58 respondents or 16.16% strongly agreed and 201 respondents or 55.99% agreed). Respondents who responded as being uncertain were 20.89% (75 respondents). Meanwhile, 1.67% or 6 respondents disagreed and 5.29% or 19 respondents strongly disagreed. With a total score of 1350 or performance rate of 75.21%, this variable is deemed as strong.

Purchase is Proof of Confidence in the Product

Table 21. Purchase is proof of confidence in the product

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	18	5.01	1	18
2	Disagree	11	3.06	2	22
3	Doubtful	27	7.52	3	81
4	Agree	238	66.30	4	952
5	Strongly Agree	65	18.11	5	325
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1398
Performance			77.88		

According to Table 21, 65 respondents (18.11%) strongly agreed and 238 respondents (66.30%) agreed that purchase is a form of confidence in a hotel product. Nevertheless, 27 respondents (7.52%) remained doubtful while 3.06% or 11 respondents disagreed and 5.01% or 18 respondents strongly disagreed. This variable is deemed strong as it scored 1398 or 77.88%.

Product Quality Mismatch is a Problem that often Arises after Purchase of Product

Table 22. Product quality mismatch is a problem that often arises after purchase of product

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	18	5.01	1	18
2	Disagree	11	3.06	2	22
3	Doubtful	27	7.52	3	81
4	Agree	238	66.30	4	952
5	Strongly Agree	65	18.11	5	325
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1398
Performance			77.88		

Based on Table 22, a large number of respondents (65 or 18.11% strongly agreed and 238 or 66.30% agreed) admitted that product quality mismatch can happen after a purchase. However, 27 respondents or 7.52% were uncertain while 3.06% or 11 respondents disagreed and 5.01% or 18 respondents strongly disagreed. With a total score of 1398 and performance rate of 77.88%, this variable is deemed strong.

Cautious Purchase of Hotel Products due to Incompatibility with Past Hotel Products

Table 23. Cautious purchase of hotel products due to incompatibility with past hotel products

No	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Score	Frequency x Score
1	Strongly Disagree	20	5.57	1	20
2	Disagree	6	1.67	2	12
3	Doubtful	56	15.60	3	168
4	Agree	196	54.60	4	784
5	Strongly Agree	81	22.56	5	405
Total Respondents			359		
Maximum Score			1795		1398
Performance			77.38		

Table 23 shows that many of the respondents (81 or 22.56% strongly agreed and 196 or 54.6% agreed) were cautious in their purchase of hotel products due to past experience with incompatible products. However, 56 respondents or 15.6% were unsure while 1.67% or 6 respondents disagreed and 5.57% or 20 respondents strongly disagreed. With a total score of 1389 or performance level of 77.38%, this variable is deemed as strong.

Tests of Validity and Reliability

Validity test

Validity testing was carried out using the SPSS programme (Statistical Production and Service Solution) version 23.0, using the following criteria: If $R_{hitung} > R_{tabel}$, then the question is declared valid. If $R_{hitung} < R_{tabel}$, then the question is declared invalid. The questionnaire containing 13 questions regarding the independent variable of purchase decision and also the dependent variables related to Halal label at Swarna Dipa, Harper and Aston Palembang Hotels is presented in Table 24.

Table 24. Validity and reliability

	Corrected Item–Total Correlation	Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted	Status
Recognition of the Indonesian Ulema Council (MUI) logo	0.662	0.521	Valid
MUI logo on hotel product	0.654	0.521	Valid
The halal label on the product is clear	0.654	0.521	Valid
The halal label helps identify hotel products before use	0.73	0.521	Valid
Recognition of the official halal label issued by The Indonesian Ulema Council (MUI)	0.542	0.532	Valid
Halal label as a consideration in the purchase decision of hotel products	0.57	0.521	Valid
Position of halal label on hotel products	0.662	0.521	Valid
Easier information and confidence about product quality through halal label	0.691	0.521	Valid
Quality and halal assurance in the selection of products to be purchased	0.651	0.521	Valid

Table 24. (con't)

	Corrected Item–Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Status
Accurate information as a reference before hotel product purchase	0.624	0.555	Valid
Halal label provides information about guarantee and product quality of hotel	0.641	0.521	Valid
Completeness of influential attributes in decision making	0.593	0.521	Valid
Many considerations before purchase of hotel product	0.773	0.521	Valid
Difficult purchase decision making process	0.625	0.521	
Other hotel products that affect purchase decision	0.639	0.521	
Purchase is proof of confidence in the product	0.638	0.521	
Product quality mismatch is a problem that often arises after purchase of product	0.621	0.521	
Cautious purchase of hotel products due to incompatibility with past hotel products	0.598	0.521	

The Corrected Item - Total Correlation column in Table 24 refers to the correlation between the item score and the item total score that is used to test the validity of the instrument. At a significance value of 5% with degrees of freedom (df) = 13, the R table is 0.521. Based on the results, all the questions can be confirmed as valid because $R_{hitung} > R_{tabel}$ at the 5% significance level.

Reliability Test

Using the same SPSS programme, the reliability of the questions was determined using the following criteria:

- 1) If R_{alpha} is positive and greater than R_{tabel} , then the question is reliable.
- 2) If R_{alpha} is negative or less than R_{tabel} , then the question is not reliable.

Table 25. Reliability statistics

Reliability statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.766	18

Table 25 shows that the alpha coefficient for the the 13 question items, at the 5% significance level, is 0.766. As Ralpha (0.766) > Rtable (0.497), thus the questionnaire is deemed reliable as a research instrument and can be administered to respondents.

Classic Assumption Violation Test

Table 26. Multicollinearity

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients	Standardised Coefficients		T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.517	0.688	4.536	.213		
	X1	.14	0.097	0.042	0.249	0.129	3.207

Multicollinearity is a condition where there is a relationship between independent variables. If there is a perfect correlation between independent variables, the value of the variable would be equal to one. A multicollinearity disorder, that is, a multicollinearity-free regression is characterised by (Pratisto, 2004):

- VIF value < 5 (Five)
- Tolerance value that ranges from 1 (one)

Table 26 shows that the VIF value for each independent variable is <5 (five), namely 3.207. Likewise, the tolerance value also ranges within 1 (one), namely 0.129 each. Thus it can be concluded that the regression model does not experience any multicollinearity disorders.

Autocorellation

Table 27. Autocorellation

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin Watson
1	0.766	0.521	0.511	1.360	2.342

Autocorrelation is an analysis used to test whether the estimation results of a linear regression model contain a serial correlation between the disturbance error

term. This helps to detect any of autocorrelation disorders. In Table 27, the value of Durbin Watson = 2.342

DW table at alpha 0.05

n (number of respondents) = 80

k (number of independent variables) = 4

dL = 1.175, dU = 1.231.

As the DW count > dL, thus there is no autocorrelation disorder.

Data Normality

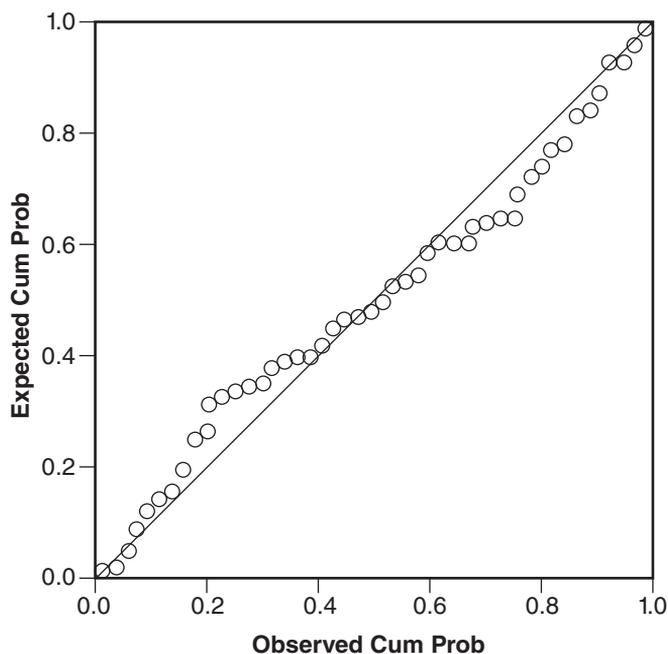


Figure 1. Data normality

The hypothesis of this study was tested using the chi-square harmony test. This test can determine whether an observed frequency (O_i) is in accordance with the expected frequency (E_i) whose distribution is close to the normal curve. Based on the curve shown in Figure 1, the points can be seen spread regularly around the Y-axis. This suggests that the data used is normal and is feasible to predict purchase decisions at Swarna Hotel Dipa, Harper, and Aston Palembang based on the halal label.

Heteroscedasticity

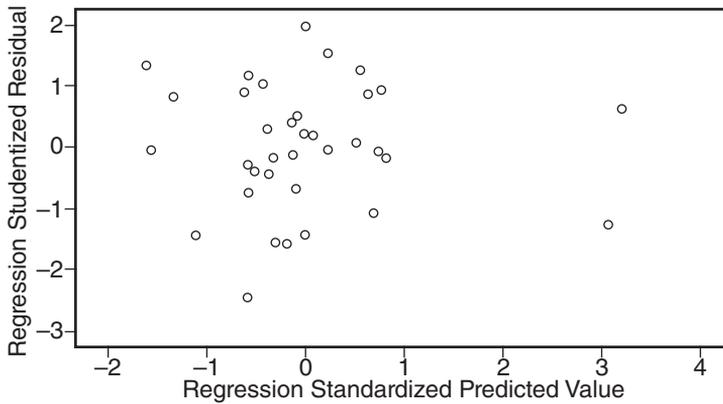


Figure 2. Heteroscedasticity

Heteroscedasticity occurs due to changes in situations that are not reflected in the regression model specifications, for example, changes in the economic structure and government policies that can result in changes in the level of data accuracy. Heteroscedasticity disorders often appear in cross-sectional data, but can also occur in time series data. Heteroscedasticity disorders can lead to a biased standard error and make the statistical test results inaccurate that the confidence level for parameter estimation also becomes less precise (Prastito, 2004).

The symptoms of heteroscedasticity can be found by looking at the scatterplot diagram pattern. If there are scatter diagrams that form certain regular patterns, the regression has a heteroscedasticity disorder. If the scatter diagram does not form a pattern or is random, then the regression does not experience any heteroscedasticity disorder (Prastito, 2004). The scatterplot in Figure 2 shows that the scatter diagram appears to be diffused and does not form any particular regular patterns. Thus, it can be concluded that this study did not experience any heteroscedasticity disorder.

Linear Regression Analysis

Table 28. Linear regression

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients	Standardised Coefficients		T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.715	0.688	4.536	.213		
	X1	.14	0.097	0.042	0.336	0.249	0.829 1.207

Linear regression analysis was carried out using the enter method as this method allows all variables to be included in the analysis to determine whether the independent variable has a positive and significant effect on the dependent variable.

Based on the print-out of SPSS coefficients, the regression equation model obtained is as follows:

$$Y = 1.715 + 0.14 X$$

From this equation, the following can be deduced:

- a. Constant (a) = 1.715, indicating a constant price, whereby if the value of the independent variable = 0, then the Purchase Decision (Y) = 1.715.
- b. The coefficient X_1 (b_1) = 0.14, indicating that the Halal Label variable (X_1) has a positive effect on Purchasing Decisions (Y). In other words, if the Halal Label variable increases by one unit, Purchase Decision will increase by 0.14.

Hypothesis Testing

*T*test

The *t*-test was carried out to test whether each of the Halal Label variable had a significant effect on the purchase decision at Swarna Dipa, Harper, and Aston Palembang Hotels.

H_0 : $b_1 = 0$, meaning the Halal Label has no significant effect on Purchase Decision.

H_a : b_1 is not equal to 0, meaning the Halal Label has a significant effect on Purchase Decision

Decision-making :

If the probability < 0.05, then H_0 is rejected

If probability > 0.05, then H_0 is accepted

The significance of X_1 is 0.249 (0.249 > 0.05). Thus, as the probability is greater than 0.05, this means that the Halal Label has a significant effect on Purchase Decision.

*F*count test

The *F*-test was conducted to test whether the Halal Label variables at Swarnadipa, Harper, and Aston Palembang Hotels have a significant influence on purchase decision. The hypothesis model used in this *F*-test is as follows:

H_0 : $b_1 = b_2 = 0$, meaning that the Halal Label together or simultaneously has no significant effect on Purchase Decision.

H_a : b_1, b_2, b_3 are not equal to 0, meaning that the Halal Label has a significant effect on Purchase Decision.

Tabel 29. Hypothesis F-Count

Model		Sum Of Squares	dF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	525.521	4	131.380	70.980	.000a
	Residual	175.839	95	1.851		
	Total	701.360	99			

Probability = 0.000,

error rate <5%.

Probability <0.05, thus H_1 is accepted.

This means that the Halal Label variables have a significant effect on Purchase Decision.

The Determinant Coefficient

Table 30. The determinant coefficient

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin Watson
1	0.766	0.720	0.711	70.980	.000a

Determinant or R² is calculated to see how much the independent variable can explain the dependent variable. In other words, the determinant coefficient is used to measure the capability of the Halal label variables at Swarna Dipa, Harper and Aston Palembang Hotels.

Based on the results of the regression analysis above, the derived value of coefficient of determination is 0.711. This indicates that the Halal label as an independent variable can explain 71.1% of purchase decisions at Swarnadipa, Harper, and Aston Palembang hotels as the dependent variable while the remaining 28.9% can be explained by other factors not included in the study.

Conclusion

Based on the findings of the present study, it can be concluded that the halal label variable can influence 71.1% of the purchase decisions at Hotel Swarna Dipa, Harper, and Aston Palembang. While the remainder 28.9% is influenced by other factors that are not included in the study.

Based on the above conclusion, the researcher recommends the following suggestions for Indonesia's hospitality industry players. Hotels that undergo the Halal Assurance System training held by the Indonesian Ulema Council can register for the halal certification that will be issued by the Institute for the Study of Food, Medicine, and Cosmetics of the Indonesian Ulema Council. Hotel management

should also give more consideration to the use of halal logos and certificates issued by the Indonesian Ulema Council in promoting their hotel products and services.

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Empirical Paper

Nutritional Information and Portion Size in Relation to Customer Purchase Behaviour

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Abstract: Healthy eating is a significant concern in public health. People who are health-conscious or have special dietary requirements prioritise nutrition and calorie consumption. Thus, many customers rely on the information on a restaurant's menu when making their purchase decisions. This study aims to investigate the relationship between nutritional information as well as portion size in restaurant menus and customer purchase decisions. A self-administered survey was conducted in the area of Shah Alam, the state capital of Selangor, Malaysia. A purposive sampling with 107 usable questionnaires was analysed using Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM). The results revealed that nutritional information and portion size in restaurant menus significantly influenced customer purchase decisions. As a consequence, restaurants face a crucial challenge in providing nutritional information and portion size in their menus in a way that gives them a competitive advantage and at the same time compels customers to make healthy eating choices.

Keywords: Nutritional information, portion size, purchase decision, restaurant menu

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Introduction

The foodservice industry in Malaysia has become more competitive in sustaining the business itself and meeting customers' demands and expectations. Malaysia is known as a "food heaven" (Astrup et al., 2000) because its multi-ethnic community has spawned various ethnic and specialty cuisines. Many restaurants create fusion food and offer attractive menus to boost sales. Some, for instance, provide a wide selection of value-for-money set menus. Fast-food restaurants offer gifts together with value meals to attract children. Restaurant operators' launch of value meal sets has led customers to consume more calories with or without their realisation. Thus, the foodservice industry can potentially harm consumers through food poisoning and other eating-related diseases (Vernarelli et al., 2016). An alarming eating-related condition is obesity, which is increasingly prevalent in Malaysia and other countries all over the world (Ministry of Health, 2006). Globally, 609 million adults were predicted to be overweight or obese in 2015, representing roughly 39% of the world population (Chooi, Ding, & Magkos, 2019). According to Young, Coppinger, and Reeves (2019), the number of overweight and obese people is increasing worldwide. The easy availability of lavish, non-nutritious foods has contributed to this prevalence of overweight and obesity in the global population.

People living in the city tend to dine out more frequently for reasons such as busy work schedules, convenience, the rising cost of ingredients, or because cooking is tedious (Glucksmann, 2014). However, at the same time, consumers with diet restrictions and who are health-conscious need more information that can influence their purchase decisions. The availability of nutritional information will enable them to make healthy food choices that are in the appropriate portion size for daily consumption (Peters & Remaud, 2020).

According to Young et al. (2019), the nutritional information in restaurant menus typically includes energy, fat, and salt content. Young et al. (2019) also discovered that 68% of children aged 2–5 years and 55% of children aged 6–12 years consumed more fat than recommended. Surprisingly, it was found that fast-food restaurant meals contained less energy, fat, and salt than full-service restaurant meals (Young et al., 2019). Besides nutritional information, it is also essential to include portion size, such as small, medium, and large (Niven et al., 2019; Roe, Kling, & Rolls, 2016) in restaurant menus.

Regardless of the type of restaurants customers choose, food consumption that meets dietary guidelines must be followed to combat overweight and other related diseases such as cardiovascular disease, hypertension, and other chronic diseases (English, Lasschujit, & Keller, 2015). This could be one of the tools to maintain health, in line with Goal 3 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) that aspires to ensure good health and well-being for all (Kukreti, Painoli & Rana, 2021). A potential contributory factor to obesity is the increased portion sizes of foods

commonly served (English et al., 2015). Hence, it is crucial to provide nutritional information and portion size on packed food and restaurant menus. Such menu labelling can serve as a tool to reduce global health risks like obesity, cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, and other related chronic diseases in order to achieve the SDG. To help consumers make healthful dietary decisions when eating at restaurants, the Malaysian Government plans to enact a nationwide menu labelling law by 2025 (Rahamat, 2019).

From our knowledge, there is limited research concerning nutritional information and portion size on restaurant menus (Long, Tobias, Craddock, Batchelder, & Gortmaker, 2015), including in Malaysia (Rahamat, 2019). Thus, this study provides valuable information in understanding how customers in the foodservice industry assess nutritional information and portion size in restaurant menus. In view of the steadily mounting number of reported cases on obesity and chronic diseases, the availability of nutritional information and portion size in restaurant menus can play a significant role in protecting public health and combatting obesity in the country. As a result, customers will become more knowledgeable about the menu items offered and, ultimately, benefit more from updated menu items that cater to changes in customer demand.

Literature Review

The term “foodservice” as Payne-Palacio and Theis (2009) noted, refers to the establishment where food is served outside. Such establishments include the various types of restaurants like cafeterias, carry-out operations, coffee shops, drugstore counters, fast-food chains, and sandwich shops; food preparation facilities such as clubs, cocktail lounges, hotels, motels, and taverns; airlines, railroad and ship operations; and institutional food services including those in schools, colleges, hospitals, industrial, military, and retirement homes. DiPietro (2017) further stated that the foodservice industry is inherent in all hospitality and tourism environments within the service context. The types of establishments can vary from fine dining restaurants to foodservice operations in lodging operations, institutional dining venues, and the current trend of using food trucks, mobile food carts, and even pop-up restaurants. The availability of a wide variety of food presents consumers with the advantage of having more choices. Due to their busy lifestyles and the constant struggle for work-life balance, Malaysians tend to opt for convenient food. As a result, the foodservice industry is expanding in the country. Besides, consumers are also looking for food that gives value for money. Other than price, consumers also demand nutritional information to assist them before making their purchases (Melo, Zhen, & Colson, 2019).

Research Model and Hypotheses Formulation

In recent years, research on consumer behaviour has become crucial for marketers to understand the purchase decision process. According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2007), consumer behaviour is a field of study that involves defining how a consumer decides to purchase a product or service, such as searching, using information, and evaluating if the product or service can meet their satisfaction based on the available resources they have such as money, effort, and time. Figure 1 shows the consumer decision-making process (Bettman, Johnson, and Payne, 1991). It starts with recognising problems, followed by searching for information, evaluating alternatives, purchasing, and post-purchase behaviour. Even though this model is presented in a linear form, the process can be iterative, whereby the consumer may continually evaluate each stage before a decision is made (Jung, Sydnor, Lee, & Almanza, 2015).

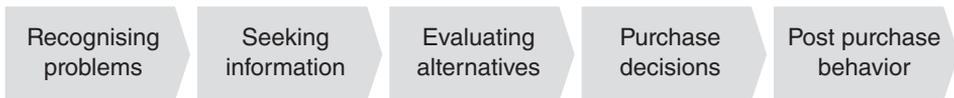


Figure 1. Decision-making process (Bettman et al.,1991)

In this study, the decision-making process is associated with nutrition labels and food content on restaurant menus, which have become an increasingly important issue due to the increasing number of people suffering from obesity-related complications (Thomas & Mills, 2006). Studies have shown that the availability of nutritional information and caloric content does stimulate changes in awareness and attitude, and could indirectly affect consumers' final consumption decisions towards healthier food choices (Cawley, Susskind, & Willage, 2020; Basak et al., 2019). Furthermore, providing nutritional labelling increases customers' willingness to pay more and make healthy food choices (Talati et al., 2017).

From the Asian perspective, a study in urban Vietnam showed that nutrition labelling programmes may be an effective policy mechanism to minimise the negative health implications related to the increasing availability and consumption of food and beverages with added sugars (Nguyen-Anh, Umberger, & Zeng, 2020). Hence, marketers can apply this concept to improve business profitability by understanding consumers' wants and needs. Lu and Gursoy (2017) emphasised that a restaurant's food menu is critical in attracting potential customers. Previous studies have established a positive relationship between providing nutritional information on food menus and the customers' choice to purchase healthy food.

Restaurant establishments that currently provide nutritional information must ensure the information does not manipulate or mislead the customer. McVety, Ware, and Ware (2001) further stated that once a restaurant makes a nutrient or health claim

regarding a menu item, it must be able to prove that claim. A nutrient claim makes a statement about the presence or absence of a nutrient in a menu item. For instance, words such as cholesterol-free, fresh, healthy, natural, low in fat, light, and reduced are commonly used on menus today. A health claim states a relationship between food items or meals and disease prevention, for example, fruits and vegetables that prevent cancer.

Moreover, Haws and Liu (2016) showed that customers view attractiveness, ease of use, and clear presentation as the most important factors relating to restaurant menus' nutritional labelling. Therefore, providing nutritional information on restaurant menus does not directly increase customers' knowledge or awareness of food content. It is interesting that even though some customers viewed the provision of nutritional content information on restaurant menus as a mere showpiece, they still considered the availability of such information as necessary (Larson, Haynos, Roberto, Loth, & Neumark-Sztainer, 2018). Rahamat (2019) found that health-conscious consumers in Malaysia have the intention to use restaurant menu labelling.

According to McVety et al. (2001), information on a restaurant menu is helpful and it is vital to classify the information into two categories: necessary information and helpful information. They noted that information that is not necessary for menu planning for a commercial foodservice operation might be essential for institutional foodservice operations. For instance, it is not crucial to know customers' sodium dietary needs when planning a menu for commercial foodservice. However, as customers become more health-conscious and concerned about their food intake, they demand to have this information included on the menu. Nonetheless, this information would be necessary when planning a patient menu in an institutional foodservice operation (McVety et al., 2001). For instance, the hospital menu for hypertension patients must be low in sodium.

As menus are designed to display information that consumers need to consider when placing food orders (Filimonau, Lemmer, Marshall, & Bejjani, 2017), informing consumers on food nutritional quality via product labels is a national-level government strategy for combatting obesity and diet-related chronic illnesses (Melo et al., 2019). According to Young et al. (2019), the information that is generally displayed on the restaurant menu is the total energy, fat, and salt content. However, Niven et al. (2019), added that it is crucial to include portion size. Portion size is generally stated as small, medium, or large.

In Malaysia, the foodservice establishments that provide nutritional information on restaurant menus include fast-food restaurants such as KFC and McDonald's. In addition, a study by McCrory, Harbaugh, Appeadu, and Roberts (2019) provided a detailed assessment of the changes over time in fast-food menu offerings over 30 years. These changes include food variety, portion size, energy, energy density, and certain micronutrients such as sodium, calcium, and iron as percentage daily values

(%DV). The study also compared the changes over time across menu categories: entrées, sides, and desserts. According to the study, the number of entrées, sides, and desserts in restaurants increased by 226% from 1986 to 2016. Except for side dishes, the portion size of entrées and desserts increased significantly at 13 g/decade and 24 g/decade, respectively. On top of that, the energy (kilocalories) and sodium content of items in all three menu categories also escalated gradually. Meanwhile, desserts showed the largest increase in energy (62 kcal/decade), and entrées had the largest sodium increase (4.6% DV/decade). Although calcium content increased significantly in entrées (1.2% DV/decade), and to a greater extent, in desserts (3.9% DV/decade), iron content increased significantly only in desserts (1.4% DV/decade). Thus, as emphasised by Peters and Remaud (2020), the important attributes influencing menu-item selection in a restaurant context are nutritional information and appropriate serving portion size.

Other restaurants like Kenny Rogers (Kenny Rogers, n.d.), or even certain mamak restaurant outlets, or hospital and university food courts display the portion size at their establishments. Customers who are health conscious or have diet restrictions will use the calorie information before purchasing the food, in addition to price considerations. Besides foodservice establishments, the jogging track or area also displays the food, portion size, and calories. Moreover, it can also suggest some exercises that can burn calories equivalent to the amount of food consumed. Technological advancements have also enabled the use of android applications to help customers make healthier food choices by providing information about portion sizes, nutritional information, and calorie count as well as suggest appropriate exercises for calorie burn. Some examples these android applications are calorie counters such as MyFitnessPal and many others. The app-based approach shows potential as an effective way to help people exercise more and establish healthier eating choices (Jimoh et al., 2018) based on nutritional quality, controlling portion size, and calorie intake.

Additionally, good nutrition can help prevent chronic diseases and increase longevity. Contrariwise, excess intake of nutrients may result in overweight and obesity, and many people in the world today are now suffering from heart disease, hypertension, and diabetes (World Health Organization, 2017; Melo et al., 2019). Due to the importance of proper nutrition for health, some countries have made it mandatory to display nutritional information to the public (Newson, van der Maas, Beijersbergen, Carlson, & Rosenbloom, 2015). For instance, in the United States, restaurants even provide calorie information brochures to customers (Dumoitier, Abbo, Neuhofer, & McFadden, 2019).

The Ministry of Health Malaysia (MOH) on 29 September 2005 amended the Food Regulations 1985 to make nutrition labelling compulsory for certain foods and regulate health and nutritional claims. Nutrition labelling is a declaration of the

nutrient level(s) on the food label and can help consumers make better food choices and adopt healthy dietary practices. The local food manufacturers and distributors must abide by Malaysia's Food Act 1983 and Food Regulations 1985, which protect the public against health hazards and fraud in the preparation, sale, and use of food (Ministry of Health Malaysia, 2006). All the nutrients in foods must be regulated by laboratories accredited by the Department of Standards under the Skim Akreditasi Makmal Malaysia (Ministry of Health Malaysia, 2006).

The MOH claims that nutrition labelling is a dominant way for the food industry to actively promote a healthy lifestyle among consumers (Ministry of Health Malaysia, 2006). Unfortunately, in Malaysia, nutrition labelling is only compulsory for food products but not for menus in foodservice outlets. However, there is an abundance of research published concerning the use of menu labelling (Bowers & Suzuki, 2014; Jeong & Ham, 2018; Larson et al., 2018; Lessa, Zulueta, Esteve, & Frigola, 2017). Although numerous studies have been carried out in the United States on foodservice providers in fast-service restaurants (Thomas & Mills, 2006), studies on full-service restaurants are limited, and even more so, studies from the Malaysian perspective. Research indicates that nutritional menu labelling provides essential information and serves as a guide before customers purchase their food. Haws and Liu (2016) emphasised that calorie and portion size information on restaurant menus provide more options and information before a purchase decision is made.

As there is limited research and inconsistent results, particularly in the Malaysian context, this study therefore aims to investigate the relationship between customers' purchase decisions and nutritional information and portion size on restaurant menus. Based on the aforementioned, the following hypotheses have been developed for this study:

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between nutritional information on a restaurant's menu and customer purchase decisions.

H2: There is a significant positive relationship between portion size on a restaurant's and customer purchase decisions.

Materials and Methods

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between nutritional information, portion size, and the purchase decision in the context of a restaurant setting rather than packed food. Prior to data collection, permission was granted by the shopping mall and restaurant management to collect the data. The respondents were informed about the objectives of the study and survey forms were distributed only upon the respondents' agreement to participate in the survey.

The sampling location of this study was targeted only in Shah Alam. Due to budget constraints, the research was focused on a particular site rather than on more areas. Furthermore, concentrating only on a limited extent in a shorter period is more cost-effective (Sekaran, 2003). Although approximately 10 restaurant managers were contacted, only three managers were allowed to collect the data from customers. The restaurant's permission for this study was granted to the researchers because the restaurant's name would not be revealed. Both parties agreed to the terms and conditions. The restaurant's capacity is approximately 30 to 50 pax at a time.

Purposive sampling was used for this study, One hundred and seven (107) full-service restaurant customers who had experience eating outside of the home were selected for this study. The respondents were approached after they had finished their lunch. The survey was conducted from Fridays to Sundays, within approximately four to five weeks.

The instruments were adapted from Foster (2005). The survey was divided into two parts: (i) demographic profile; and (ii) questions assessing the importance of nutritional information, portion size, and purchase decision. Bahasa Melayu and English were used to gather the data from the respondents. Two content experts and an English language teacher checked all the questions and translated them from English to Bahasa Melayu and vice versa. A Likert scale of one to seven was chosen. Likert scale one indicates "not important", four is "important", and seven is "extremely important". The descriptive data were analysed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 22, whereas the relationship between these variables was analysed using SmartPLS version 3.3. Thereafter, the measurement model and structural model were assessed. The internal consistency, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were also measured. An alpha score from 0.50 to 0.70 was generally accepted and considered a sensible compromise value for demonstrating the internal consistency of a reliable scale (Hinton, Brownlow, McMurray, & Cozens, 2004). However, in only a few cases, a minimum alpha score of .50 was accepted and indicated a scale of low reliability (Hinton et al., 2004). A low-reliability level of .50 was also acceptable when the factor comprised only two or three items and was theoretically meaningful with the construct's conceptualisation under investigation (Blaikie, 2003). Consequently, the recommendations of Hinton et al., (2004) were used in this study as indicators of the scale's reliability and internal consistency.

Results

The majority of respondents were females (64%), with 36% males. The highest population was Malay (84.1%), followed by Chinese (5.6%) and Indians (1.9%). The other 8.4% comprised various ethnicities, including Iranians, Filipinos, Ibans,

Indonesians, and Melanau. As to the respondents' ages, 64.5% were between 21 to 34 years old, which was the highest proportion in this study. This was followed by those aged between 35 to 44 years old (15.9%), and the lowest proportion was those aged 55 years and above (1.9%). Most of the respondents possessed a graduate degree (30.8%). However, there is no apparent difference between the number of respondents with postgraduate degree (22.4%), secondary level education (23.4%), and diploma level education (19.6%). Only 3.7 % of the customers marked primary as their level of education. Students make up the majority of this study (42.1%), with the lowest being a retiree (0.9%), and others (0.9%) who worked as factory workers, hoteliers, and salesgirls. Meanwhile, most of the respondents earned a monthly income of less than RM1,000 (38.3%), and respondents who earned more than RM7,000 monthly made up only 6.5% of the respondents. A majority of the respondents were students from nearby boarding schools, universities, and colleges. Of the respondents, 68.2% dined out once a week, and only 2.8% dined out at least five times per week. The demographic profile of the respondents is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic profile of respondents

Demographic profile	Frequency, <i>n</i> =107	Percentage (%) 100
Gender		
Male	39	36
Female	68	64
Ethnic group		
Malay	90	84.1
Chinese	6	5.6
Indian	2	1.9
Others	9	8.4
Age		
Under 21 years old	13	12.1
21–34	69	64.5
35–44	17	15.9
45–54	6	5.6
55 years and above	2	1.9
Education		
Primary	4	3.7
Secondary	25	23.4
Diploma	21	19.6
Graduate degree	33	30.8
Postgraduate degree	24	22.4
Occupation		
Student	45	42.1
Housewife	26	24.3

Table 1 (con't)

Demographic profile	Frequency, <i>n</i> =107	Percentage (%) 100
Professional	24	22.4
Self-employed	10	9.3
Retiree	1	0.9
Others	1	0.9
Monthly income		
< RM 1000	40	37.4
RM1000 to 2999	15	14.0
RM3000–4999	4	3.7
RM5000–6999	7	6.5
RM7000 and above	41	38.3
Dine-out frequency		
Fewer than 1 time per week.	6	5.6
1 time per week	73	68.2
2 times per week	14	13.1
3 times per week	7	6.5
4 times per week	4	3.7
5 or more times per week	3	2.8

Measurement Model

Figure 2 shows the research model developed for this study. The model shows that there is a relationship between nutritional information, portion size, and purchase decision. Each of the items for those constructs was further analysed. The results for the model are summarised in Tables 2, 3 and 4. The study's reflective model was assessed based on three criteria: reliability of construct, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. The construct's reliability was evaluated using composite reliability (CR), as shown in Table 2 (Roldán & Sánchez- Franco, 2012). As can be seen, the CR of all the constructs is acceptable in that it surpasses the threshold value of 0.7 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). This demonstrates that there is strong internal consistency in the measures used to operationalise this construct. Likewise, all constructs show strong convergent validity. For each construct ranging from 0.543 to 0.626, the average variance extracted (AVE) values were higher than the threshold value of 0.50, suggesting that the tests could explain more than 50 percent of the variance construct.

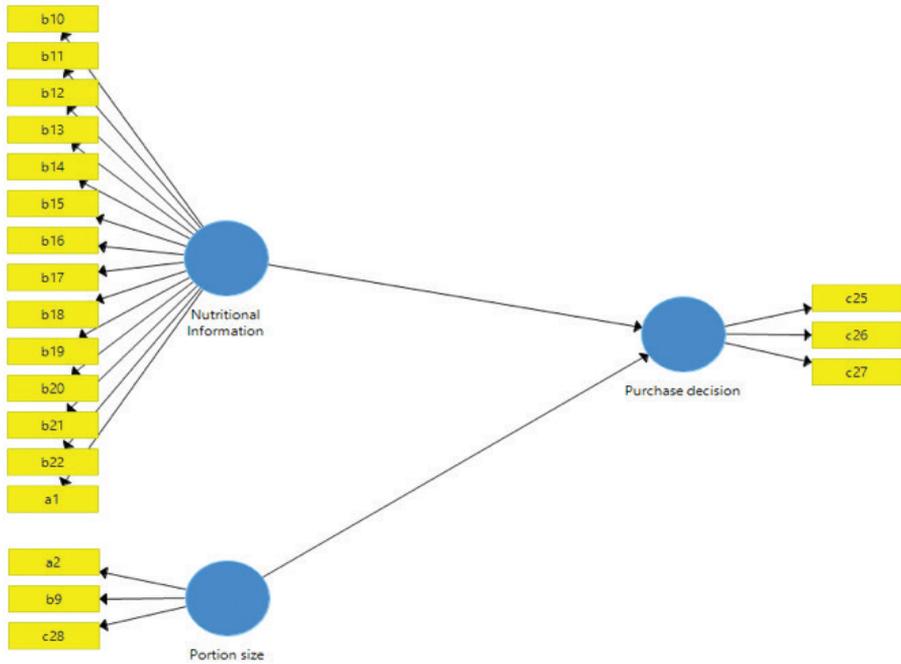


Figure 2. Research model of the study

Table 2. Measurement model

Constructs	Items	Loading	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Nutritional Information (NI)	a1	0.351	0.946	0.956	0.626
	b10	0.820			
	b11	0.840			
	b12	0.848			
	b13	0.883			
	b14	0.868			
	b15	0.825			

The Fornell-Larcker criterion was used to evaluate the discriminant validity (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). As seen in Table 3, the square roots of AVE are greater than the off-diagonal elements in the corresponding row and column (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 3. Fornell-Larcker criterion

Items	Nutritional information	Portion size	Purchase decision
Nutritional information	0.791		
Portion size	0.459	0.737	
Purchase decision	0.438	0.674	0.765

Structural Model

Next, the hypotheses that were developed needed to be tested. The collinearity was also examined, and the result revealed that the variance inflation factor (VIF) values were acceptable, which was 1.265, that is, below 3.3 as set by Diamantopoulos & Siguaw (2006). The VIF result is shown in Table 4. Therefore, there was no multicollinearity in this study. After the bootstrap was run, the path coefficients' result was obtained, as shown in Table 4. A relationship between nutritional information and purchase decision was observed ($\beta = 0.164, p < 0.033$). The relationship between portion size and purchase decision was also established ($\beta = 0.599, p < 0.00$). Overall, nutritional information and portion size explained 47% of the variance of the purchase decision. As shown in Table 4, the effect size f^2 was evaluated to assess nutritional information substantive effect on the purchasing decision portion size. Per the rule of thumb set by Cohen (1988), the effect size values were: 0.02 (small), 0.15 (medium), and 0.35 (large). This study revealed that nutritional information has a small effect on purchase decision (0.041), but portion size was found to have a large effect on purchase decision (0.541). The blindfolding procedure was performed with an omission distance of seven to determine the predictive relevance of this study. The results revealed that the Q2 (0.237) value was larger than 0, indicating that this model has medium predictive relevance based on Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2017)'s rule of thumb. The value 0.02 was considered small, 0.15 considered medium, and 0.35 considered large.

Table 4. Hypothesis testing

Hypothesis	Std. Beta	Std. Error	t-value	p-value	f^2	VIF	LL	UL
H1 Nutritional information > Purchase decision	0.164	0.077	2.134	0.033	0.041	1.265	0.022	0.320
H2 Portion size > Purchase decision	0.599	0.070	8.557	0.000	0.541	1.265	0.410	0.707

t-value > 1.96 = significant, p-value < 0.05 = significant

Discussion

To reiterate, the objectives of this study are to investigate how restaurant customers use the nutritional information and portion size on restaurant menus in making their meal purchase decisions. The Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) path analysis results showed significant results for testing hypotheses. In reference to H1, the results indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between nutritional information on a restaurant menu and customer purchase decisions. In reference to H2, the results also indicate a significant positive relationship between portion size in a restaurant's menu and customer purchase decisions.

Previous research has found that menu labelling, such as nutritional information (Nguyen-Anh et al., 2020; Basak et al., 2019; Rahamat, 2019) and portion size (Peters & Remaud, 2020; Haws & Liu, 2016; English et al., 2015), has a substantial effect on consumers' purchase decisions. Accordingly, this study discovered that the nutritional information and portion size provided in a full-service restaurant's menu affect customers' judgement at the "evaluating alternatives" stage in the decision-making process as outlined by Bettman, et al. (1991). If this information is absent, consumers will strive to estimate the food's nutritional content (König et al., 2019).

Niven et al. (2019) stated that menu labelling encouraged customers to make healthier food selections while dining out. The authors added that holistic information on the restaurant menu (i.e., energy, saturated fat, total fat, total salt, total sugar, protein, fruits, vegetables, and fiber content) is crucial. Even the calorie count in terms of kilojoule (kJ) labelling significantly assists customers to make healthy food choices (Niven et al., 2019), thus aligning with the SDG's Goal 3 of achieving good health and well-being for all. Governments all over the world, whether in Western, European, or Asian countries, are actively promoting a healthy lifestyle to prevent obesity and other chronic diseases such as cardiovascular diseases, cancer, and diabetes. Therefore, it is suggested that this information should be displayed on restaurant menus as one method of intervention to help customers make healthier food choices (Nguyen-Anh et al., 2020; Lo, King, & Mackenzie, 2017; Samoggia et al., 2020). The Malaysian Government plans to enforce menu labelling by 2025 (Rahamat, 2019). In line with the move, this study postulates that Malaysians need such information before the legislation is implemented as it will defeat the purpose if the public ignores the legislation upon implementation. Thus, to improve the quality of life and be healthy, more parties need to aspire and take steps to achieve the SDG Goal 3.

Following from this study, it is suggested that more research be conducted to discover the preferable menu labelling to be displayed on restaurant menus to help customers make healthier food choices. Furthermore, other researchers can replicate this study by enlarging the sample size. It is also suggested that qualitative research be conducted to gauge menu labelling and customer purchasing behaviour. Further

study should be undertaken to precisely discover the other types of nutritional information and portion size that need to be included in a restaurant menu, and how to best present the information (e.g., in pictorial form, such as logo, figure/percentage, colour coding), or any other related information. All this information is pertinent to meet customer demand and boost restaurant sales. At the same time, public health issues related to overweight and obesity can be tackled as this information can become a tool for consumers to make healthier food choices and attain a better quality of life.

Conclusion

Overall, the results of this study show a significant positive relationship between nutritional information as well as portion size on the restaurant menu, and customers' purchase decisions. At the same time, this study has also established these relationships in the Malaysian context. In light of Goal 3 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) that aspires to good health and well-being for all, the findings of this study provide evidence that customers rate it as necessary for nutritional information to be made available on restaurant menus. Such information helps them make healthier food choices in relation to packed food and extends to the restaurant setting. In addition, customers reported that it is crucial to include information about portion size on restaurant menus. Thus, it is highly recommended that a combination of nutritional information and portion size be made available on restaurant menus.

The implications of this study contribute to the existing body of knowledge and enhances society by enabling consumers to make healthy food choices. The information from studies such as this, when put into practice, complements the Government's effort and that of the relevant authorities to combat public health issues such as preventing obesity and other diseases arising from low nutritional intake. This kind of information is crucial and can be used to reduce the prevalence of global health risks like obesity, cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, and other related chronic diseases to achieve Goal 3 of the SDG.

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Conceptual Paper

Conceptualising the Brand-Image Loyalty Model for a Destination

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Abstract: The literature on destination brand loyalty has overlooked the causal association between two dimensions of destination brand image (i.e., cognitive image, affective image) and four dimensions of destination brand loyalty, that is, cognitive loyalty (COGL), affective loyalty (AFL), conative loyalty (CONL), and action or behavioural loyalty (AL/BL). This conceptual paper posits a robust Brand Image-Loyalty for a Destination (BILD) model by reviewing past studies. The main purpose of this paper was to measure destination brand loyalty by using attitudinal and behavioural destination brand loyalty dimensions. This paper also proposes the mediating effect of destination attitudinal loyalty (DAL) on the causal association between destination brand image and destination behavioural loyalty (DBL), based on the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA). By examining a destination with the proposed BILD model of this conceptual paper, destination marketing managers would become more aware of how tourists develop a brand image and become loyal to the destinations being marketed. By having an insight into the perception of tourists towards their destination, the managers could devise marketing strategies accordingly.

Keywords: Affective image, affective loyalty, behavioural loyalty, cognitive image, cognitive loyalty, conative loyalty

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Introduction

Travel and tourism is among the largest economic sectors in the world. Travel and tourism has become an engine for economic development and a source for cultural sharing and mutual understanding. Statistics from the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC) has shown that world destinations earned more than USD8.8

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trillion from both domestic and international tourism in the year 2018 (WTTC, 2019), whereas the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) has revealed that international tourism receipts amounted to USD1.7 trillion (UNWTO, 2019). A destination is a place that visitors decide to visit, and is central to their decision in taking the tour (UNWTO, 2007). Destination branding is a process in which destination marketing managers develop a personality or a distinguished uniqueness and an identity for a destination, and convey this to tourists using a name, logo, sign, or symbol, or even a combination of those elements, in order to create a positive image (Lee, Cai, & O'Leary, 2006). The objective of destination branding is to offer both experiential (how tourists feel by visiting a destination) and symbolic (the extrinsic advantages of a destination, such as cost, user imagery, and use imagery) benefits in an integrated way (Keller, 1993).

In modern tourism, destination branding has become an integral part of destination management (Tsaur, Yen, & Yan, 2016). Destination marketing managers are devising marketing strategies to attract more tourists and retain existing ones, in view of achieving more tourism receipts and market share. Branding plays a crucial role in influencing all types of target customers, and helps brand managers and marketing managers to focus on the relevance of their brands to the preference of their target market (Keller, 2013). For practising brand managers, a brand is not just a name, symbol, term, design, or sign; rather, branding is the creation of an adequate level of awareness, distinction, and repute in the marketplace (Keller, 2013). To create a successful and powerful brand, Keller (1993) introduced his famous Customer-Based Brand Equity (CBBE) model with five dimensions, namely brand loyalty, brand perceived quality, brand awareness, brand image, and brand equity. Konecnik and Gartner (2007) presented the same model in a destination context, that is, CBBE for Tourist Destination (CBBETD). Tourists normally rely on the image of a destination in their decision making (Mihailovich, 2006). Therefore, this conceptual paper highlights the nature and relationship between two important dimensions of the CBBETD model: destination brand image and destination brand loyalty.

Brand loyalty is of paramount importance to organisations today. Loyal customers can lead to increased profits and market share for the organisations. If organisations ignore brand loyalty, they may face challenges in retaining their existing customers (Aziz, Jusoh, & Amlus, 2017). Consequently, managing and increasing customer loyalty is of strategic importance for organisations (Zhang, Fu, Cai, & Lu, 2014). Customers who are loyal (1) form an intention to repurchase, (2) show commitment towards the brand by not purchasing items from other brands, (3) increase the consumption of the same brand, (4) recommend the brand to others, (5) purchase more and different products of the same company, and (6) endorse the company as a favoured supplier of products they want (Agyei & Kilika, 2014). This conceptual paper considers destination loyalty as a multidimensional construct

as per the loyalty theory introduced by Oliver (1997). This theory has been given limited attention by most researchers in the literature of the tourism sector, especially in a destination context. Oliver was one of the few scholars who examined loyalty as a multidimensional construct, and proposed four dimensions: (1) cognitive loyalty (COGL), (2) affective loyalty (AFL), (3) conative loyalty (CONL), and (4) action loyalty (AL) or behavioural loyalty (BL). Li and Petrick (2008) maintained that the first three dimensions of loyalty given by Oliver collectively formed attitudinal loyalty, based on the Tripartite Theory. Based on these findings, destination loyalty can be examined along with two other dimensions: destination attitudinal loyalty (DAL) and destination behavioural loyalty (DBL). The multidimensional concept of loyalty proposed by Oliver in 1997 is a thorough and complete assessment of the construct (Harris & Goode, 2004). In their study, Jones and Taylor (2007) examined the multidimensional nature of service loyalty and argued that researchers now consider loyalty as a multidimensional construct.

Researchers have identified many antecedents of loyalty, such as image (Back, 2005; Bianchi & Pike, 2011; Song, Su, & Li, 2013), awareness (Chi, Yeh, & Yang, 2009), satisfaction (Chitty, Ward, & Chua, 2007), salience (Bianchi & Pike, 2011), and commitment (Aurier & Séré de Lanauze, 2012). This conceptual paper is limited to highlighting the effect of destination image as an antecedent of destination loyalty. Brand image of a destination directly affects visitors' perception of value and revisit intentions (Jo, Wolfe, Hodur, & Leistriz, 2013). Tourists select destinations that have a strong brand image, and it also influences the post-visit behaviour of tourists (Naidoo, Ramseook-Munhurrin, & Durbarry, 2012). Moreover, Bosnjak (2010) contended that the first step of tourism research should be to measure destination image. According to Echtner and Ritchie (1993), it was necessary to consider multiple dimensions of the image when assessing a destination image. Due to the multidimensional nature and importance of destination image, this paper is proposing the two dimensions of destination image as antecedents of destination brand loyalty.

Past studies have focused on measuring the causal association between many antecedents of loyalty, thus have overlooked the investigation of mediating variables between the two dimensions of destination brand image and DBL, which could enhance or reduce tourists' loyalty. To highlight such a mediating role, this conceptual paper aims to highlight the mediating role of DAL that might influence DBL in a destination context.

Competition in the tourism industry is increasing significantly, as destination marketing managers are devising marketing strategies to attract more and more tourists. Hence, creating and managing a favourable destination image has become an essential aspect of destination positioning and differentiation. Dann (1996) proposed a framework of destination image analysis, where he maintained that tourists

formed an image of a destination at the cognitive, affective, and conative levels. Madden, Rashid, and Zainol (2016) claimed that current tourism studies agreed with the destination image framework introduced by Dann. Many definitions of the image also suggest that it has both cognitive as well as affective aspects (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997). While devising marketing strategies, destination marketers should keep in focus the three elements of destination image, namely cognitive, affective, and conative images. By doing so, benefits such as the liveliness, accessibility, and emotional benefits of the destination can be incorporated while devising destination branding strategies (Hosany, Ekinici, & Uysal, 2007). Destination marketing managers should consider both the cognitive and affective dimensions while measuring the destination image. These dimensions should also be considered when they design advertising campaigns, so as to transfer the features and benefits of their destination to local and international tourists (Quintal, Phau, & Polczynski, 2014). Therefore, this conceptual paper considers both cognitive and affective image components as antecedents of destination brand loyalty in a destination context. Based on the discussion above, this paper intends to examine destination brand image with its two dimensions, and destination brand loyalty with its four dimensions in a single integrated model, that is, the Brand Image-Loyalty for a Destination (BILD) model (see Figure 1). The integrated model will help destination marketing managers to uncover the aspects that could lead to the development of destination loyalty by looking into the perceived destination brand image.

Previous studies have found that tourists normally visited destinations which have a positive image. Bosnjak (2010), for example, emphasised that the first step in destination research should be the measurement of its image. Further, Mohamad, Ali, Ab Ghani, Abdullah, and Mokhlis (2012) also suggested that, to manage the competitiveness of the tourism industry and to increase market share, destination marketing managers should have a good understanding of destination image and destination loyalty. This is also the reason Taşkin, Karadamar, and Öztürk (2018) proposed the importance of knowing the factors behind destination loyalty. Empirical studies using the proposed model of this conceptual paper will also contribute to attaining the four sustainable development goals (SDGs) of the United Nation (UN), viz. “No Poverty”, “Zero Hunger”, “Quality Education”, and “Life on Land”.

Key Constructs and Measurement

Destination Brand Loyalty

Loyalty is defined by Oliver (2014, p. 432) as “a deeply held commitment to rebuy or re-patronise a preferred product or service consistently in the future, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour”. Loyalty is the customers’ choice of one particular brand over another,

based on information and knowledge or their recent experience with the brand which resulted in them liking it and developing the commitment to repurchase (Oliver, 1999). A customer will be loyal towards a brand when he or she passionately wants to repurchase the brand and does not even consider any other brands. Additionally, if a customer prefers a particular brand to the extent of ignoring the features and price of other competitive brands, then such a customer is deemed the ultimate loyal customer (Oliver, 1997). Brand loyalty is a significant matter for organisations of today. It is something customers of an organisation show towards the organisation's brand, activities, or services. As a concept, brand loyalty has its roots in Consumer Behaviour Theory. Hence, brand loyalty can be considered a blend of attitudes and behaviours of consumers. The attitude part of loyalty includes the intention to repurchase, to increase the consumption of the same brand, to show commitment towards the brand by not purchasing any other brands, and to recommend the brand to others. Meanwhile, the action or behavioural part of loyalty includes endorsing the same company as a favoured brand and purchasing more and different products of the company (Agyei & Kilika, 2014). Loyal customers can lead to an increase in the profits and market share of an organisation. On the other hand, if the aspect of brand loyalty is ignored by organisations, they may face challenges in retaining their existing customers. Moreover, retaining existing customers is less costly than attracting and gaining new ones (Aziz et al., 2017). By having loyal customers, companies can gain a higher market share and reduce their operating costs. Profits can be increased from 25% to 75% through improving customer retention by just 5%. In fact, the cost of attracting a new customer is five times more than the cost of keeping the loyalty of a current customer (Tu, Wang, & Chang, 2012).

Brand loyalty studies can be classified into two perspectives, that is, the traditional approach and multidimensional approach. Under the traditional approach, there are three sub-approaches: the behavioural approach, attitudinal approach, and composite approach (Suhartanto, 2011). The multidimensional approach of loyalty has four sub-approaches: COGL, AFL, CONL, and AL/BL (Oliver, 1997). Most early loyalty studies have deemed the behavioural approach as unidimensional and considered loyalty as the act of repeat purchasing (Li & Petrick, 2008). From the behavioural approach, a customer who consistently purchases the same brand is considered a loyal customer. The disadvantage of this approach is the difficulty of influencing the repeat purchase behaviour of customers. This is because the purchase is random rather than rational and the company does not know the causes of the customers' loyalty (Odin, Odin, & Valette-Florence, 2001). Dick and Basu (1994) and Odin et al. (2001) argued that using the behavioural approach alone was not enough to measure loyalty, while the attitudinal loyalty of customers was also important. By measuring attitudinal loyalty, the intensity of the loyalty towards a brand can be identified using an interval scale. Researchers have examined behavioural loyalty

using a nominal scale which indicates loyalty or disloyalty. The measure of attitudinal loyalty using an interval scale helps to prevent a certain amount of criticism as compared to behavioural loyalty.

The use of an interval scale facilitates data collection because it is based on the degree of loyalty, not on dichotomous data which only indicates loyalty or disloyalty. Hence, instead of merely knowing whether a customer is loyal or not, the intensity of that loyalty can also be measured. This interval scale data can be used for more in-depth analysis, such as for predicting the future behaviour of customers (Odin et al., 2001). Similarly, a positive attitude towards a brand can be used to predict or explain the purchase behaviour of customers (Bennett & Rundle-Thiele, 2002). However, there are also criticisms on attitudinal loyalty measures. Researchers criticised its deficiency in explaining actual purchase behaviour (Bennett & Rundle-Thiele, 2002). This discussion leads to the conclusion that customers who have attitudinal loyalty towards a brand will not necessarily buy products under the brand. For this reason, attitudinal loyalty alone is also not sufficient for measuring brand loyalty (Suhartanto, 2011).

Measuring loyalty with only one aspect, either behavioural or attitudinal, will result in a false measure of attitudinal or behavioural loyalty (Kim, Morris, & Swait, 2008). Researchers recommend a composite loyalty approach that incorporates both behavioural and attitudinal loyalty for measuring customer loyalty. Both aspects of repeat purchase intention and the intention to recommend are needed for loyalty (Berkowitz, 1978; Dick & Basu, 1994). A two-dimensional concept of loyalty was proposed by Day (1969) which suggested that behavioural and attitudinal dimensions should be considered simultaneously in measuring loyalty. Day claimed that regular purchase behaviour only established by a positive attitude towards a brand. Following this is the loyalty equation proposed by Day in 1969, as follows:

$$L = P [B]/A$$

Where,

L = Customer's loyalty towards a brand

$P[B]$ = Frequency of customer's purchases

A = A reliable attitude

Actual loyalty occurs when customers are highly involved and committed (i.e., having a positive attitude), as well as frequently purchase the brand. However, customers with a low attitude, but a high purchase frequency, would be spuriously loyal towards the brand. Back (2005) argued that, although many researchers have stressed the advantages of a composite loyalty approach in measuring the level of brand loyalty, using the composite measurement involves many risks, such as inappropriate multiplication of behavioural and attitudinal attributes, selection of

insufficient items, lack of proper theoretical support, and dismissal of the impact of mediating variables.

Based on the discussion above, it can be said that the traditional approach is insufficient in explaining loyalty properly. Therefore, newer studies have emphasised the multidimensional approach of loyalty measurement. Oliver (1997) was among the first scholars to examine loyalty as a multidimensional construct, and proposed four dimensions of loyalty which are COGL, AFL, CONL, and AL/BL. According to Oliver, apart from the repurchase of a brand, a loyal customer would also resist the marketing efforts of competing brands. Hence, true loyalty occurs when customers repurchase a particular brand consistently and ignore the features, benefits, and prices of other competing brands. The multidimensional concept given by Oliver (1997) indicated that loyalty was not just a dichotomous or an attitudinal approach, or a combination of both, but rather a sequential process. According to Oliver (2014), loyalty develops in phases where customers become truly loyal towards a brand.

Destination Brand Image

Destination brand image is a critical building block of the CBBETD model. Brand image is defined as “the perception of consumers about a brand due to their strong associations with it” (Keller, 2013, p. 72). In consumer behaviour research, brand image has been given much emphasis. The perception of a brand in the minds of customers entails the image of the brand. It is mainly a subjective phenomenon, shaped through logical or emotional interpretations. It cannot be added to the brand in the same way that features and benefits are added; rather, brand image is created and moulded by marketing efforts. In the creation of brand image, the perception of reality outweighs the reality itself. Moreover, brand image comprises attitudes, feelings, and a set of ideas that customers have about certain brands (Dobni & Zinkhan, 1990). Dobni and Zinkhan (1990) highlighted many past studies that have considered brand image as an attitude.

Destination image is defined as “the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a destination” (Crompton, 1979). Destination brand image was defined by Hunt (1975) as “an individual’s overall perception or the total set of impressions of a place”. That is why Hankinson (2005) contended that previous studies have used destination image and destination brand image as substitutes of each other. On the other hand, Ekinci (2003) highlighted a difference between the two terms. Ekinci maintained that destination image consists only of cognitive evaluation (e.g., knowledge, beliefs) of a destination, whereas destination brand image constitutes both the cognitive and affective evaluations (e.g., feelings, liking, attachment) of tourists. This conceptual paper is proposing the measurement of destination image using two dimensions, which are cognitive image and affective image. As such, the term destination brand image will be used, instead of destination image.

Konecnik and Gartner (2007) examined the CBBE model in a destination context and found a vital contribution of destination brand image in the evaluation of a destination by tourists. For this reason, destination brand image should not be neglected in destination branding research. A positive image is key to attract visitors and to prompt a revisit to the destination. The brand image of a destination directly affects the visitors' perception of value and their intention to revisit (Jo et al., 2013). It is acknowledged that brand image influences tourists' pre-purchase decision making and has a positive impact on visit behaviour. Tourists often select destinations with a strong brand image. For the positioning of a destination in a highly competitive environment, brand image plays a pivotal role (Naidoo et al., 2012).

A successful organisation recognises a strong brand image as a competitive advantage over its competitors. It will boost its overall credibility and reputation, which ultimately converts into customer loyalty (Latif, Islam, & Mohamad, 2015). The assessment and measurement of destination image are among the most frequently selected topics in various studies. The main purpose of destination image studies is to know the significance of destination image in influencing the travel destinations of visitors. The satisfaction or dissatisfaction of visit decisions is mainly determined by the expectation of the visitors, their previous image, and how they perceive the performance of the destination. Destination marketers need to know the image of destinations, in order to devise effective marketing strategies. Destination image is a significant factor in predicting the visitors' behaviour. Changes in the image during actual travel experience can affect the visitors' travel behaviour (Chon, 1990). Many studies have identified various dimensions of brand image. For example, Dann (1996) maintained that tourists form an image of a destination on the cognitive, affective, and conative levels. Destination image affects the behaviour of tourists pre-visit, during the visit, and post-visit. The destination image is, therefore, an important element of successful destination and marketing management (Tasci & Gartner, 2007). In their study, Zhang et al. (2014) carried out an extensive literature review and reported that tourists' loyalty was strongly affected by the overall destination image. Second, the overall image is the affective image which has more influence on tourist loyalty than the cognitive image. Triantafyllidou, Yannas, and Lappas (2019) examined only the cognitive element of destination image on the intention to revisit, and recommended the study of other elements of destination image and their interrelations in future research.

Madden et al. (2016) claimed that current tourism studies agree with the findings of Dann (1996), who proposed a framework for destination image analysis. For the evaluation of destination image, it is necessary to consider multiple components or dimensions of the image, which means that destination image is a multidimensional construct (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993). Many definitions of the image suggest that it has both cognitive as well as affective aspects (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997). The

hierarchical and interrelated destination image components are the main drivers of the attitude formation towards a certain destination (Gartner, 1994). According to Beerli and Martín (2004), the combination of the cognitive and affective dimensions of destination image enhances a composite or an overall image. This image can be positive as well as negative.

The Relationship Among the Constructs

Destination Cognitive Image

According to Gartner (1994), the sum of attitudes and beliefs of tourists is the cognitive element of the image towards a destination. This image component helps tourists to understand the level of features and benefits provided by a destination. The information received by visitors from outside sources helps them to form their cognitive image of a destination. The cognitive component will assist them in shortlisting destinations at the initial level. Baloglu and McCleary (1999) also stated that the cognitive component of an image entails the knowledge and beliefs of customers regarding the destination's attributes. Oliver (1999) argued that customers become loyal at every phase of attitude (image). This means that when the customers develop their cognitive image, they subsequently become cognitively loyal. As the cognitive image is based on the knowledge and beliefs of an object, the customer will become cognitively loyal when he or she has positive beliefs and knowledge which support the preference of a certain brand over its rivals (Harris & Goode, 2004). Researchers found that the cognitive component of an image is an antecedent of the affective image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Gartner, 1994). Visitors decide on a destination by developing their knowledge and beliefs, based on the information derived about that particular destination. Visitors develop their affective image of a destination by liking and becoming attached to that destination. Chiu, Zeng, and Cheng (2016), Agapito, Oom do Valle, and da Costa Mendes (2013), and Baloglu and McCleary (1999) found a positive and direct effect of cognitive image on the affective component. Earlier studies also reported a significant effect of cognitive image on loyalty. For example, Zhang et al. (2014) found a positive and direct causal association between the cognitive image of the destination and attitudinal loyalty. Çoban (2012) reported the same results between cognitive image and loyalty.

Based on the preceding discussion, this conceptual paper proposes that:

P1: Destination cognitive image has a significant and direct causal association with the destination's affective image.

P2: Destination cognitive image has a significant and direct causal association with destination cognitive loyalty.

Destination Affective Image

The second component of an image is the affective image. Tourists' attachment, feelings, or liking towards a destination is the affective component of an image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). The affective component of destination image becomes active when tourists start evaluating and shortlisting certain destinations (Gartner, 1994). Oliver (1999) maintained that, when customers develop their affective image, they subsequently become affectively loyal. Evidence from previous studies found a significant relationship between affective image and loyalty. Iordanova (2017) found that the destination's cognitive image was less influential than its affective image component on tourists' loyalty. Meanwhile, Chiu et al. (2016) found a significant and positive relationship between affective image and loyalty. Mody, Day, Sydnor, Lehto, and Jaffé (2017) reported a positive and significant causal association between affective image and attitudinal loyalty, while Han and Hyun (2012) found a positive and direct causal association between an image and affective loyalty.

Based on the preceding discussion, this conceptual paper proposes that:

P3: A destination's affective image has a significant and direct causal association with destination affective loyalty.

P4: A destination's affective image has a significant and direct causal association with action or behavioural loyalty.

Destination Cognitive Loyalty

Oliver (1997) was among the first scholars who examined loyalty as a multidimensional construct. According to Oliver (2014), loyalty develops in four phases. The first three loyalty phases combine and form attitudinal loyalty. After passing through all four loyalty phases, a customer becomes truly loyal to a brand. A customer develops loyalty in a cognitive sense during the first phase, where information about the brand pushes or drives him or her to prefer a particular brand more. The customer can purchase another brand at any time by becoming cognitively loyal to a competing brand (Oliver, 2014). A customer will become cognitively loyal when he or she has positive beliefs and knowledge which support his or her preference of a certain brand over its competitors (Harris & Goode, 2004). When a customer becomes cognitively loyal, he or she becomes affectively loyal in the next phase. The researcher found a significant relationship between cognitive loyalty and affective loyalty. Similarly, Kang, Tang, and Lee (2015), Back (2005), and Back and Parks (2003) also found a significant, positive, and direct causal association between cognitive loyalty and affective loyalty.

On the basis of the preceding discussion, this conceptual paper proposes that:

P5: Destination cognitive loyalty has a significant and direct causal association with destination affective loyalty.

Destination Affective Loyalty

A customer develops affective loyalty towards a brand after becoming cognitively loyal in the second phase, that is, by having an emotional connection to the brand (Oliver, 2014). Affective loyalty reveals a positive attitude or liking towards a brand and the acquiring of satisfaction after using the brand (Harris & Goode, 2004). When a customer purchases a brand based on cognitive loyalty, he or she develops affective loyalty by becoming satisfied with the performance of the brand (Back & Parks, 2003). Customers will become affectively loyal when they develop an affective attitude towards a brand, since customers become loyal at every phase of attitude (Oliver, 1999). This phase of loyalty does not guarantee the true loyalty of customers towards the brand, although it may be a starting point (Oliver, 2014). When visitors feel attached to a destination, they become conatively loyal in the next phase by developing a commitment towards the destination and having the intention to revisit as well as to recommend the said destination to others. Earlier studies found a significant relationship between affective loyalty and conative loyalty. Kang et al. (2015), Han and Hyun (2012), Back (2005), and Back and Parks (2003) reported a significant and direct causal association between affective loyalty and conative loyalty.

Based on the preceding discussion, this conceptual paper proposes that:

P6: Destination affective loyalty has a significant and direct causal association with destination conative loyalty.

Destination Conative Loyalty

The third phase of loyalty is conative loyalty, where customers form their brand-specific intentions or commitment towards a certain brand (Oliver, 2014). This commitment or intention to rebuy is similar to motivation and the customers' wish to repurchase the brand (Oliver, 1999). This phase of loyalty, however, does not ensure the actual action. To become truly loyal to a brand, one has to go beyond the first three phases of loyalty (Oliver, 2014). When visitors form their intentions or commitment to visit a destination, they will then actually visit that destination in the final stage. Past studies, such as that of Kandampully and Hu (2007) and Chitty et al. (2007), used the commitment or intentions of customers towards a brand as a criterion in assessing loyalty. Very few destination studies have examined loyalty using the four dimensions. In the fourth and last phase of loyalty, a customer is ready to act, and this is called action or behavioural loyalty. The intention or commitment to rebuy in the preceding loyalty phases switches to the readiness to act. This readiness is strengthened by the wish to circumvent any obstacles that may stop the act. When customers are ready to take action or act, there will then be a confirmed purchase. A continuation of this state will facilitate a repurchase of the brand (Oliver,

2014). This phase of loyalty depends on the information of other competitive brands that the customers derive. This information, coupled with trial and persuasion from competitors, can also challenge this loyalty phase (McMullan & Gilmore, 2003). Evidence from past studies found a significant relationship between conative loyalty and action or behavioural loyalty. For example, Han and Hyun (2012) and Back and Parks (2003) found a significant and positive effect of conative loyalty on action or behavioural loyalty.

Based on the preceding discussion, this conceptual paper proposes that:

P7: Destination conative loyalty has a significant and direct causal association with destination action loyalty.

Destination Attitudinal Loyalty

Attitudinal loyalty is the commitment or intention to rebuy a brand (Oliver, 1999). Li and Petrick (2008) conducted a study in the cruise line industry to investigate brand loyalty. Using the four phases of loyalty (Oliver, 2014), the authors proposed that the first three phases collectively formed attitudinal loyalty, based on the Tripartite Theory. This attitudinal loyalty then converts into action or behavioural loyalty. In their study, Jones and Taylor (2007) argued that researchers now consider loyalty as a multidimensional construct. According to Oliver (1999), attitudinal loyalty was the commitment or intention to rebuy which is similar to motivation and the wish to repurchase a brand. This concept of attitudinal loyalty is similar to the concept of intention that was introduced by Ajzen (1991), who stated that intentions are like expressing motivation which concludes a behaviour. Meanwhile, the behavioural part of loyalty includes purchasing more and different products of the same company and endorsing the company as a favoured supplier of products that they (the customers) want (Agyei & Kilika, 2014). With this concept of attitudinal loyalty, destination attitudinal loyalty (DAL) fully justifies its candidacy as a mediating variable in the relationship between destination image and destination behavioural loyalty (DBL), based on the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA). In their study, Back and Parks (2003) examined loyalty along with its four dimensions in the hotel industry, and found a significant mediating effect of attitudinal loyalty in the relationship between customer satisfaction and customer behavioural loyalty.

On the basis of the preceding discussion, this conceptual paper proposes that:

P8: Destination attitudinal loyalty mediates the relationship between the destination's overall image and destination behavioural loyalty.

Conclusion

This conceptual paper provides a review of literature on customer image and loyalty in the tourism field. Based on this review, this paper developed eight propositions for the direct and indirect relationships between the two dimensions of destination image and the four dimensions of destination brand loyalty. Additionally, based on these propositions, this paper posits a destination brand image-loyalty model dubbed the Brand Image-Loyalty for a Destination (BILD) model, as shown in Figure 1. According to this conceptual model, the relationship between the two dimensions of destination image and the four dimensions of destination brand loyalty postulates that the components of destination cognitive and affective images lead to destination cognitive and affective loyalties, respectively. Furthermore, the first three dimensions of destination loyalty collectively form destination attitudinal loyalty (DAL), based on the Tripartite Theory. In addition, DAL mediates the relationship between the overall image (i.e., cognitive and affective images) and destination action or behavioural loyalty, based on the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA).

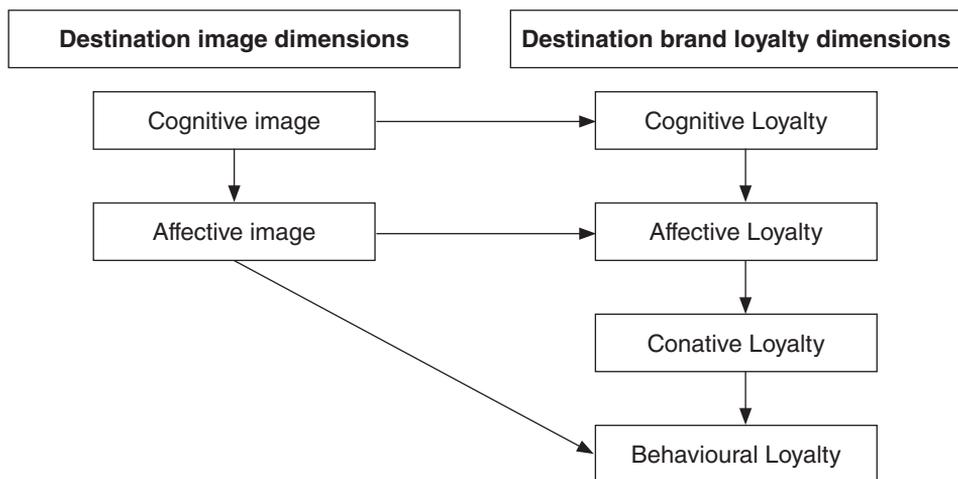


Figure 1. The Brand Image-Loyalty for a Destination (BILD) model

The major theoretical contribution of this conceptual paper is that it proposes a brand image-loyalty model that enriches the destination loyalty literature by including the cognitive and affective components of destination image and the COGL, AFL, CONL, and AL/BL components of destination loyalty, as well as the relationship between those components in a single model. Figure 1 shows the two antecedents of destination loyalty which impose direct and indirect impact on destination behavioural loyalty (DBL). The cognitive image component produces an affective component, whereas the affective image produces affective loyalty. The two

components of destination image collectively form an overall image. Meanwhile, the first three components of destination loyalty form the DAL (destination attitudinal loyalty) that mediates the causal association between destination image and DBL (destination behavioural loyalty). Earlier studies considered the image as an attitude, and that the concept of DAL was similar to intentions and commitment, whereas action or behavioural loyalty was the actual behaviour. By having an attitude, intentions, and behavioural components, the TRA fully supports the relationship between destination image, DAL, and DBL. The proposed model of this conceptual paper will also contribute to attaining the UN's four SDGs of "No Poverty", "Zero Hunger", "Quality Education", and "Life on Land".

Managerial Implications

There are several practical and managerial implications of this conceptual paper. The BILD model proposed in this paper can help managers to thoroughly understand the destination image of their visitors, which is one of the most important elements of the CBBETD model and also a crucial antecedent of destination loyalty. Measurement of the destination image is an important first step that can enable destination managers to achieve the following:

- (a) Establish appropriate management practices,
- (b) Understand how their visitors develop an image of a destination,
- (c) Comprehend the loyalty of their visitors, and
- (d) Develop relevant strategies accordingly.

All of this would ultimately enable destination managers to attract new visitors and retain existing ones. The BILD model will guide destination marketing managers on the destination image, in terms of how the cognitive image component plays a role in the development of knowledge and beliefs about a destination. To enhance the knowledge and beliefs of their visitors, the destination marketing managers will need to formulate proper promotional strategies that can help the visitors to understand the rational benefits and subsequently shortlist their destination as the preferred choice. The affective component of the destination image will guide destination managers in understanding their visitors' feelings, likings or preferences, and emotional attachments to destinations. The BILD model will guide destination marketing managers in understanding the importance of cognitive and affective image components in developing the corresponding cognitive and affective loyalties. Additionally, by understanding and measuring all four loyalty stages, destination marketing managers will be able to comprehend and anticipate the attitudinal and behavioural loyalties of their potential and existing visitors, so that proper marketing strategies could be formulated to increase tourism receipts.

This study also contributes to four of the UN's SDGs, which are "No Poverty" (goal no. 1), "Zero Hunger" (goal no. 2), "Quality Education" (goal no. 3), and "Life on Land" (goal no. 15). To eradicate extreme poverty in the world, the target of the first SDG by 2030 is to enhance per day earning. The current global average earning per person is less than USD1.25 a day (UN, 2015). By using the proposed model of this paper, destination marketers will not only be able to measure the image of their destinations with the two dimensions, but they will also be able to devise strategies that will enhance the image by providing more rational and emotional benefits. Additionally, they will be more aware of how visitors become loyal in a sequential process. With more tourist arrivals, the residents of a destination will be able to derive more benefits. This in turn will increase their per capita income and, ultimately, their standard of living. When per day earning increases, these residents will be able to provide good food for their family and afford a better education for their children. As a result of more tourist inflow, the residents of the destination will also try to preserve the ecosystem, biodiversity, and natural habitats.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

This conceptual paper has many limitations, as with other studies. It presents many propositions related to the relationship between the dimensions of destination image and destination loyalty. However, these propositions are not tested. Future studies related to destination image and destination loyalty should test the propositions of this paper empirically, with a quantitative approach. This paper also provides several future research directions. Future research seeking to use the BILD model should identify factors that might moderate the relationship between the two dimensions of destination image and destination attitudinal loyalty (DAL). Word of mouth (WOM), for example, could be a possible moderator in the said relationship. Destination perceived quality, destination perceived value, and destination perceived safety and security may also be other possible moderators in the relationship between DAL and destination behavioural loyalty (DBL). By examining the moderator(s) in the relationship between the two dimensions of destination image and DAL, or in the relationship between DAL and DBL, a moderated mediation model can be developed which will strengthen the relationship between the constructs of the BILD model of this paper.

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Empirical Paper

A Quantitative Case Study on Customers' Expectations of Hotel Green Marketing

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Abstract: Environmental concerns are increasing due to rapid environmental degradation. Despite these growing concerns, many consumers seem to be unaware of the initiatives taken by the hotel industry towards sustainability. Prior studies have suggested that this lack of awareness may be due to weak green marketing strategies. This study explores customers' perceptions and expectations of green marketing strategies by green hotels through utilising the four Ps (Product, Price, Promotion, and Place) of the marketing mix. The sample comprised 40 delegates who attended an environment-related conference in Auckland, New Zealand. These respondents were expected to have informed knowledge about the environment and green marketing programmes of hotels. A quantitative case study approach was used. The results of this study demonstrate that the green strategies can be effective, neutral, or ineffective. The most effective strategies are those in which green products are regarded as special compared to standard products. Eco-labels in green promotion are perceived as neutral because some respondents acknowledge them as quality assurance while others question their capability. Pricing strategies whereby green products are charged more are ineffective. This research provides theoretical and managerial implications to assist hoteliers to strategise green marketing initiatives to increase the consumption of green products and services at green hotels.

Keywords: Green hotel, green marketing, 4 Ps, marketing mix

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Introduction

Since the 1970s, global environmental degradation has become a common concern for mankind. It started from the Sahelian droughts of the 1970s and the Chernobyl nuclear accident in 1986. Many consequential environmental legislation have since been instituted (Olzak & Soule, 2009). However, the situation is still alarming. In 2018, the Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES) found that more than 75% of the Earth's land has been substantially degraded (National Geographic, 2018). This degradation has caused many environmental problems, such as climate change, ozone depletion, mass extinction of species, and loss of natural habitats (Hartmann & Ibanez, 2006; Kotler, 2011).

These environmental problems have raised public awareness towards conserving the planet for future generations. This awareness has encouraged many consumers to “go green”, leading them to change their lifestyles and decision-making (Yusof, 2014). As such, there is an increasing demand for products and services that are “environmentally friendly” (Adrita, 2020; Jhavar et al., 2012). Many organisations have also been encouraged to initiate new products and services which are “environmentally friendly” or “green” towards sustainable development (Chandran & Bhattacharya, 2019; Leonidou, Leonidou, Fotiadis, & Zeriti, 2013; Yusof, 2014).

A similar green movement has also been reported in the tourism sector. Environmental degradation has made tourists more conscious of their destinations and the impact their visits may have on the environment (Ashraf, Hou, Kim, Ahmad, & Ashraf, 2020). In terms of consumerism, the Sustainable Travel Report 2019 stated that 72% of tourists wanted to travel sustainably, with 70% being likely to reserve accommodations in eco-friendly facilities (Booking.com, 2019). Nevertheless, the purchase of green products seems to have declined over time (Adrita, 2020; Jackson, 2010; Lee, 2008; Peattie & Crane, 2005).

In the same Sustainable Travel Report 2019, 72% of consumers said that they were unaware of the existence of eco-labels for accommodation (Booking.com, 2019). Statistically, although consumers indicate a willingness to buy green products, many are not aware of the initiatives taken by the relevant industries towards sustainability. Rex and Baumann (2007) suggested weak green marketing as one of the causes for this lack of awareness.

This study adds to the knowledge of green marketing strategies used in green hotels via the following objectives:

1. To explore hotel customers' opinions on green marketing strategies in green hotels; and
2. To explore hotel customers' expectations of environmental best practices in green hotels.

Literature Review

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Tourism

Holistically, sustainability is a concern in the conservation of the natural environment and in the understanding of the history, heritage, and culture of humankind (Chandran & Bhattacharya, 2019; Kinoti, 2011). In 1992, the United Nations (UN) initiated the Agenda for Sustainable Development to “end poverty, protect the planet, and ensure prosperity for all” by the year 2030 (Hall, 2019). Combating climate change and its impact (SDG13) are the main highlights of this study. This study looks into green marketing strategies that can increase the consumption of green products and services, and as a consequence, assist the hotel sector to better preserve the environment.

Green Hotel

According to the Green Hotels Association (2013), a green hotel is an establishment that is environmentally friendly and actively institutes programmes that can save water and energy, and reduce solid waste, while saving money that can be used to protect the environment. Preserving environmental quality is therefore one of the key priorities. However, some scholars have argued that generating profit is the real intention of hotels to “go green” (Pizam, 2009).

Green Marketing in Hotels

In the late 1980s, the concept of green marketing came about due to people's awareness of environmental destruction caused by economic development (Ashraf et al., 2020). According to the American Marketing Association, green marketing refers to the “marketing of products that are presumed to be environmentally safe” (Mishra & Sharma, 2014, p. 1). Pride and Ferrell (2006) categorised the green marketing concept into designing, promoting, pricing, and distributing products and services that do not harm the environment. Initially, green marketing referred to “the holistic management process responsible for identifying, anticipating, and satisfying the needs of customers and society, profitably and sustainably” (Peattie, 2001, p. 141). In other words, the green marketing concept referred to promoting green products and services that protect the well-being of the environment, while at the same time, generating profit.

As a profit-based industry, the hotel sector must be concerned with its customers' perception. Therefore, green marketing strategies that aim to promote and convince customers about green practices must be accompanied by a follow-up of consumers' opinions (Garay & Font, 2012). Besides, consumers' opinions may assist the hotel to effectively prioritise positive recommendations that can be translated into improved marketing strategies.

Customers’ Perspectives on Green Marketing

In the early 1960s, Jerome McCarty developed the four Ps of the marketing mix to assist green marketing initiatives (McCarthy, 1960). This marketing strategy is among the most common strategies used to design and develop marketing strategies (Dangelico & Vocalelli, 2017; Gordon, 2012; Nepal, al Irsyad, & Nepal, 2019). Although long-established, this marketing mix is still relevant to contemporary marketing applications (Dangelico & Vocalelli, 2017; Kumar, Rahman, & Kazmi, 2013). This strategy looks at the four critical points in marketing green products, i.e., Product, Price, Promotion, and Place. The details are listed and illustrated (see Figure 1) as follows:

1. Product: A tangible product or intangible product (service) offered by the organisation.
2. Price: An amount paid for a product or service.
3. Place: Location where product and/or service can be purchased.
4. Promotion: A distribution channel used by the organisation.

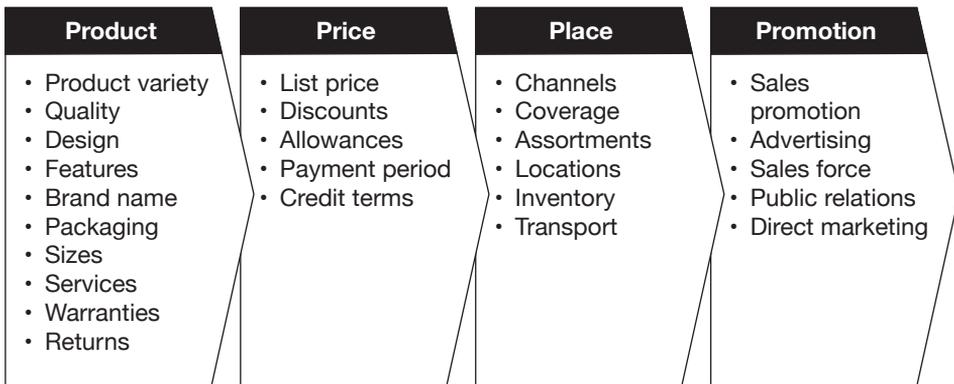


Figure 1. Four Ps of the marketing mix (Kotler & Keller, 2014)

Materials and Methods

Area of Study

New Zealand is a beautiful country and is a highly popular tourist destination. It is blessed with beautiful natural landscape that is appropriate for various activities related to the environment. Currently, New Zealand is ranked the fifth most popular destination in the world, according to the Lonely Planet’s 2018 Travellers’ Pulse Survey (NZ Herald, 2017). New Zealand promotes its tourism by using the motto, “100% Pure New Zealand”. This means the combination of landscapes, people, and activities that can only be found in New Zealand (Tourism New Zealand, 2020).

Instrument

This study was conducted using a case study quantitative approach through a self-administered questionnaire, divided into two sections: Section A consisted of questions to identify the demographic profile of the respondents; while Section B consisted of 30 statements related to green activities (see Table 2). All these 30 statements were adapted from a study by Chan (2013b). An example item is: "Hotel customers are suspicious of environmental advertising and claims." Responses on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), were used, with a mid-point, i.e., neither agree nor disagree.

Population

The targeted population was delegates who attended an environment-related conference in Auckland, New Zealand. These delegates were chosen on the assumption that they would have an interest and knowledge about current environmental conditions. Thus, they may provide interesting views that might differ from other possible respondents.

Data Collection Processes

Before commencing the study, the organisers of the environment conference held in Auckland were approached by email. The questionnaire, along with the participant information sheet (PIS), was emailed to the organisers and the hotel managers (if applicable) seeking permission to distribute the questionnaire to delegates.

A small table was set up close to the attendees' registration table a day before the conference was held. This table was set up with the questionnaires, PIS, pens, and a box for collecting completed questionnaires.

Delegates who approached the table were given the questionnaire and PIS. Additionally, the conference organiser assisted with the data collection process by notifying delegates about the questionnaire during the conference.

Data Analysis

Altogether, 80 questionnaires were distributed at the conference, resulting in 40 returned questionnaires. The collected data were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

Results and Discussion

Respondents' Profile

In this study, most of the respondents were female (60%), and 40% were male. Also, most of the respondents were New Zealanders (52.2%). This was followed

by Australians (22.5%), Chinese (5.0%), Americans (5.0%), Malaysians (5.0%), Kuwaiti (2.5%), British (2.5%), Thai (2.5%), and “Missing” (2.5%). The largest age group was 50–59 years old (32.5%), followed by 40–49 years old (20.0%), 30–39 years old (17.5%), 20–29 years old (15.0%), and 60 years old and over (15.0%). Most of the respondents were full-time employees (70.0%), followed by part-time employees (20.0%), and self-employed (10%).

Table 1. Respondents’ profile

Demographic traits	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	16	40.0
Female	24	60.0
Nationality		
Australia	9	22.5
China	2	5.0
Kuwait	1	2.5
Malaysia	2	5.0
New Zealand	21	52.5
Thailand	1	2.5
UK	1	2.5
USA	2	5.0
Missing	1	2.5
Age in years		
20–29	6	15.0
30–39	7	17.5
40–49	8	20.0
50–59	13	32.5
60 and over	6	15.0
Current employment		
Employed full-time	28	70.0
Employed part-time	8	20.0
Self-employed	4	10.0

Hotel Customers’ Opinions of Green Marketing Strategies

To acknowledge customers’ opinions of green marketing strategies, the respondents were requested to rate a list of 30 statements derived from the four Ps of the marketing mix: Product, Price, Place, and Promotion. The data was then analysed using central distribution analysis. Based on the Likert-scale, these 30 statements were categorised into: (a) effective (these statements were rated on a 5 to 4 Likert-scale); (b) neither effective nor ineffective (these statements were rated on a below 4 to 3 Likert-scale); and (c) ineffective (these statements were rated on a below 3 Likert-scale). Please refer to Table 2.

Overall, the respondents agreed that green products are unique ($M = 4.30$, $SD = 0.608$). This statement showed that green products are regarded as special compared to standard products. The second most effective strategy is: hotels must implement green practices on the premises before launching green initiatives ($M = 4.18$, $SD = 0.747$). This was followed by: using the Internet to promote the hotels' green initiatives ($M = 4.15$, $SD = 0.540$); green hotels elevate industry members' image ($M = 4.05$ & $SD = 0.677$); hotels must partner with business partners that carry a green image ($M = 4.05$, $SD = 0.605$); and lastly, hotels must ensure their distribution channels include suppliers who support environmentally friendly practices ($M = 4.03$, $SD = 0.707$). All these statements were considered as effective strategies in promoting green marketing.

Furthermore, respondents who acknowledged having information about the environmentally friendly concept evaluated many strategies as neither effective nor ineffective. In other words, they were unsure how the initiatives functioned. We classified the findings based on the categories related to the four Ps. Concerning consumers' views on the implementation of green practices by the hotels under the "Product" statements, it was found that the customers may or may not be looking for green products while travelling ($M = 3.72$, $SD = 0.686$). Other than that, the respondents were unsure about: the sincerity of the hotels in instituting green practices that aim to protect the environment ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 0.975$); the commitment of hotels in bringing new green offerings to the market ($M = 3.46$, $SD = 0.790$); and the commitment of hotels in carrying out market research to ensure their green offerings are acceptable ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 0.812$). It was also found that the respondents were neutral about the hotels' environmental advertising and claims ($M = 3.45$, $SD = 0.846$). Regarding "Price" strategies, the respondents were unsure about the statements that green offerings be charged a premium price compared to conventional offerings ($M = 3.45$, $SD = 0.876$); and green pricing works only when green products reduce hotel customers' costs ($M = 3.31$, $SD = 0.766$). The three statements on eco-labels as "Promotion" strategies were evaluated as unsure strategies. These statements were related to the functions of eco-labels in marketing green strategies, namely: the eco-labels are regarded as effective promotional tools ($M = 3.55$, $SD = 0.846$); eco-labels are often used on the packaging and corporate website ($M = 3.70$, $SD = 0.791$); and eco-labels support hotel businesses to promote green practices ($M = 3.63$, $SD = 0.667$). The respondents were also unsure about "Place" marketing strategies through their business partners. The statements, such as hotels must partner with third parties to assist in promoting green practices ($M = 3.85$, $SD = 0.630$); and hotels select their business partners based on current environmental issues ($M = 3.24$, $SD = 0.913$), were among the unsure green marketing strategies rated by the respondents.

Further, four statements were considered ineffective as green marketing strategies. Three statements under the “Price” strategies showed that respondents were unwilling to be charged extra. The respondents were unwilling to pay extra for eco-facilities in the hotels ($M = 2.73$, $SD = 0.877$); if part of the amount paid is donated to green activities ($M = 2.90$, $SD = 0.900$); and to recover costs incurred from implementing green practices ($M = 2.58$, $SD = 1.010$). Last but not least, the respondents disagreed with the statement that hotels provide products and services that do not harm human health ($M = 2.97$, $SD = 1.088$). This statement came under the “Product” strategy.

From these statements, this study demonstrates a variety of views regarding the current green marketing initiatives in green hotels. It can be seen that most of the respondents agree that green products offered by the hotels are unique and special. As it is claimed that green initiatives can protect the environment, the respondents who are assumed to have an interest in protecting the environment comprehend green products as special and unique. Based on a study conducted by Barbarossa and De Pelsmacker (2016), there are differences in views on green offerings between green and non-green consumers. As such, the respondents in this study regard the green products and practices as special due to their attributes which can minimise the impact on the environment (Schuitema & de Groot, 2015). However, this finding is not consistent with a study conducted by Robinot and Giannelloni (2010), which found that hotel customers in France view green products as a basic product which is a normal offering by green hotels. Thus, it does not influence customer satisfaction.

The respondents mutually agreed that green hotels must institute green programmes in-premise before promoting their green initiatives. This finding indicates that the respondents were against “greenwashing”. Greenwashing is a term given to hotels that are not truly committed to green products and practices (Rahman, Park, & Chi, 2015). The reasons for greenwashing are varied. Even though some articles have stated that hotels may lose their current customers and it may affect the hotels’ financial performance if they turn into green hotels (Gürlek & Tuna, 2018), many articles have posited that “pretending to be green” can bring about many benefits. As such, green hotels can attract customers who care about current environmental issues (French & Rogers, 2010) and can reduce costs through several practices, such as recycling and linen reuse (Chen, Bernard, & Rahman, 2019; Rahman et al., 2015). All of these are possible reasons why standard hotels use “green” as their marketing ploy (Pizam, 2009). Consequently, the respondents would like to see the in-premise green practices before a green promotion is launched so as to avoid speculation of greenwashing.

Apart from that, the respondents agreed with the use of the Internet platform to disseminate green initiatives. This finding aligns with Chan (2013a), who found that both managers and customers regard the Internet as the best way to communicate with customers. This is because the Internet reduces the barriers to knowledge. Thus,

customers can access relevant information conveniently. Additionally, the findings show that the respondents are concerned with the green image carried by green hotels and the hotels' distribution channels. The green image and distribution channels must match the green practices put in place by the hotels.

In this study, many green marketing strategies were rated as uncertain or neutral by the respondents. The most interesting findings are related to eco-labels as a promotional strategy. Currently, eco-labels are used as proof that hotels' green practices are assured as environmentally safe (Sharma & Kushwaha, 2019). Besides that, eco-labels are seen as a value-added tool to the green hotels, which can provide public awareness regarding the hotels' green offerings, attract customers, and improve the eco-friendly image of the business (Lo, Chan, & Zhang, 2014). According to the Ecolabel Index (2020), which is a global directory of eco-labels, a total of 456 eco-labels are applicable in 199 countries and 25 industry sectors. Even though using eco-labels to disseminate assurance of green practices is practical, this study found that the respondents were uncertain about it. This finding contradicts a recent study conducted by Sharma and Kushwaha (2019) which found eco-labels as a significant criterion that can lead to customer purchase intention and instill customer trust. A study on tourists who visited New Zealand reported that visitors may refer to the eco-labels as a sign of environmental practices while searching for hotels, but there have also been questions raised about the capabilities of those eco-labels within the New Zealand hotel industry (Fairweather, Maslin, & Simmons, 2005). These mixed findings may require further research.

In this study, the most ineffective strategies evaluated by the respondents were statements relating to paying extra for green offerings. Past literature has shown mixed findings. In the United States, customers have expressed their readiness to pay for hotels' green practices, especially those concerned with environmental issues, by declaring a higher willingness to pay extra (Kang, Stein, Heo, & Lee, 2012). In contrast, Chan (2013a) found that customers were unwilling to pay extra, which is similar to this study. The main findings are customers believe that green programmes (such as linen and towel reuse programmes) may help the hoteliers to save on labour costs and laundry expenses (Kotler, 2011; Pizam, 2009; Green Hotels Association, 2013).

Table 2. Central distribution analysis of green marketing strategies based on the four Ps

No.	Statements	Mean	(SD)
Product			
2	<i>Green hotel products and services may provide an opportunity for product differentiation.</i>	4.30	(0.608)
1	<i>Green hotel marketing should begin with green product and service design (such as room occupancy sensors that save energy in guest rooms).</i>	4.18	(0.747)

Table 2 (cont)

No.	Statements	Mean	(SD)
4	<i>Green hotels can elevate industry members' image and reputation to attract green tourists who demand green accommodation when travelling.</i>	4.05	(0.677)
7	<i>Guests desire green hotel products and practices.</i>	3.72	(0.686)
3	<i>Hotels are seeking to bring innovative green products and services to the market.</i>	3.46	(0.790)
5	<i>Green hotel product and service performance play a key role in influencing customers' revisit intention.</i>	3.31	(0.893)
8	<i>Hotel companies are carrying out the extensive product-specific market research necessary to ensure green product and service success.</i>	3.15	(0.812)
6	<i>Hotels are sincere in instituting programmes that save water and energy, reduce solid waste, use resources economically, and protect the planet's ecosystem.</i>	3.15	(0.975)
9	<i>Hotels provide products and services that do not harm human health.</i>	2.97	(1.088)
Price			
13	<i>Hotel customers who are more receptive to environmentally friendly products and services are more willing to pay extra for them.</i>	3.58	(0.931)
14	<i>Green hotel products and services are almost always priced at a premium relative to conventional offerings.</i>	3.45	(0.876)
12	<i>Green pricing (is an optional utility service that allows customers an opportunity to support a greater level of utility company investment in renewable energy technologies) works only when green products and services reduce hotel guest costs.</i>	3.31	(0.766)
11	<i>Customers are willing to pay a higher price if part of the amount paid is donated to green activities.</i>	2.90	(0.900)
10	<i>Hotel customers are willing to pay a higher price for eco-facilities.</i>	2.73	(0.877)
15	<i>Hotel companies should charge a premium for environmentally friendly products and services to recover the additional costs incurred in their production, marketing, and disposal.</i>	2.58	(1.010)
Promotion			
19	<i>Hotel companies should collaborate with environmental groups to promote their green image more effectively.</i>	3.90	(0.744)
18	<i>Hotel companies often use eco-labels on the packaging and display them on their corporate web sites.</i>	3.70	(0.791)
24	<i>Hotel companies see simple compliance with environmental legislation as an opportunity to promote their green credentials.</i>	3.69	(0.614)

Table 2 (con't)

No.	Statements	Mean	(SD)
22	<i>Environmental labels create incentives for the hotel business to change the market.</i>	3.63	(0.667)
17	<i>Environmental labels (certificates for green hotels, such as ISO 14001) are an effective promotional tool in the hotel industry.</i>	3.55	(0.846)
16	<i>Green promotions and advertisements influence hotel guests and industrial buyers because they reflect the hotel's commitment to the environment.</i>	3.53	(0.751)
20	<i>Hotel customers are suspicious of environmental advertising and claims.</i>	3.45	(0.846)
23	<i>Hotel companies try to convince customers to be environmentally friendly during direct sales activities.</i>	3.23	(0.842)
21	<i>Environmental claims in advertisements are often met with criticism from competitors and consumer organisations.</i>	3.10	(0.641)
Place			
27	<i>The Internet is an effective channel for marketing a hotel's green initiatives directly to customers.</i>	4.15	(0.540)
29	<i>The image of business partners, such as travel agencies, tour operators, wholesalers, and airlines, should be consistent with the green image that a hotel wants to project.</i>	4.05	(0.605)
30	<i>A hotel should use environmentally friendly distribution channels (a path in which a hotel's product and services travel from vendor to customers) to build a green image.</i>	4.03	(0.707)
25	<i>Joining commercial green marketing and central reservation associations that advertise and promote green hotels helps hotels to reach green travellers.</i>	3.85	(0.630)
26	<i>Some hotels have attempted to develop green certification programmes to gain green customer confidence.</i>	3.49	(0.601)
28	<i>The selection of business partners, such as travel agencies, tour operators, wholesalers, and airlines, is influenced by environmental issues.</i>	3.24	(0.913)

Hotel Customers' Expectations of Environmental Best Practices in Green Hotels

This section describes the ranking of environmentally friendly practices in green hotels. The respondents were asked to rank their most preferred to least preferred practices. They were also permitted to include other practices that they thought should be included in green marketing and green hotels. Figure 2 presents the ranking of environmentally friendly practices.

Overall, the respondents agree with the environmental practices in green hotels except for two practices—advising customers of solar power generation via a monitor in the lobby (37.5%) and organic meals in restaurants (35.0%). Of all, the most preferable practices are recycling (92.5%) and linen reuse (90.0%). Besides, the respondents included additional practices, such as a non-smoking floor or facilities, no boiled water in the hotel, smart air-conditioning, and bathroom water supplies that deliver water at pre-set temperatures in the green hotels.

The findings show that respondents favour green practices that: (1) they can participate in, such as recycling and towel reuse; and (2) do not interfere with their convenience while staying at the green hotels.

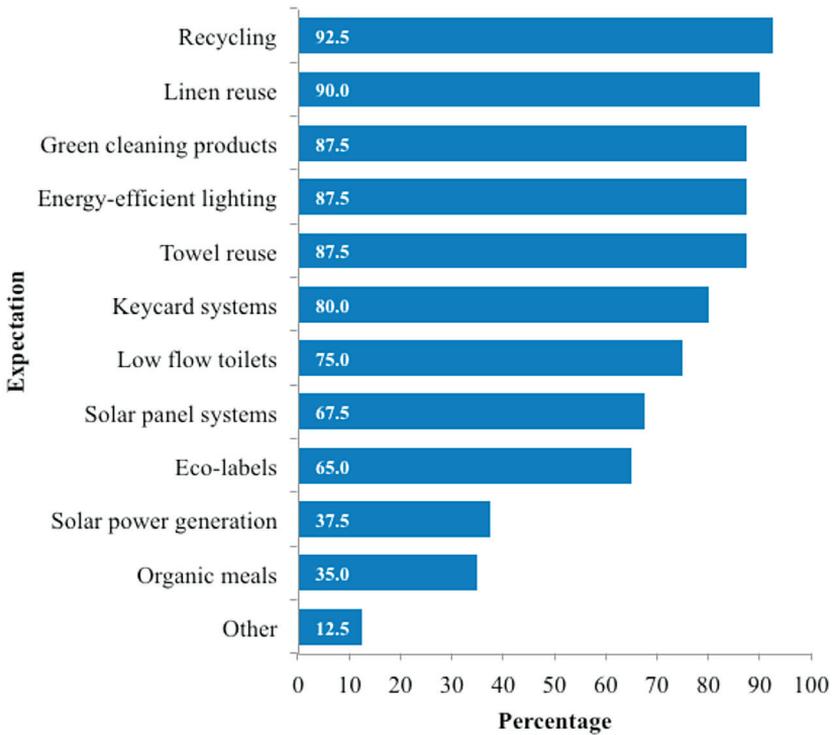


Figure 2. Environmentally friendly practices

Conclusion

As an exploratory study, this research provides a deeper understanding of customers’ views on the current state of acceptance of green marketing initiatives and practices, especially in New Zealand’s hotel industry.

The findings of this research have several important implications for future green marketing initiatives and practices. To summarise, the important findings in this research are: (1) green practices that may induce customers' purchase intention—practices that show hoteliers' commitment to environmental issues but at the same time, do not interfere with customers' convenience while staying at the hotel; (2) respondents favour green practices in which they can participate and those they are involved in at home; (3) promotion of the hotel's green practices through the Internet, e.g., corporate websites and online booking engines such as Agoda and Booking.com and Instagram; (4) extra charges for green practices may hinder customers' purchase intention; and (5) respondents felt that there is over-dependence on the use of eco-labels by the hotels to promote their green practices. All of these important findings can serve as a reference for the hotel industry to improve its understanding of the different green marketing strategies so as to formulate a suitable green marketing implementation strategy. Consequently, the findings from this study can assist hoteliers to strategise green marketing initiatives to increase the consumption of green products and services at the green hotels, as well as combat climate change and its impact (SDG13).

It is suggested that future researchers study several important issues to obtain more accurate information on this topic. These suggestions are: (1) to address a wider scope of customers, not just limited to delegates who attend environment-related conferences; (2) to ask these questions in specific hotel categories, for instance, 3-star and 4-star hotels; (3) to assume and test an attitude-behaviour model of customer behaviour; and (4) to analyse whether or not the perception of green marketing activities influence hotel selection and customer satisfaction.

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Empirical Paper

Virtual is Vital: The Strategies, Design, and Attendee Engagement of Virtual Events

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Abstract: The novel coronavirus disease (COVID-19) outbreak has changed the event sector and altered the event landscape worldwide. Thus it is imperative to understand how COVID-19 has changed the event sector, and what can be done to sustain this economic industry. The adaptation strategies are not only important for sustaining the event business but also to retain company visibility. The lockdown phases in Malaysia, which started in March 2020, gave rise to numerous fruitful webinars by event experts worldwide. To give support and guidance, the recorded webinars were made available for the public and shared through YouTube. A content analysis of five webinars was conducted, which presented the discussion of 17 event industry experts worldwide, revolving around three major themes. The themes included strategies of hosting virtual events, strategies for maximising attendee engagement; as well as the design of virtual events. The analysis of these webinars revealed that most of the experts were affected by the COVID-19 pandemic, particularly their event businesses, and as a result, tried changing their way of thinking, and brainstormed on how to transform their regular events into virtual events. The findings of this paper are vital as they present practical insights from event experts.

Keywords: COVID-19, virtual events, webinars

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Introduction

The novel coronavirus disease (COVID-19) continues to pose a major threat to the well-being of the event industry as its impacts are unprecedented and fast-changing in nature. For instance, UNWTO (2020) reported on the decline of international tourist arrivals between 60-80% and the loss of jobs worth USD 80 billion throughout the global industry. Starting March 2020 when lockdowns began, Mohanty, Himanshi, and Choudhury (2020) as well as Ozili and Arun (2020) reported no business for physical events including live concerts, sports events, festivals, and many more. The rising number of deaths due to COVID-19 in Italy, England, and Germany, for example, also contributed to the dropping demand for physical events (Reade & Singleton, 2020). The drastic decrease in stadium attendance proves this worrisome situation.

Further, the lack of preparedness and inefficiencies in the healthcare system and monitoring work could exacerbate the spread of COVID-19. For instance, various prominent physical events such as the UEFA Euro 2020 football championship in Europe and the Formula 1 Grand Prix in China were postponed. This is because, according to Castro (2016), the virus can be transmitted at transit points such as airports, bus stations, other public transportation systems, hotels, and event venues. Therefore, strict regulations with a high risk of virus transmission in crowded places led to the cancellation of more and more physical events. In short, public gatherings were discouraged and banned during the outbreak (Gitter, 2017).

According to McCloskey et al. (2020), learning from outbreaks in the past where, mass gatherings became sources of disease transmission, led to the postponement or cancellation of these events. The cancellation of non-essential gatherings due to the outbreak of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) in Toronto in April 2003 by the World Health Organisation (WHO) is a clear example for this situation (Gitter, 2017). Thus, event organisers were advised to either enhance their risk mitigation when hosting a physical event, or postpone or cancel their events (McCloskey et al., 2020). To this end, local health authorities are required to develop specific event planning guidelines as a preventive measure.

On the other hand, Gitter (2017) argued that the cancellation of events results in the loss of potential benefits for the host. This situation is damaging to most event companies. This is mainly because the majority of the event planning guidelines produced by local health authorities suggest to stop or cancel any gathering to break the chain of COVID-19 transmission. Similarly, The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) in United States (2020), in their guidelines advocated the cancellation of gatherings during the pandemic.

In this context, Ahmed and Memish (2020) suggested that this sector should be given more attention as it is among the hardest-hit economic sectors while Pearlman and Gates (2010) worried that most event organisers will not have a clear

understanding about what and how to strategise for virtual events to meet client needs. In this respect, researchers are of the opinion that there is an urgent need to understand this issue better and thus aim to identify strategies for sustainability in this sector, particularly revolving resilience.

According to Walker and Salt (2012), resilience is a concept used to explain the capacity to prepare for, to respond to, or to bounce back from problems or perturbations and disturbances. In fulfilling the aforementioned aim, two objectives were formulated for this study. The first is to understand how COVID-19 impacted the event industry worldwide and the second is to identify specific adaptation strategies that can be adopted by event managers to ensure their business continuity. The relationship between COVID-19 and how it changed the event landscape is also clarified.

To achieve these objectives, the content of live-streamed webinars in YouTube were reviewed and analysed. The panellists of these webinars were some of the renowned event industry experts from various countries including the USA, Italy, Germany, Philippines, Europe, and others. These experts discussed several interesting and innovative ideas in keeping the event industry alive and in generating income through virtual events. In fact, they viewed virtual events as a new norm and regarded the transformation of physical events into virtual events as a new, unprecedented opportunity.

Most of these experts agreed that COVID-19 has changed event management in three main aspects: the event's strategy, design, and attendee engagement worldwide. Thus, understanding these changes is vital in ensuring the sustainability of the global event industry. Apart from significant implications to event companies, the study is also aligned with Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The next section discusses further the relationship between this study and the SDGs.

Literature Review

While the study's focus is on the sustainability of the event industry, it is also aligned with SDGs in four ways. Firstly, the transformation of physical events into virtual events as an effective solution in a pandemic is aligned with SDGs' ENVISION 2030 to ensure the inclusion and development of persons with disabilities (United Nations, 2020). As the nature of virtual events involves individuals not being physically present at the event (Sá et al., 2019), this can minimise any prejudice towards race, gender, age, or physical appearance. In actual fact, a virtual event explicitly benefits persons with disabilities. Hence, including persons with disabilities in event planning is a pioneering strategy that should be considered by event managers (Darcy, 2012).

McCloskey et al. (2020) as well as Ebrahim and Memish (2020) also concurred that the event industry requires an evolution in order to adapt to and mitigate the negative effects of the pandemic for business continuity. Some of these negative effects include (i) reduced international tourist arrivals between 60-80% (UNWTO, 2020), (ii) loss of jobs worth USD 80 billion globally (UNWTO, 2020), and

(iii) no business for physical events including live concert, sports event and festivals (Mohanty et al., 2020; Ozili & Arun, 2020).

Secondly, in addition to the inclusion of people of disabilities, virtual events also manifest the SDGs, principle of “leaving no one behind”. While virtual events create opportunities for persons with disabilities to attend, they also provide job opportunities for individuals with digital marketing skills and other communication technology skills. While virtual events may not provide jobs or businesses that require physical presence such as sound system, catering, and décor companies, other opportunities are abound such as those involved in digital marketing skills, administration, moderators and technical support.

Thirdly, virtual events are very much in line with other principles of SDGs that are related to the preservation of the environment such as sustainable use of natural resources as well as sustainable consumption and production patterns. For instance, other than helping organisers save operational cost, virtual events also increase revenue, expand the brand community, broaden the reach of the brand, enable online databases to track attendees and permit rapid response to participants (Pearlman & Gates, 2010). Further, virtual events permit large numbers of participants depending on the types of platforms or software subscribed (Sá, Ferreira, & Serpa, 2019) with very minimal effect to the environment. According to Musgrave and Raj (2009), the negative impacts of physical events on the environment include short- and long-term site or location damage, waste, noise pollution, traffic disruption and congestion as well as an increase in energy demand and other natural resources.

Fourthly, virtual events also nurture inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all, which is another SDG principle. While virtual events can help event companies sustain themselves and stay innovative in the industry (Pearlman & Gates, 2010), they can also provide an excellent platform for professional development (Sá et al., 2019). As mentioned by Pearlman and Gates (2010), virtual events enable anyone in the world to participate in unlimited education and training sessions worldwide, saving time and cost (Handke, Schulte, Schneider, & Kauffeld, 2018).

Methodology

As mentioned earlier, this study aims to identify strategies to sustain the event industry through two objectives. The first is to understand how the COVID-19 pandemic impacted the event industry worldwide and the second, is to identify specific adaptation strategies that can be adopted by event companies for their business continuity. To this end, the content of webinars live-streamed on YouTube between March and July 2020 were reviewed and analysed. All the speakers or panellists in these webinars were industry experts in event management and the majority of them were CEOs or owners or managers of event companies. Thus,

their opinions and insights on the discussion topics are significant from the practical perspective.

The identification and selection of the webinars for the study involved two stages. The first stage involved searching for these webinars based on keywords such as “event sector and COVID-19” as well as “COVID-19 and virtual event”. This process yielded a total of 21 webinars. The screening at the second stage involved checking the summary of the webinars and after the screening process, only five webinars were selected. This is because any webinars that did not focus on virtual events were removed as they were not relevant to the study topic. Table 1 lists the five selected webinars.

Table 1. Selected webinars for analysis

Title	Streamed date
IOSH Webinar: COVID-19- How can we restart the events industry safely?	July 10, 2020
What will happen to the events industry after COVID-19?	May 1, 2020
How is the event industry adjusting to COVID-19?	March 31, 2020
Industry talk: COVID-19: Risks, effects and opportunities for the event tech industry	March 31, 2020
Shifting your events online during COVID-19	May 20, 2020

During the interpretation process, all information gathered from the webinars were transcribed and analysed for similarities. Throughout the analysis, the connectivity of the points with the main theme of the study was observed. Overall, three major themes and several sub-themes related to sustaining the event business were discussed in the webinars.

Findings and Discussion

This section presents the themes generated from the content analysis as highlighted by the experts in the live-streamed webinars. To understand the issues discussed by the event experts, the convergence and coherence of the points discussed were transcribed and analysed. The findings reveal that is evident that the impact of COVID-19 on the event sector has been enormous. This pandemic not only caused massive monetary loss, but also significantly affected the whole event business model. The dire consequences forced many event management companies to resort to turning physical events into virtual events. Therefore, the adaptation strategies for business sustainability during the COVID-19 pandemic are crucial.

Although previous studies have discussed recommendations for adaptation by the event sector in a pandemic, very few, if any, focused on the four elements covered by the present study: (i) the impact of COVID-19 on the event sector, (ii) strategies

of hosting virtual events, (iii) strategies for maximising attendee engagement in virtual events as well as (iv) the design of virtual events. Table 2 and the following subsections list and discuss the findings regarding these elements, respectively.

Table 2. Four main findings

Phase	Theme	Adaptation strategies
Phase 1: Understanding Phase	The impacts of COVID-19	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Postponement, cancellation or delay of events 2. Impact on event business model 3. Impact on economy 4. Unemployment 5. Increased cost in handling virtual event
Phase 2: Adaptation Phase	Strategies for hosting virtual events	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Partnering with different companies/ expertise 2. Event positioning and creating expected value 3. Learning new skills 4. Fully utilising internal tools
	Strategies for maximising attendee engagement in virtual events	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Understanding different types of attendees 2. Creating a strategic plan for attendees according to their expectations 3. Inviting creative entertainers/ speakers
	The design of virtual events	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Effective design that would stimulate attendees' interest 2. Design accessible and inclusive events

Theme 1: The Impacts of COVID-19 on the Event Sector

Under Phase 1, understanding the impacts of COVID-19 on the event sector was the main agenda addressed by most of the experts in the webinars. In this context, the impacts refer to how COVID-19 has changed the event landscape in their locality. Further, the impacts can be categorised into five sub-themes which are (i) postponed, cancelled and delayed physical events; (ii) impact on event business model; (iii) negative economic impact, (iv) unemployment and (v) increased cost of virtual events.

(i) Postponement, Cancellation and Delayed Events

This sub-theme looks at the reasons for postponement/cancellation of events. Experts stated that “(...) due to lockdown, we cannot go to the office, hence the event has to be postponed”.

Other experts shared that “Covid-19 forced us to stay at home, remote working, and need to postpone the show that has been planned earlier”. Others relayed that “We have seen the event industry disappear in 2020 due to the need for social distancing in this current phase of the pandemic; all events were closed”.

(ii) Impact on Event Business Model

Event planners or companies operate on a business model. The model represents the planning process of event management including goals and objectives, financial planning and management, client and suppliers' contracts, employees and personnel as well as the overall plan. But due to COVID-19, the existing business model that caters for the needs for physical events has become inefficacious. An Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of an event company admitted *"Our existing business model is clear, but due to Covid-19, it was attacked"*. Another expert shared *"We now have to brainstorm"*. Others lamented that *"(...)set up internal crisis team to cater for issues related to information technology, operation, and communication, which we didn't have before this"*. When dealing with COVID-19, experts verified that they need to have *"a pandemic preparedness plan, prevention and safety measure"*.

(iii) Impact on Economy

The event experts stated that apart from the loss of family members or friends due to COVID-19, financial loss has also been immense. In sharing an updated global assessment of the economic impact of COVID-19 on trade shows and exhibitions, an expert shared that *"at least USD145 billion worth of contracts were not concluded, as events did not take place as planned"*. Another expert verified that *"for the first time, in the last 50 years of our establishment, we have had to apply for the government's aid programme. These two situations took an emotional toll on us"*. As an established company, this has affected their business reputation. Another owner of an event company added that *"it is tough when you are an entrepreneur, and throughout history, your company has never been dependent on someone else"*. He also added that *"they have had to lobby the government in getting the stimulus package as 75% of the sales dropped"*.

(iv) Unemployment

Having discussed the economic impact of COVID-19 on the event sector, experts also lamented that the support given to them during this difficult period was scarce. In this unprecedented situation, one expert stated that *"no business right now; major sports event, concert, festivals, all need to be shut down, therefore, those who depended on the event were unemployed"*. One of the experts, the owner of an event company, regretfully admitted that *"the company had to lay off many employees, which means they didn't receive any salary temporarily"*.

(v) Increased Cost in Handling Virtual Event

While virtual events can indeed cut down the overall operational cost, however, shifting the event onto an online platform can result in losses for companies, if done

without a proper plan. Further, as the majority of the employees would be working from home, the company will need to provide them with internet connection and necessary devices so that they can deliver their tasks effectively.

From a different perspective, hosting a virtual event could become costly due to the venue rental and other non-refundable costs spent for the physical event planned earlier. One expert explained that *“we needed to change more things, the original plan of having physical events changed. Thus, the cost increased”*. The lack of knowledge and skills in technology adoption also increases operational cost. One expert described that going virtual is vital, but not easy. He clarified that *“We need to learn more about digital; we didn’t expect to transform the event into digital easily; using technology for a physical event theme will only double the cost”*.

Theme 2: Strategies of Hosting Virtual Events

Under Phase 2, this theme discusses the strategies of hosting virtual events as a means to mitigate the negative impacts of COVID-19. These strategies refer to techniques that can be used by event organisers in ensuring that their events are aligned with their goals and objectives, satisfy the expectations of the attendees and most importantly, are profitable. All of these elements are important in ensuring the longevity of the event sector which has been devastated by COVID-19. This theme comprises four sub-themes, including (i) partnering with different companies with different expertise; (ii) positioning the event well, and creating the expected value; (iii) learning new skills and (iv) fully utilising the internal resources of a company.

(i) Partnering with Different Companies/ Expertise

This sub-theme reflects the importance of working together as a team. Partnering with different companies that have different expertise is regarded as the most efficient strategy is hosting a virtual event. While the experts have vast experience in hosting physical events, hosting virtual events is something new to them. Most of the experts agreed that *“it’s time to work together; important to get support from the various companies that have digital skills”*. It is more sensible if event managers can partner up and share the required equipment because the evolution of the digital platform is rapid and costly. An expert stated that *“since we have no income, we can’t afford to buy all of the equipment for virtual events”*.

Another strategy discussed was the hiring of technology experts to help overcome the issue of unemployment. An event expert stated that *“hosting a virtual event by one independent company is hard, thus, it’s good if they can divide the task by expertise. Some might handle online registration, and another might handle live streaming. Having an event technologist is also good in ensuring the smoothness of the virtual event”*. The joint venture between different companies with different expertise/advantages can lead to

the production of successful virtual events. One of the experts said that *“expectation of audiences are greater when they attend an online event”*.

(ii) Event Positioning to Produce Expected Value

This sub-theme refers to the need of positioning an event well. An event will linger on in the minds of the attendees if it was able to produce the value expected. An industry expert verified that *“time changes, but fundamentally, humans don’t change. People still need to gather”*. This statement is evidence of the need to host a virtual event. Another expert stated that *“during the COVID-19 pandemic, we have to know how people engage. Everybody is now figuring out what is the best way to communicate, to socialize, thus, having virtual events can provide them chances to communicate, to socialize and some engagement”*.

Experts further emphasised that a virtual event organiser should gauge the level of acceptance and identify the limitations that might influence the success of a virtual event. An expert highlighted these points by saying *“virtual events are going to be different from the physical events”*. In regard to attendee expectation, one expert perceived that *“when people attend a virtual event, they are expecting a stable and reliable platform; expect more fun; expect to see new things on the internet; as a replacement of a live event”*. The capability of event managers in positioning the event after taking into consideration attendee acceptance and limitations is significant to ensuring their business remains relevant and sustainable amidst a raging pandemic.

(iii) Learning New Skills

This sub-theme is something commonly agreed by all the industry experts. It highlights the need for event managers or companies to equip themselves with the knowledge and skills related to virtual event management. One expert admitted that *“the technology and the tools are there, (we just) need to find the best way to do it”*. While partnering with different companies with different expertise is important, it is also critical for event organisers to learn new skills. An expert shared that *“the scariest part in shifting a physical event into virtual event is when we have to learn new skills; we should know how to handle event gear such as audio management, lighting, audio-visual and so on”*.

Having a skilled in-house team is critical for the sustainability of the event business. The majority of the experts agreed with this. One opined that *“The industry has to develop a solution to become more sustainable; event hosts need to learn how to handle event gears (i.e. broadcast tools, audio management, webcam, laptop, earphone etc.); learn how to design nice background with just one click”*. It is no exaggeration to say that being creative and innovative in virtual event design can make up for its imperfection. Another expert shared that *“Product is not important, the most*

important is the creativity of producing the product. The connectivity of the product with the community matters, all these can be done through digital". Therefore, learning digital skills is one of the strategies forward for sustaining the event business in a pandemic.

(iv) Fully Utilising Internal Resources

This sub-theme is a common strategy, especially for financially unstable event companies. While this strategy is considered a quick and savvy solution for the virtual event organiser, there are still a few things to be considered. For example, to what extent the existing tools or resources are compatible with the virtual event concept? Before the pandemic, when they mostly hosted physical events, event organisers perhaps did not have the digital equipment required for virtual events. However, for event organisers who are familiar with virtual events, they know they need a strong internet connection, a computer, headphone, good lighting and also a sound system. An expert stated that *"for a tangible event theme, we do not need to hire a thousand venues, it can be done by using existing digital equipment"*.

There are many types of events such as music and entertainment, education, religious and sports that require exclusive digital equipment. However, virtual events do not necessarily require a lot of state-of-the-art equipment. If the event organisers are resourceful, they can fully utilise most of their existing equipment for any type of event. An expert highlighted that *"we utilize all the facilities for other events, you name it, (we have it) and will use it for the next event"*. However, educational-type events like workshop, conference and seminar would only require some basic equipment such as a good internet connection, a computer, headphone and good lighting. One expert confidently stated that *"like the webinar that we have now, we only need a webcam, laptop and earphone – we are ready to go!"*

Theme 3: Strategies for Maximising Attendee Engagement in Virtual Events

Under Phase 2, another theme highlighted in the webinars was attendee engagement. This theme refers to strategies for maximising attendee engagement during a virtual event. Attendee engagement is vital as it can lead to overall satisfaction of the event. This theme comprises three sub-themes including (i) the need to understand different types of attendees; (ii) creating a strategic plan for attendees according to their expectations, and also (iii) inviting a creative entertainer/ speaker.

(i) Understanding Different Types of Attendees

Similar to physical events, virtual events also cater to different types of attendees, who come with different expectations. One of the experts categorised the attendees into two categories. The first type of attendee are those with distractions whereby

“attendees with kids would have too many distractions. Attendees have limited time to focus on the event in front of the computer, thus less engagement”. The second type of attendees are those with fewer distractions. He explained that *“these attendees can give more focus to the screen, but might easily get bored. The event content needs to be interactive and more fun”.* Therefore, virtual events must be designed with some interactive and fun content at intervals to retain attendee engagement throughout the event, according to these two types.

(ii) Creating a Strategic Plan for Attendees According to their Expectations

The expectations of attendees for events are as varied as their purposes for attending them. It is common for paying attendees to have higher expectations or anticipate something unusual to get their money’s worth. An industry expert highlighted that *“event organisers need to increase production values if they want to get paid participants”.* Therefore, when designing a virtual event that requires an admission fee, event organisers must ensure that the worth of the event content matches the fee.

(iii) Inviting a Creative Panel/ Speaker

Many of the industry experts pointed out that during the lockdown, potential attendees might be busy with house chores as all the family members are staying together. Some of them might be busy with work or study commitments. As one expert puts it, *“people don’t have time to focus on the event, they have limited time to stay in front of the computer, therefore to maximize the attendees’ engagement, the event organiser needs get creative. Perhaps adding a quiz etc”.*

Another expert proposed a few techniques to maximise attendee engagement during a virtual event: *“The speaker in a virtual event needs to use good visual, change their presentation style towards a more interactive form, for example, storytelling”.* Other experts shared: *“The speaker or entertainer needs to familiarise themselves with online tools used; a good appearance might attract attendees’ attention”* as well as *“(The speaker) must make the delivery more fun so that (to encourage) attendees to focus more on the screen because they face maximum disturbance when online”.*

Theme 4: The Design of Virtual Event

Another theme that experts in the webinars discussed was the design of the virtual event. Richards, Marques, and Mein (2014) stated an effective design is key for successful events and which can help sustain the event business in difficult times. In this regard, most of the physical event organisers fully concurred that effective designs can create new opportunities for successful events since COVID-19 has forcibly damaged their existing business model. One expert mentioned *“the impact of Covid-19 will change how we work forever”.*

With this general conclusion, the industry experts brainstormed in the webinars on effective, accessible and inclusive approaches to design virtual events, so that event businesses can stay afloat in the pandemic. The approaches can be categorised into two sub-themes: (i) the effective approach that would stimulate attendee interest and (ii) design of an accessible and inclusive event.

(i) Effective Approach that Would Stimulate Attendee Interest

One industry expert advocated that *“we should be creative in designing the events, and possibly make the event design tangible with just one click”*. To stimulate attendee interest, one of the experts stated that *“we should adopt a new method of delivery; remote planning (Team, Zoom, Skype etc) are becoming standard, with evolving new custom and etiquette”*. Further, to keep an event interesting, the industry experts also proposed early and consistent exposure about the virtual event to the attendees. With this, the attendees would know what to expect and what not to expect.

In maintaining the personal interest of attendees towards virtual events, the experts provided several tips such as *“having a small group of people for one event; allowing them to turn on their webcam for more engagement; providing regular breaks in presentations for question-and-answer sessions; clarifying anything that is not clear; pausing to check the chatbox in the meeting room; asking for feedback; and also letting participants speak”*. In keeping with the attendee interest, the focus on the event’s content is also important. Someone quipped that *“in a conference, focus more on the topic and purpose of the event, rather than the platform; purpose means providing great content”*.

(ii) Design an Accessible and Inclusive Event

In producing an effective design that would stimulate attendee interest, the experts also highlighted that the host should ensure that the event is accessible and inclusive. In this regard, one expert described accessibility and inclusivity as *“designing a virtual event as an event for all. This is usually something that is difficult to achieve in a physical event”*. Another expert stated that *“rather than cancelling an event, it good to redesign the planned event into an online platform”*. To improve the accessibility and inclusivity of the virtual event, the experts proposed that the organiser *“should record and share the recording with the participants”*. On a different note, having a small number of participants in one session would also increase the accessibility for every attendee. Having one or more break-up sessions also allows attendees to get to know each other and start networking. An expert also suggested *“let your attendees join the meeting room early so that they have time for networking”*. Thus, virtual or online mingling in virtual events also offers networking opportunities just like physical events.

Conclusion

COVID-19 is predicted to cause more adverse effects for the future including to the event industry which has been one of the hardest-hit sectors since the start of the pandemic. COVID-19 poses a great challenge for event organisers and all stakeholders regardless of their direct or indirect involvement in event management. Nevertheless, there is a workable solution which can be adopted by event organisers, which is transforming physical events into virtual events and embracing this as a new norm and new opportunity. Even though challenging, virtual events can be an efficient solution for the sustainability of event businesses. In this respect, the quality of the virtual event must be improved continuously including the hosting skills.

While previous studies have highlighted the benefits of virtual events, the majority of event organisers have always preferred physical events. The recent Covid-19 pandemic, however, has taken away any option for event organisers except to make events virtual or face massive loss/business closure.

That being said, event organisers must strive to equip themselves with the right skills if they are to achieve mastery in the field of virtual events. Furthermore, more research must be undertaken to adequately inform and guide event organisers in adapting to the virtual event design. Based on the findings discussed, this study suggests that event organisers must firstly understand how COVID-19 impact their businesses. Apart from this, the strategies for hosting virtual events as well as maximising attendee engagement should be acquired. The important element of designing virtual event is also vital. Finally, the findings reveal that virtual events are aligned with the principles of SGDs in four ways which support ENVISION 2030.

In future studies, further understanding regarding the organisation and design of virtual events for different age groups including the children, teenagers, adults, and elderly might prove important. This comparison and understanding is very much a key component to meeting the objectives of future virtual events.

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Conceptual Paper

The Four Dimensions of the Environmental Tourism Carrying Capacity (ETCC) Model at Royal Belum State Park, Malaysia

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Abstract: The Environmental Tourism Carrying Capacity (ETCC) is a location-specific implementation model, where metrics are built rather than generalised for all sites, to solve problems that arise on-site. This analysis determines the suitability of certain indicators over others to establish a hierarchical structure of ETCC for Royal Belum State Park (RBSP). The approach used in this research is triangulation that involves a process of defining relevant indicators through a content analysis and evaluating these indicators through a questionnaire survey. The Microsoft Excel software was used to evaluate the data gathered to identify the relevant indicators for RBSP. The study found that all respondents acknowledged the four dimensions of the ETCC model: biophysical environment, social-cultural, political-economics, and management of tourism facilities. The most important variables for the Biophysical Environment dimension are water management, waste management and air pollution whereas, the highest favoured predictors for the social-cultural component are moral action tolerance and crime. Public income and contributions earned were highly rated for the political-economics dimension. Finally, the top three tourism facilities preferred are implementation of strict intrusion protection rules, good scenic quality, and interesting activities on offer. This study also proved that through an assessment of significant indicators developed for a specific site, the ETCC model could be a huge success depending on the encountered issues and problems.

Keywords: Four-dimension model, environmental tourism carrying capacity (ETCC), Royal Belum State Park (RBSP), significant indicators, tailor-made framework

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Introduction

The rapid growth of the world population has raised significant interest on environmental awareness to nurture sustainable development. The World Population Data Bank predicted that the global population would rise to 7,241.9 million in 2015, but the 7-billion mark was reached on October 31, 2011 itself (Lai, 2011).

In the tourism industry, diversification of tourism products is a common strategy to cater to the expanding market demand. However, an overexploitation of tourism products has resulted in a major conflict for destinations when their environment and cultural resources come under intense pressure. The impacts are deemed detrimental as the tourism industry depends heavily on the environment as its main resource. Studies have shown a strong link between the environment and tourism that confirms that the environment is indeed an indispensable resource of tourism (Joshi & Dhyani, 2009; Mola, Shafaei, & Mohamed, 2012; Massiani & Santoro, 2012).

Thus, strong policies are crucial to oversee the growth of the tourism industry. The industry itself has been constantly associated with numerous issues such as short-sighted management or an overemphasis on costly infrastructures but lacking ground management. Further, the industry often struggles to recognise the importance of indicators as a guide on priority areas of development. The environmental tourism carrying capacity (ETCC) is a management model that utilises numerous location-specific indicators as its underlying framework. However, with numerous indicators controlling the ETCC framework, it was deemed a flawed concept and nearly impossible for implementation. In this regard, this study investigates the validity of the raised concerns using Royal Belum State Park (RBSP) as a case study to evaluate the significant indicators of ETCC. Specifically, the study intends to prove the hypothesis that by ranking the various indicators and criteria within an ETCC framework, a successful model of tourism development can be achieved. To elaborate, the hypothesis assumes that the efficacy and practicality of a particular site's tourism management could be further improved by rating the indicators in the ETCC system, which in the past had been the model's main weakness.

Moreover, this study is aligned with United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) 15 — "Life on land", SDG 8 - "Decent Work and Economic Growth" and SDG 16 - "Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions". These development goals cover the sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems and sustainably managed forests as well as the halt of land degradation and biodiversity loss.

Literature Review

As highlighted by Buckley (2003), sustainable tourism development is underscored by three fundamental principles: 1) adopts a holistic approach which integrates development and environmental issues within global political and ecological contexts, 2) encompasses futurity, focusing on the long-term capacity of ecosystems for the human population, and 3) attains an equity between opportunities and resources that is profitable to both present and future generations. Under this concept, much research has been carried out concerning minimisation of environmental impacts, respect of host cultures, maximisation of tourist satisfaction and enhancement of benefits to the local community. This development is also consistent with the rising dissatisfaction with mass tourism that has led to a call for nature-based experiences as alternative tourism. The idea is also supported by another study of growth and sustainability in tourism (Carboni, Congiatu, & Vincenzi, 2015).

Ecotourism as Alternative Tourism

Ecotourism is perceived as a viable model for combining environment conservation as it encompasses ecological, socio-economic and cultural components with local community participation (Gurung & Seeland, 2008; Polnyotee & Thadaniti, 2015). Ecotourism is a part of the environmental impact mitigation programme in which low-impact practices and nature-based tourism are offered. As set out during the 2002 World Ecotourism Summit, the main concepts of ecotourism are: 1) active commitment to cultural and natural heritage; 2) participation of local and indigenous communities in the design of ecotourism with a commitment to their well-being; 3) familiarisation of tourists with the cultural and natural heritage of the places they visit; 4) better independent travel (Chaminuka, Groneveld, Selomane, & Ierland Van, 2012). Similarly, in order to enjoy and appreciate nature, ecotourism can be considered as nature-based tourism which requires responsible travel to natural areas, while at the same time, promotes conservation and provides locals with beneficial active socio-economic participation.

Human beings may be regarded as the primary causal factor in the deteriorating state of the environment. Some practices can have significant environmental effects, although they have been widely marketed as a low-impact event and have adopted a respectful exploration of nature. In this respect, the rising number of tourists, the demand for outdoor recreation and the creation of facilities for the sake of tourist convenience have caused intense pressure on ecotourism destinations. For example, frequent walking and mountain biking in large numbers can cause damage to paths and trails, soil degradation and disruption to wildlife during their breeding periods (Mesa & Collovini, 2004; Han & Li, 2019). The ecosystem begins to gradually deteriorate and this in the long run, degrades the quality of visitor experience.

Studies have shown that some cities experienced traffic congestion issues, crowding in public areas and other social problems in the growth stage of their tourism development cycle (Kim, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2013). As mankind is the main cause (Kim et al., 2013; Buckley, 2012) of the present and potential adverse effects on the environment, the global population figure can provide a glimpse of the state of the environment. Further, the tourism industry leads, to a certain extent through migration, to demographic change. There are enormous economic prospects for tourism destinations which encourage rural migrants to achieve a better comparative standard of living. Taking into account all these aspects related to the growth of tourism and its adverse environmental impacts, it is important to create a mechanism to assess the threshold of each destination's carrying capacity before it is exceeded, causing irreversible damage.

Environmental Tourism Carrying Capacity (ETCC)

There are numerous elements which intersect with a fragile system when the natural environment is viewed as a host for tourism. A slight change in its natural setting can lead to the waning of the entire system due to the high sensitivity that this natural environment possesses. As a result, if the theory of carrying capacity is applied to this problem, researchers' critiques of either conceptual or practicalities may be ignored, leading to the outline of a wrong definition. The common perception of carrying capacity revolves around attempts to bring in a "magic number" of tourists in order to limit any impact towards the environment. This definition, however, poses crucial questions for policy makers, scientists who profess to define ability, and the public who experiences the impacts of tourism (Mexa & Collovini, 2004; McCool & Lime, 2001). The theory implicates how many individuals can an environment allow as desired or acceptable in maintaining the social and biophysical condition of a tourist destination.

The development of various definitions of tourism carrying capacity began with the transitional idea of deciding the maximum number of users required to achieve the desired condition and identify appropriate adjustment limits (Massiani & Santoro, 2012). Many academics first realised the carrying capacity of tourism (Coccosis & Mexa, 2004) as an appropriate approach to the management of tourism, but as time goes by, the crux of the issue has changed to various concepts such as environmental carrying capacity (Zhang & Xu, 2010), ecotourism carrying capacity, ecological carrying capacity (Wang, 2010), recreation carrying capacity and environmental tourism carrying capacity. However, the focal point of the varied definitions is still primarily both the tourism and environmental dimensions.

Tourism carrying capacity (TCC) refers to the highest number of visitors who can visit a tourist destination at any one time, without damaging the physical, economic and socio-cultural environment and no unnecessary reduction in the

visitor satisfaction level (Kyriakou, Hatiris, Kapsimalis, Sourianos, & Vandarakis, 2017). The same study also used Geographical Information System (GIS) as a supportive tool in the spatial analysis to provide a policy framework. On the other hand, environmental carrying capacity (ECC) refers to a specific environment's ability to withstand pollutants and when combined with the ability to sustain exploitable activities, it is referred to as ETCC. ETCC can therefore be defined as the highest limit of tourism activities that can be allowed in a regional environment without diminishing its physical, economic and socio-cultural aspects and compromising the standard of visitor satisfaction.

Components of ETCC

The ETCC model is deemed a multifaceted approach that comprises multidimensional components to ensure better tourism planning and management. A systematic analysis from a previous research was taken into account to develop the ETCC's systemic structure as detailed as possible to identify all dimensions relevant to tourism planning. While there has been no definite research on the ETCC model, many previous studies have worked on indicators to calculate the corresponding carrying capacity, in which case, are most likely linked. In this respect, three studies by different authors demonstrated an important link to each other. Thus, an ETCC survey model was developed based on these three studies (Lijun Zhang & Jianhua Xu, 2010; Wang, 2010; Coccossis & Mexa, 2004) to determine carrying capacity pertaining to the present study's objective. By identifying and isolating any identical trends of any metrics justified in those models, a content analysis of the three-layered model was achieved. In addition, in fabricating the ETCC survey model, the integration phase created a proactive framework to avoid inconsistencies that might occur.

The findings of the content analysis demonstrate that the ETCC survey model plays a role in four dimensions: 1) biophysical environment, 2) social-cultural climate, 3) political-economics, and 4) management of tourism facilities. The dimension of biophysical environment contains components of the built and natural environments. The biological capacity comprises effects on habitats and resources (Coccossis & Mexa, 2004), whereas the physical capacity applies to the built environment (Massiani & Santoro, 2012). Thus, the biophysical environment incorporates a variety of characteristics by integrating all the following aspects into one dimension: 1) water and hydrology, 2) air, 3) topography, 4) climate, 5) fauna/wildlife, 6) vegetation, and 7) pollution.

As a general concept, the social carrying capacity is used to determine both the levels of host population tolerance and the standard of visitor experience in a specific location (Coccossis & Mexa, 2004). The cultural element is closely linked as well as the concern lies with the local community as the host. Thus, the social-

cultural dimension focuses on 1) demography, 2) employment, and 3) social behaviour. On another note, political-economics refers to the effects of tourism on the local economic system as well as related and resulting activities for other industries, including competition (Massiani & Santoro, 2012). The attributes that fall under this category are: 1) revenue from tourism, 2) tourism spending, and 3) public expenditure. As tourism development places a strong emphasis on facility management for better control, tourism infrastructure is often regarded as a separate dimension from the other dimensions. The attributes of this dimension include: 1) tourist flow, 2) tourist facilities, 3) transport and mobility, and 4) tourist behaviour.

Royal Belum State Park (RBSP)

Royal Belum State Park (RBSP) is situated in the Belum Temenggor Forest Complex (BTFC), near Gerik, Perak, and shares borders with Halaba National Park, Thailand to its north, Kelantan forest complex to its east and Ulu Muda Forest Reserve, Kedah to its west (Abdullah, Chan, & Puad, 2011). The BTFC consists of virgin mountainous forests, mostly submerged under the man-made Temenggor Lake, which spans approximately 15,200 hectares as a result of the damming of several rivers in the 1970s for irrigation, water catchment and hydroelectric power generation purposes (Or & Tang, 2011).

Malaysia is one of the 17 mega-diverse countries that contain over 70% of the species of the planet, including several endangered species (Abdullah et al., 2011). Specifically, Malaysia is home to roughly 15,000 species of vascular plants, 229 species of mammals, 742 species of birds, 242 species of amphibians, 567 species of reptiles, over 290 species of freshwater fish and over 500 species of aquatic life, according to the Malaysian Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (NRE)(2016). RBSP and Temenggor Forest Reserve are also renowned for their diversity of ecosystems. RBSP has been designated (Abdullah & Chan, 2011) as one of Malaysia's Key Bird Areas (Kaur, Ong, Kim, & Chin, 2011) by BirdLife International, a priority tiger protection site by the National Conservation Action Plan 2020 (Or & Tang, 2011) and Environmentally Sensitive Area (ESA) under Malaysia's National Physical Plan. BTFC is also recognised as one of the Important Bird Areas (IBA) in the world (Abdullah et al., 2011).

Further, not only is RBSP home to an immense range of endangered flora and fauna species, it is also a sanctuary for 5,560 native or *Orang Asli* populations (Orang Asli Affairs Department [JHEOA], 2008 as cited in Or & Tang, 2011). There are three main groups, namely Negrito, Proto-Malay and Senoi that are divided into 18 sub-ethnic groups. A majority of the Jahai (sub-ethnic of Negrito) and Temiar (sub-ethnic of Senoi) form the community of indigenous people who live in BTFC.

Methodology

Questionnaire Survey

A questionnaire survey was designed to assess indicators in the ETCC survey model by gauging the relevance of each indicator. It consisted of a combination of close-ended and open-ended questions. Section A in the questionnaire survey collected data on the demographic profile of the respondents, their backgrounds and the fields they specialise in. Meanwhile, Section B assessed the three components of the ETCC survey model which are: Biophysical Environment, Social-Cultural and Political-Economics with straightforward close-ended questions, yielding “Yes” and “No” answers.

The fourth component, which is Tourism Facility Management, was also assessed in Section B, where the respondents were asked to rank a set of items using the Likert Scale (Yunus & Abdul Malek, 2013) with values ranging between 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 3 (Neither Agree Nor Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The rationale behind separating the components is that respondents actually rate their experiences when visiting a destination. A total of 30 sets of the questionnaire survey were distributed to participants of a 3-day field visit to RBSP organised by the Institute of Landscape Architecture Malaysia (ILAM). The questionnaire survey was distributed to the participants on their last day of visit. However, of the total 30 sets distributed, only 27 sets were returned. The respondents came from diverse fields of specialisation and work such as academics, local authorities, private sectors as well as non-governmental organisations.

Results and Discussion

Demographics

The breakdown of respondent age is shown in Figure 1. The average age of the respondents was between 31–40 years old (37%), 41–50 years old (29%) and 20–30 years old (26%). Those in the age group of below 19 years old and 51–60 years old made up 4% each.

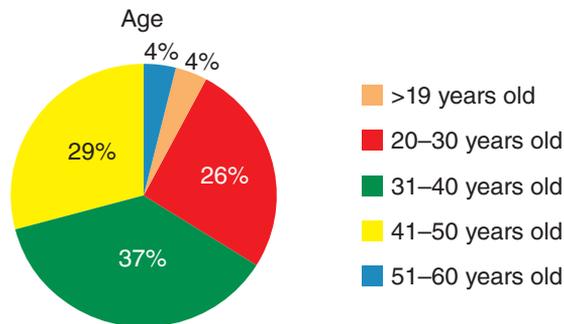


Figure 1. Breakdown of respondent age

The majority of the respondents came from the landscape architecture field (41%) while the second largest background field was education (26%). The rest consisted of those with environment and management backgrounds, at 15% and 7%, respectively. The others, the remaining 11%, were mainly with heritage and science backgrounds. Figure 2 illustrates the respondents' field of specialisation.

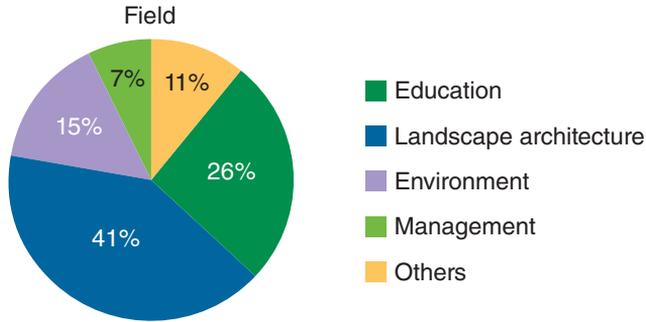


Figure 2. Breakdown on respondents' field of specialisation

In terms of years of work experience, a majority of 44% had more than 10 years' experience whereas 30% had between 4 and 9 years, and the rest, between 1 and 3 years. With the varied number of years of work experience and fields of specialisation, these respondents can be regarded as a critical stakeholder group. In the management planning context, the decision maker is always a stakeholder, whose interests and demands need to be considered in the managerial decision-making. Stakeholder analysis is one of the most broadly used techniques in dealing with management issues (Mushove & Vogel, 2005; Shen, Guo, & Xin, 2012). The analysis generates knowledge about stakeholders to understand their behaviours and interests, as well as assess the impacts they may place on the decision-making or implementation process (Rastogi, Badola, Hussain, & Hickey, 2010; Feng Fu, Wen Feng, Zheng Li, Crawley, & Weidou Ni, 2011; Wang, Ge, & Lu, 2012).

Indicator Screening

The ETCC model has four dimensions, which are biophysical environment, social-cultural, political-economics and tourism facility management, that govern its framework. The respondents were asked to examine the significance of each potential indicator to be incorporated into the ETCC decision hierarchy and whether the indicators have substantial impact on the development of the ETCC framework. For the biophysical environment dimension, 14 potential indicators were presented, of which 12 were significantly rated by the respondents to be included into the framework (see Figure 3).

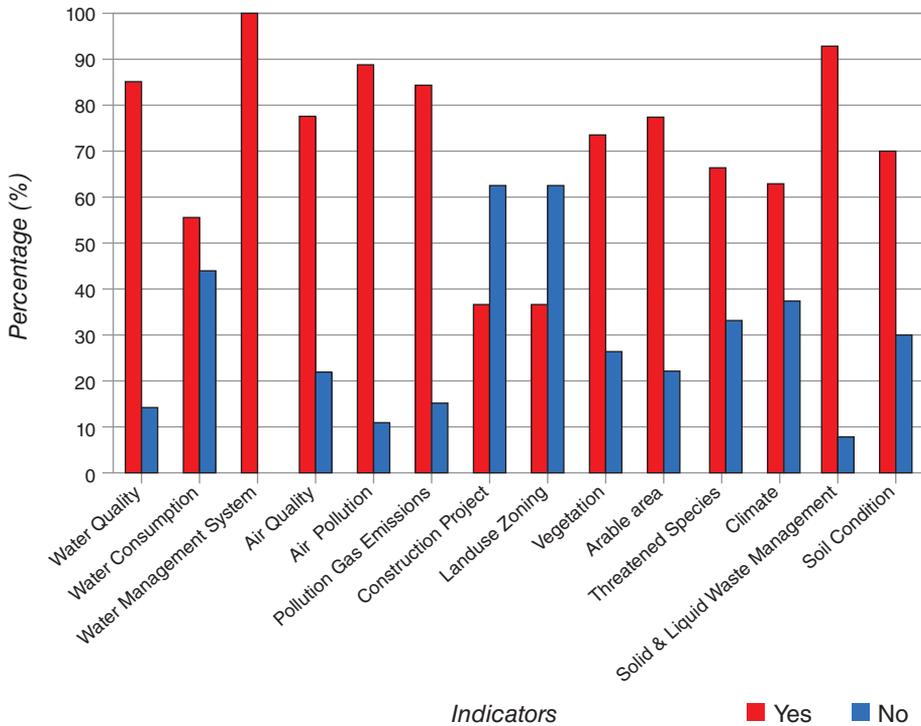


Figure 3. Selection of potential indicators for the Biophysical Environment dimension

The most preferred indicator, which was 100% selected by the respondents, was water management. The second highest potential indicator was waste management (93%), the third highest was air pollution (89%), followed by water quality (85%). These results corroborate with researchers who advocate that the water management system in national parks should be made a priority and always be protected by focusing on waste management which has always been an issue in national parks (Eagles & McCool, 2002). Once the waste is well managed and controlled by the park management and the water bodies in the park are kept clean and safe with regular enforcement, only then can the overall water resource quality be improved and preserved.

The second highest potential indicator, solid and liquid waste, is closely related to water quality of underground water resources and other surface water bodies, especially during the rainy season. Another key area of environment quality is air quality, with air pollution and gas emissions in Malaysia found to be critical (75–85%) including annual trans-boundary issues. It should be noted that the indicators used are closely similar to the physical-ecological indicators from TCC (Coccosi & Mexa, 2004).

For the social-cultural dimension, seven potential indicators were included in the questionnaire: local employment rate, migrant labour rate, moral conduct awareness, park's policy management, safety, criminality, and population density. The highest preferred indicators were moral conduct awareness and criminality, both of which garnered support from 96% of the respondents. This implies that the three potential indicators (moral conduct awareness, criminality and safety) are the most significant in maintaining the best level of ETCC being applied at Royal Belum State Park. However, 85% of the respondents were of the opinion that population density is the least important indicator to be included into ETCC decision model as supported by a study conducted by Massiani and Santoro (2012). The study highlighted an instrument used to execute a booking policy that redirects some of the visitor demand to non-peak periods. Similar initiatives can also be applied in RBSP to regulate the volume of crowd especially during peak season, in line with SDG 15's Life on Land and SDG 16's Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions. Further, Tang (2015) suggested that the key elements of regulation include environmental protection, infrastructure investment, professional training, tourism regulatory development, tourism enterprise and sustainable development model employees. These suggestions can be executed in RBSP by the management and stakeholder groups. Figure 4 illustrates the overall results for this dimension.

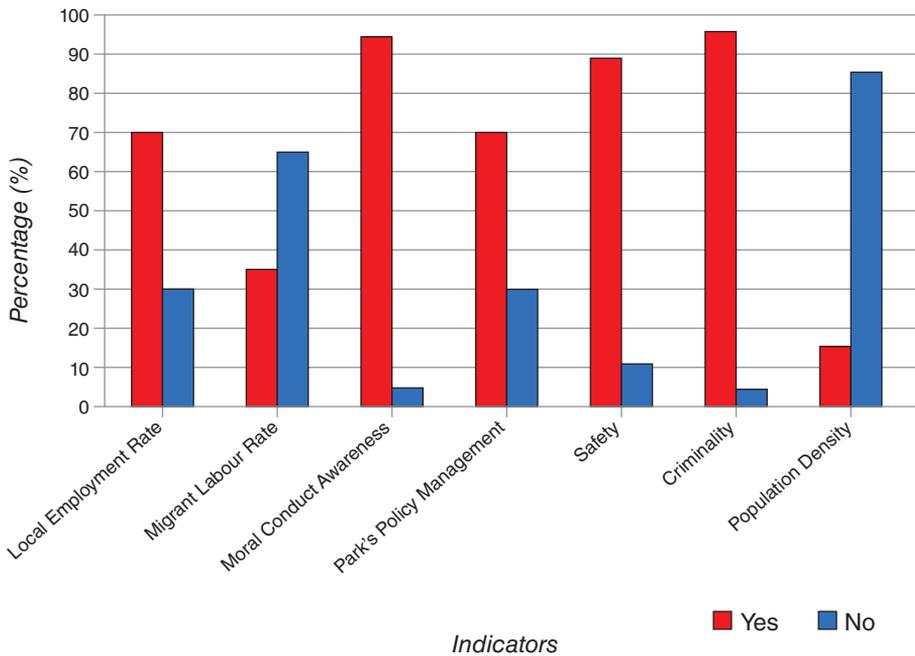


Figure 4. Selection of potential indicators for the Socio-Cultural dimension

In the Political-Economics dimension, which involves key economic elements related to the tourism sector, only five potential indicators were presented to the respondents. Amongst these, community profit received the highest vote from all respondents. The other indicators arranged according to the percentage obtained are: donations received (96%), GDP growth rate (92%), political stability (81%) and public expenditure (56%) as shown in Figure 5. It should be noted that political stability will indirectly improve GDP growth rate and public expenditure. Subsequently, this will lead to higher community profits and larger donations for RBSP. To elaborate further, overall public expenditure will increase gradually based on the number of visitors to RBSP as stated by Kim et al. (2013). With the successful implementation of the ETCC model in RBSP, this will bring in more economic activities and indirectly, increase the standard of living of the local community in line with SGD 8's Decent Work and Economic Growth and SGD 15's Life on Land.

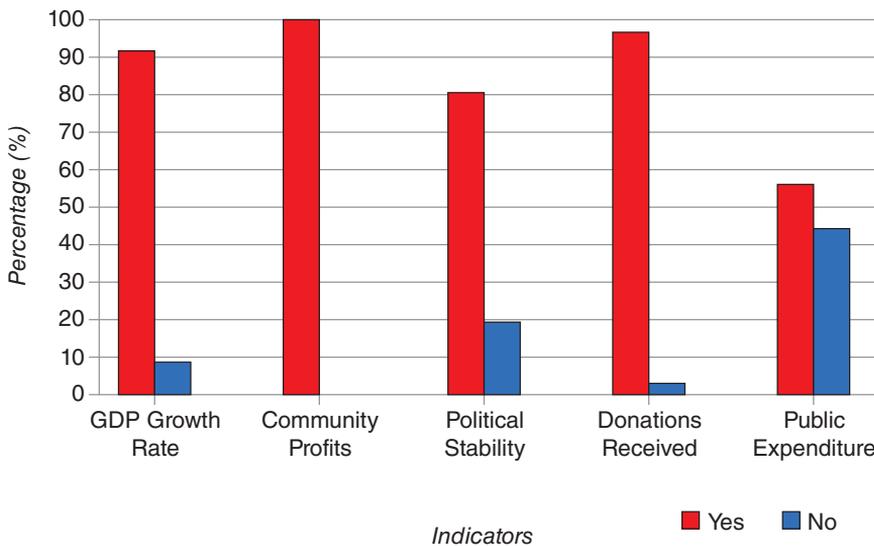


Figure 5. Selection of potential indicators for Political-Economics Dimension

The investigation of the fourth dimension, tourism facility management, utilised a different approach compared to the earlier three dimensions. The assessment involved an evaluation of the respondent's tourism quality experience to derive their preferred potential indicators. The evaluation required respondents to rank their experience using the Likert scale as described earlier. However, for easier understanding of the results, the results for scales 5 and 4 have been combined into one (Agree), in the same way the results for scales 2 and 1 were also combined into one (Disagree) (Refer Figure 6).

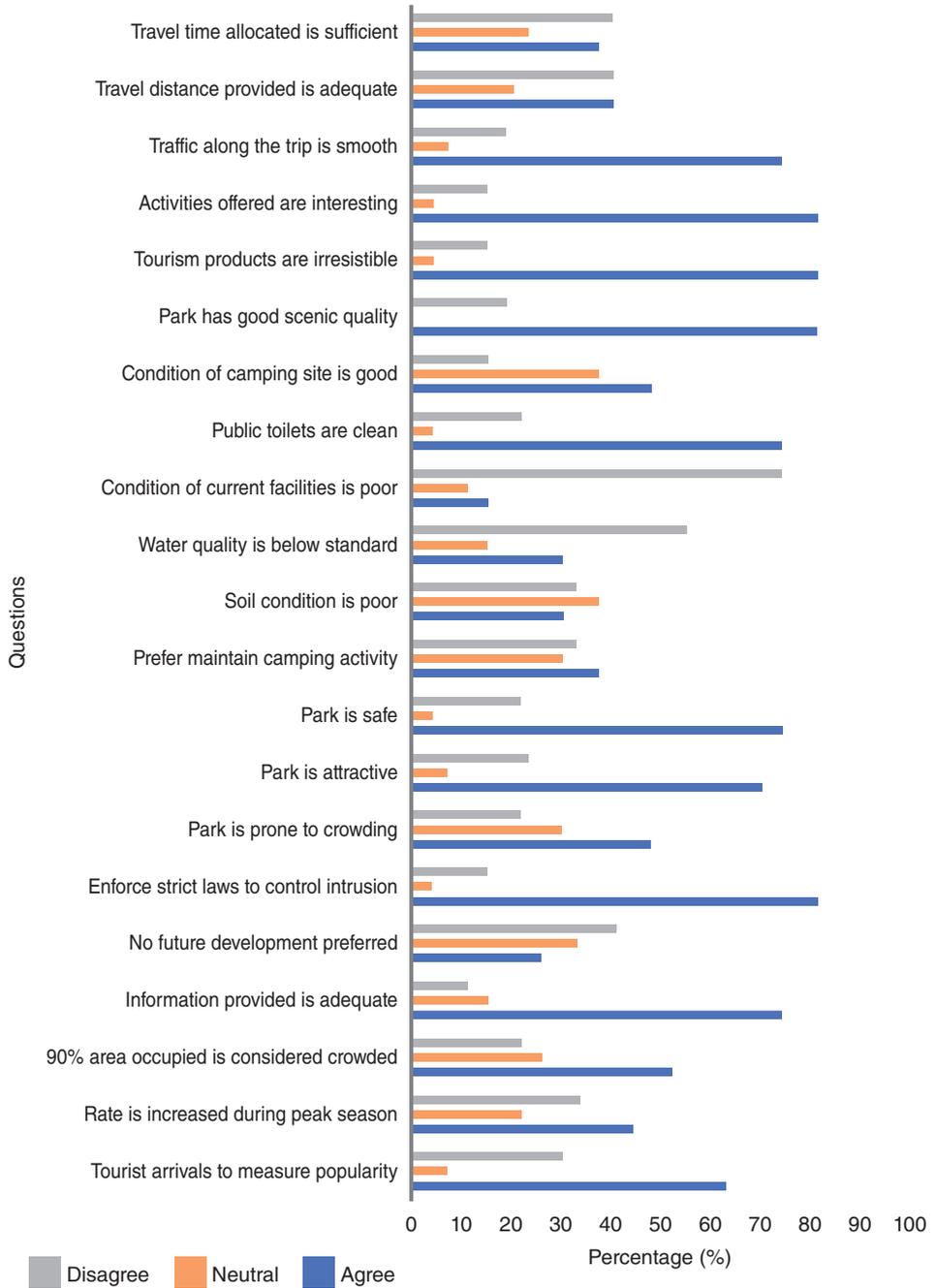


Figure 6. The tourist experience quality assessment

According to the results for this dimension, a majority of respondents (more than 50%) agreed on four indicators: strict law enforcement to control extensive intrusion, scenic quality of the park, the park's irresistible attractions and interesting activities offered in the park, with the highest (81%) being enforcement of strict laws to control intrusion at the park. In contrast, 74% of respondents agreed that the current facilities are in satisfactory condition. This aligns with the findings from Lee, Huang, & Yeh (2010) whereby the aforementioned four indicators are included in their crucial recreational forest attributes such as tourist attractions, accessibility, amenities, interesting activities on offer, clean public toilets, adequate information on park and complementary services.

The results are also in line with the work of Rajaratnam, Nair, Sharif, and Munikrishnan (2015) who found eight attributes that determine tourist satisfaction including amenities, accessibility and logistics, core tourism experience (natural beauty, weather, variety of attractions, etc.), hygiene, information, security, value for money and hospitality. The findings also support SDG 15 as ETCC can help control negative impacts towards flora and fauna, and the environment through enforcement, reduction of land degradation and incorporation of biodiversity protection in the national development planning.

Directions for Future Research

Future research should be devoted to the development of methods and approaches that can be used to quantify the identified indicators in detail, in the form of a manual. As stated earlier, the technical assessment of these indicators requires active involvement from experts and is time-consuming; regardless, the findings could prove strongly beneficial in aiding the management of parks using the ETCC framework. Furthermore, little analytical attention has been paid to investigate the current carrying capacity of RBSP, whether it is still within or has exceeded its critical range of capacity. The findings of such future research could provide the benchmark or baseline data for the park management to refer to as the park continues to offer tourism products whilst sustaining its natural resources.

Conclusion

The ETCC model has four dimensions that governs its framework: biophysical environment, social-cultural, political-economics, and tourism facility management. The evaluation of possible indicators to be included in the ETCC decision hierarchy has provided very interesting results and, as a pilot study, its goals have been met. The most important attributes for the Biophysical Environment dimension include water management, waste management and air pollution. While the highest favoured predictors for the social-cultural component is moral action tolerance and crime.

With regard to the political-economics dimension, public income and contributions were the top selections as potential indicators.

Finally, the top three favoured indicators for the management of tourism facilities are strict intrusion protection rules, good scenic quality, and availability of interesting activities. With the help of these findings, it is hoped that RBSP's park authority will be able to draw more visitors to the park whilst simultaneously, preserve its natural resources in the long run.

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Empirical Paper

Drivers for Green Leadership Among University Youths

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Abstract: The United Nation's 17th sustainable development goal (SDG17) calls for strengthening the means of implementing and revitalising global partnerships for sustainable development. This aspect can be explored even in the mini context of campus greening because without the cooperation of its main stakeholder—the youths—attempts to make a campus environmentally-friendly may be futile. To form a partnership with youths, we need to understand them. This study explores youths' motivation, interest, and attitude towards campus greening to model how to inculcate green leadership towards the campus greening agenda. A total of 2,139 responses were analysed. The results showed that four factors, namely individual characteristics, influencers, inspiring events, and circumstances, could inculcate green leadership among youths. Implications of the findings are discussed at the end of the paper.

Keywords: Drivers, eco-green, green leadership, green initiatives, Malaysian university, SDG17, youths

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Introduction

The SDG17 calls for strengthening the means of implementing and revitalising global partnerships for sustainable development (UN, 2015). In building, implementing, and maintaining sustainability, youths are the best partners and agents to promote sustainability agendas because they are our future. Hence, moulding youths into green leaders is one effective way to make them “partners” in agendas for sustainability. This is particularly true for university youths, since they are most exposed to education

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on environmental, social, and economic aspects of sustainability. Their involvement is, thus, crucial in order for more universities to become green campuses. Otherwise, implementing university goals will be difficult from the organisational psychology point of view (Glavas, 2016). This research aims to address this gap by determining the drivers of green support and leadership among youths in a university in the context of campus greening.

Campus greening is a relatively new concept in Malaysia, and which was unheard of a decade ago. It links to the concept of sustainable development within the context of a learning environment (Sima, Grigorescu, & Bălteanu, 2019) that addresses sustainability issues (e.g., environmental protection, waste management, sustainable development). Today, this concept is increasingly being embraced, and the university's role as an agent or a living lab for sustainability is becoming increasingly expected at both national and international levels. Many local universities, including Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM), and Universiti Malaysia Sabah (UMS), are actively implementing various green measures, programmes, and activities, coupled with awareness campaigns, in order to comply with the UI GreenMetric ranking requirements and other national award and recognition systems (Edwin & Muthu, 2021).

One of the main stakeholders of a green campus initiative is the youths, since they are the "life" of any university. Hence, their involvement in any of the university's goals is crucial, including the goal of becoming a green campus. Otherwise, from an organisational psychology viewpoint, the implementation of the university's goals will be difficult (Glavas, 2016). Only through cooperation and teamwork can an organisation such as a university improve its chances of success for any environmental-friendly initiative.

Beard (1996) implied that in the adult world, the everyday types of behaviours that occur in an organisation can be easily changed. However, environmental behaviour is known to require time to be inculcated, as education and training are necessary to enable individuals to see the "big picture" and obtain the skills needed to become part of the solution. The same is true for youths. A study in the context of travel by Kasim and Wickens (2020) concluded that there was a relationship between the awareness, attitude, and opinion of youths and their green tendencies. Nevertheless, the green awareness and attitudes of youths towards the organisations that they are part of (in this case, universities) are less known because not much information is available on environmental drivers or influencers, education techniques, programmes, or strategies that may be helpful in inculcating youths' support for organisations to achieve the goal of becoming environmentally-friendly.

This research aims to address the knowledge gap, concerning the drivers of green support and leadership among youths, within the context of UUM by asking these research questions:

Research Questions

1. How aware are university youths about green issues?
2. What are their attitudes towards green issues?
3. What are the factors that could drive or influence them to become leaders or champions of green issues?

These aspects were explored via understanding the drivers and barriers, and presenting a model for inculcating proactive youth green leadership.

Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM) was chosen as the study context because, as one of the top 10 universities in Malaysia, it is on a par with or better than other public institutions of higher learning, such as Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM) and Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM), in pledging strong commitment towards greening its campus. From its website (UUM, 2021), the drivers and determination of UUM towards campus greening are clear. The university's commitments are naturally the right course of action, since it has 473.56 hectares of forest reserve since 1984, of which 229.40 hectares remain untouched. The landscaping of UUM's campus also projects freshness, beauty, and rich diversity of big trees, shrubs, and flowers. Its ecotourism products and recreation activities, amplified by various measures to reduce air, water, and waste pollution, certainly add to the ambiance of a peaceful yet functional green campus setting that contributes to the peace of mind and productivity of all campus citizens.

Literature Review

Defining Youths

The most commonly used criterion for defining youths is age. According to Tourism Australia (2021), youths consist of males and females whose age ranges between 18 and 30 years old. The World Youth Student and Educational (WYSE) Travel Confederation defines the group as individuals between 16 and 24 years old, while the Youth Travel Market analyst categorises young tourists as those aged between 15 and 30 years old (as cited in Reisinger & Mavondo, 2002). Clearly, age 30 seems to be the cut-off for this tourist segment.

Engaging Youths in Green Leadership Programmes

It is important to understand the drivers or influencers for youth green leadership or advocacy towards green issues because Generation Y (born in the early 1980s to around year 2000) or millennials may have extremely different priorities and expectations, which require organisations or corporations to approach them differently (Lucore, 2015). Hence, it is essential to measure youths' awareness about

campus greening because how people consider their organisation can impact their behaviour (Glavas & Piderit, 2009). Glavas and Piderit (2009) even suggested it should never be assumed that everyone will be positively affected by an organisation if it is publicly considered good. Instead, there was a need to measure how aware people were about their organisation's image, and how they felt and thought about it.

Not much is written in the literature on drivers or factors that could influence green leadership among youths, which prompted this study to try and model the factors that could influence green leadership and advocacy among youths. Exploring the literature, it becomes apparent that leadership has been studied primarily from the adult leadership perspectives (MacNeil, 2006). Not much discourse is available on youth leadership, except in the form of projections of the future that highlight the importance of developing leadership skills via leadership development education (Covey, 2008; MacNeil, 2006; Morgan & Rudd, 2006b). The dearth of literature that do provide information on youth leadership seems to congregate under four themes, that is, individual or personal characteristics, influencers, events, and circumstances that surround youths (Covey, 2008; Fertman & Long, 1990; MacNeil, 2006; Mohamed & Wheeler, 2001; Morgan & Rudd, 2006a; Paul & Lefkowitz, 2006; Wallin, 2003).

Individual Characteristics as a Driver of Youth Green Leadership

Leadership is something that can be gained through self-efficacy (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 2002). Duke University Talent Identification Program (<https://tip.duke.edu/>) also concurs with this notion. Introduced in 1977 by Bandura, self-efficacy refers to individual characteristics or personality that show a sense of responsibility to accomplish certain tasks or solve certain issues. These characteristics could include a sense of independence, a willingness to take charge, sociability, being goal-oriented, receptiveness, being capable, and being knowledgeable. Many past studies attested to the importance of self-efficacy in leadership (Bandura, 1977; Watson et al., 2001). Hoyt, Murphy, Halverson, and Watson (2003) proposed that linking ability and performance could be done through self-efficacy. It was also a crucial ingredient of leadership and teamwork (Chemers, Watson, & May, 2000).

People or Influencers as a Driver of Youth Green Leadership

Woyach (1992) established that, in order to foster youth leadership, it was pivotal for adults to lead by example. Youths rely on adult leaders (van Linden & Fertman, 1998) to show them the ropes on how to develop their own leadership ability (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; van Linden & Fertman, 1998) and become good leaders. Parents are the main influencers of youths in making them independent, responsible, resourceful, and respectful towards others (Catalano et al., 2002; Covey, 2008; Paul & Lefkowitz,

2006). A study by Boyd (2001) affirmed that a good youth–adult relationship is important because youths learn well from adults who show them good leadership. They also flourish with adult validation of their leadership skills. The National FFA Organization (2006)—an organisation that offers leadership skill development courses, personal growth, and career success—reported that when youths took part in youth leadership programmes, positive relationships between their participation and their leadership skills were observed. This finding was consistently found in other studies (Dormody & Seevers, 1994; Rutherford, Townsend, Briers, Cummins, & Conrad, 2002). They found that the adult teachers of FFA programmes were often successful in influencing the development of leadership skills among their students by challenging the latter with activities related to personality development, organisation skills, coordination skills, and empowerment (Butters & Ball, 2006; Vaughn & Moore, 2000). Relationships in the context of school and community could also influence youth leadership (Catalano et al., 2002).

Events as a Driver of Youth Green Leadership

Bruce, Nicola, and Menke (2006) proposed that youth leadership programmes that were tailored to the learners' characteristics were useful in developing the youths' leadership. The events must also be full of hands-on experience that encourages the youths to think, so that they become fully immersed in the programmes (Nail, 2007; Wright, 2008). Kleon and Rinehart (1998) suggested that programme leaders should investigate participants' perception about a programme's impact, so that continuous adjustments could be made to the programme to ensure its continued effectiveness. Events that encourage leadership could enhance a youth's self-awareness and motivations (NASET, 2005). The events could also drive them to seek community engagement that could help them develop good network (Gootman & Eccles, 2002; Paul & Lefkowitz, 2006; Wallin, 2003). Researchers such as Costello, Toles, Spielberger, and Wynn (2000) proposed that events or programmes that failed to be learner-oriented, lacked concentration on factors influencing personal developments, and were not monitored or pursued would not be successful in developing youth leadership.

Circumstances as a Driver of Youth Green Leadership

Adolescence is indeed an impressionable time that changes a youth's cognitive, biological, emotional, and social development. This in turn influences the youth's behaviour and lifestyle preferences (CDC, HRSA, & NAHIC, 2010; Gootman & Eccles, 2002; Larson, Wilson, & Mortimer, 2002). Benson and Saito (2001) pointed to the exposure to appropriate resources and opportunities as such circumstances. Continuous exposure to real opportunities for skill development (Redmond & Dolan, 2014) and prior experiences in leadership (McCormick, Tanguma, &

López-Forment, 2002) could enhance youth leadership incrementally. Aside from continuity, the amount of exposure could also make a difference. As Morgan and Rudd (2006b) stated, the number of courses on leadership that a youth could complete in college relate to the number of leadership concepts he or she could learn. Groups who were exposed to leadership programmes had a better chance at becoming leaders compared to groups that were not exposed to such programmes.

Materials and Methods

The constructs and operational definition for the research variables were established using library-based reviews and the interview data. Using the cluster sampling technique, the samples required were determined and communication was initiated to seek participation in the survey. The estimated sample size was calculated based on the documented population size, which at the time of the fieldwork was found to be 16,923 people. The respondents of this study were the youths studying at UUM. Using information obtained from the Student Affairs Department, the number of students in each student residence was established as follows: 1,031 (MAS), 1,012 (TNB), 906 (Tradewinds), 979 (Petronas), 979 (Grantt), 1,053 (Sime Darby), 994 (TM), 786 (BSN), 754 (MISC), 984 (Proton), 1,601 (Bank Muamalat), 1,590 (YAB), 2,122 (Bank Rakyat), and 2,132 (SME Bank).

From this list, a proportionate sampling approach (with a target of 30% from each residence) was conducted to reach the target sample of 8,391 students, in order to give the study a 99% confidence level and confidence interval (CI) of 1 from the target respondents, that is, the undergraduates from each residence. Enumerators were trained before being sent to collect data to ensure proper implementation of the fieldwork. At the end of the fieldwork phase, 2,139 completed questionnaires, or an approximately 26% response rate, was obtained. This number was considered sufficient, as it fits the rule of thumb that no fewer than 50 participants are needed in any statistical analysis used to examine relationships (Green, 1991).

The instrument for this study comprised a survey using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = “Strongly disagree”; 5 = “Strongly agree”) and other questionnaires on leadership awareness, as well as guidance from Smith (1999), Green (1991), the United Nations Youth Strategy (2018), and The Young Leaders for the SDGs guideline under the United Nations (2018). The instrument was pre-tested to prove its measurement reliability and validity. Validity of the instrument was determined by: (1) using expert opinions, and (2) pilot testing the instrument on a small group of target respondents. Based on the pilot results, the instrument was revised and finalised. The final instrument was used to gather data that was then analysed using SPSS.

Results and Discussion

Data was gathered among 2,139 UUM students. Table 1 describes the demographic details of the respondents. They were aged 18 to 22 years old (78.4%), 23 to 27 years old (16.7%), and above 27 years old (5.0%). More than half of them were females (55.4%) compared to 954 males (44.6%). Almost all of them were single (94.8%) and unemployed (93.5%). Among them, 45.5% were first year students, followed by second year students (18.4%), third year students (25.1%), and fourth year students (11.0%). As much as 90.98% of the respondents were involved in an association at UUM, 71.6% were involved in sports, and 11.64% were involved in an association outside of UUM.

Table 1. Background of the respondents

Details	Frequency	Percentages (%)
Age		
18–22	1,676	78.4
23–27	357	16.7
Above 27 years old	106	5.0
Gender		
Male	954	44.6
Female	1,185	55.4
Marital Status		
Single	2,028	94.8
Married	111	5.2
Employment		
Unemployed	1,999	93.5
Employed	107	5.0
Owned a business	33	1.5
Year of Study		
1	974	45.5
2	393	18.4
3	536	25.1
4	236	11.0
Association involvement in UUM		
Yes	1,946	90.98
No	193	9.02
Sports involvement in UUM		
Yes	1,531	71.6
No	608	28.4
Association involvement outside of UUM		
Yes	249	11.64
No	1,890	88.36

Assessment of PLS-SEM Path Model Results for Factors Influencing Youth Green Leadership

This study used a two-step process recommended by Henseler, Ringle, and Sinkovics (2009) to assess and report PLS-SEM path model results for factors influencing youths to become green champions. Since the goodness-of-fit (GoF) index was not appropriate for the model validation (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler & Sarstedt, 2013) because it could not differentiate the valid models from the invalid ones (Hair et al., 2013), this study used the recommendation by Henseler et al. (2009), that is, the two-step process for the assessment and interpretation of the PLS-SEM path models. The two-step process comprises the: (1) assessment of the measurement model, also known as outer model, and (2) assessment of the structural model, also called an inner model (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2010; Henseler et al., 2009).

Assessment of the Measurement (Outer) Model

A measurement model assessment, also called outer model assessment, involves examining individual item reliability, determining internal consistency reliability, ascertaining convergent validity, and ascertaining discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2010; Henseler et al., 2009). These instructions of measurement model assessment were performed and interpreted (Figure 1).

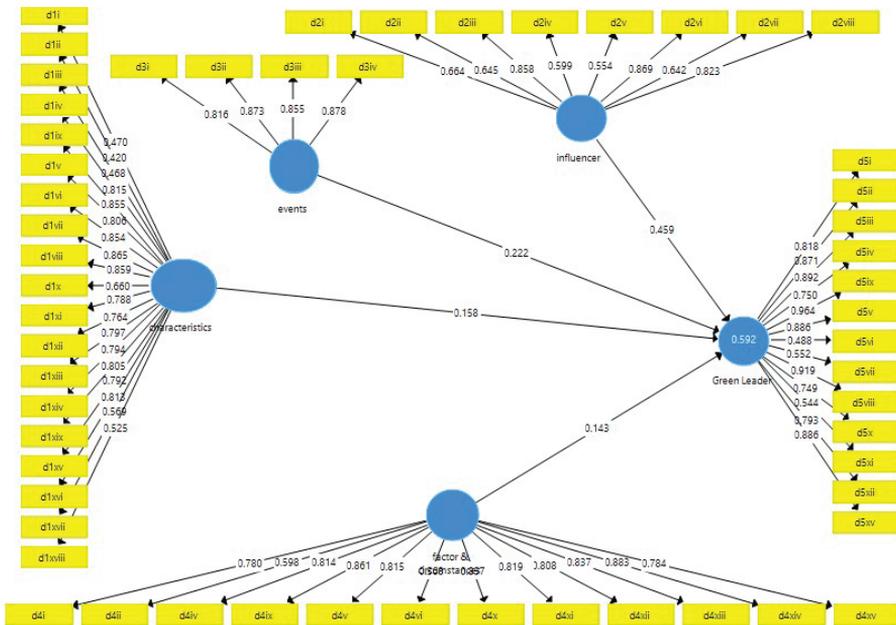


Figure 1. Assessment of the measurement model

Indicator Item Reliability

Initially, the indicator item reliability was determined by analysing the outer loadings of each construct indicators (items) (Duarte & Raposo, 2010; Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2012; Hulland, 1999). Based on the rule of thumb for retaining the items with minimum outer loadings between .40 and .70 (Hair et al., 2014), it was found that out of 63 items of the current study, seven items displayed loadings lower than the threshold of .40. Hence, 56 remaining items were retained in the whole model because these items had outer loadings that ranged between 0.420 and 0.964.

Internal Consistency Reliability

Internal consistency reliability refers to the extent to which all indicators on a particular (sub) scale are evaluating the same concept (Bijttebier et al., 2000; Sun et al., 2007). The most frequently used estimators of the internal consistency reliability of an instrument in organisational research are Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability coefficient (Peterson & Kim, 2013). Even though there are debates concerning the best technique to calculate reliability, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is the universal method used, although it may underestimate reliability (Hair et al., 2010; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). However, composite reliability (CR) is typically used in conjunction with SEM-PLS models, as this technique is more vigorous than Cronbach's alpha (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In this study, the composite reliability coefficient was selected to ascertain the internal consistency reliability of the measures (Table 2).

Table 2. Indicator loading, internal consistency reliability, and convergent validity

Latent Constructs and Indicators	Standardised Loadings	Composite Reliability (CR)	Cronbach's Alpha	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Characteristic		0.956	0.950	0.543
d1i	0.470			
d1ii	0.420			
d1iii	0.468			
d1iv	0.815			
d1ix	0.855			
d1v	0.806			
d1vi	0.854			
d1vii	0.865			
d1viii	0.859			
d1x	0.660			
d1xi	0.788			
d1xii	0.764			

Table 2 (con't)

Latent Constructs and Indicators	Standardised Loadings	Composite Reliability (CR)	Cronbach's Alpha	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
d1xiii	0.797			
d1xiv	0.794			
d1xix	0.805			
d1xv	0.792			
d1xvi	0.813			
d1xvii	0.569			
d1xviii	0.525			
Influencer		0.891	0.857	0.513
d2i	0.664			
d2ii	0.645			
d2iii	0.858			
d2iv	0.599			
d2v	0.554			
d2vi	0.869			
d2vii	0.642			
d2viii	0.823			
Event		0.916	0.878	0.733
d3i	0.816			
d3ii	0.873			
d3iii	0.855			
d3iv	0.878			
Circumstances		0.952	0.944	0.626
d4i	0.780			
d4ii	0.598			
d4iv	0.814			
d4v	0.815			
d4vi	0.568			
d4ix	0.861			
d4x	0.857			
d4xi	0.819			
d4xii	0.808			
d4xiii	0.837			
d4xiv	0.883			
d4xv	0.784			
Green Leader		0.955	0.946	0.628
d5i	0.818			
d5ii	0.871			
d5iii	0.892			

Table 2 (con't)

Latent Constructs and Indicators	Standardised Loadings	Composite Reliability (CR)	Cronbach's Alpha	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
d5iv	0.750			
d5v	0.886			
d5vi	0.488			
d5vii	0.552			
d5viii	0.919			
d5ix	0.964			
d5x	0.749			
d5xi	0.544			
d5xii	0.793			
d5xv	0.886			

The use of composite reliability coefficient against the Cronbach's alpha coefficient offers a much less biased estimate of reliability because Cronbach's alpha assumes all items equally contribute to its construct without considering the actual role of individual loadings (Barclay, Higgins, & Thompson, 1995; Götz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2010). However, the internal consistency reliability interpretation with composite reliability coefficient was built on the rule of thumb given by Bagozzi and Yi (1988), in addition to Hair et al. (2011) who recommended that composite reliability coefficient must be at least 0.70 and above. Table 2 earlier illustrates the composite reliability coefficients of the constructs, which range from 0.891 to 0.956, with each exceeding the minimum acceptable level of 0.70. This signifies satisfactory internal consistency reliability of the measures (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2011).

This study used three approaches to ascertain the discriminant validity issues. First, the 1981 Fornell-Larcker criterion was used to determine the discriminant validity using the AVE values. As per the recommended criteria, the square root of the AVE values should be greater than the correlations among the latent constructs. The findings revealed that the square roots of the AVE values of each construct were greater than the correlations among the latent constructs, thus signifying adequate discriminant validity of each construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Second, the Chin (1998a) criterion was used to determine the discriminant validity by comparing the indicator's loadings of each construct with the cross-loadings of other constructs of the current study. Based on the recommendation of Chin (1998b), the indicator's loadings should be greater than the cross-loadings in order to achieve the adequate discriminant validity (Grégoire & Fisher, 2006). The analysis revealed that each construct indicator's loadings were found to be greater than the cross-loadings, thus

representing the appropriate construct’s discriminant validity. Third, the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) criterion was used to assess the discriminant validity, as proposed by Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2015). According to Henseler, Hubona, and Ray (2016), the HTMT estimated the factor correlation, and in order to discriminate between two factors (constructs), the HTMT value should be lower than 1. If the HTMT value is lower than 1, this indicates that the correlation between the two factors (constructs) is different from one another, hence it should be differentiated. Moreover, if the HTMT value is greater than this threshold, then there is a lack of discriminant validity. In addition, some scholars recommended a threshold value of 0.85 (Clark & Watson, 1995; Kline, 2010), while others suggested a threshold value of 0.90 (Gold, Malhotra, & Segars, 2001; Teo, Srivastava, & Jiang, 2008).

Table 3 provides the summary statistics of the HTMT values of each latent construct. From the table, it can be seen that all the HTMT values are lower than the threshold value of 1, as well as the threshold values of 0.90 and 0.85 (Gold et al., 2001; Henseler et al., 2015; Kline, 2010; Teo et al., 2008). Hence, the table represents the overall acceptable constructs discriminant validity.

Table 3. HTMT correlation matrix for discriminant validity

	Green Leadership	Characteristics	Events	Circumstances	Influencers
Green leadership	–				
Characteristics	0.508	–			
Events	0.728	0.445	–		
Circumstances	0.195	0.101	0.041	–	
Influencers	0.798	0.546	0.879	0.036	–

Assessment of the Significance of the Structural (Inner) Model

After the measurement (outer) model assessment, the current study evaluated the structural model, also called an inner model. The study used the standard bootstrapping procedure with 5,000 bootstrap samples and 1,994 cases to estimate the significance of the path coefficients, as per the guiding principles (Hair et al., 2014, 2016; Hair et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2011; Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2012). Figure 2 portrays the assessment of the structural model using SmartPLS 3.2.6 (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015).

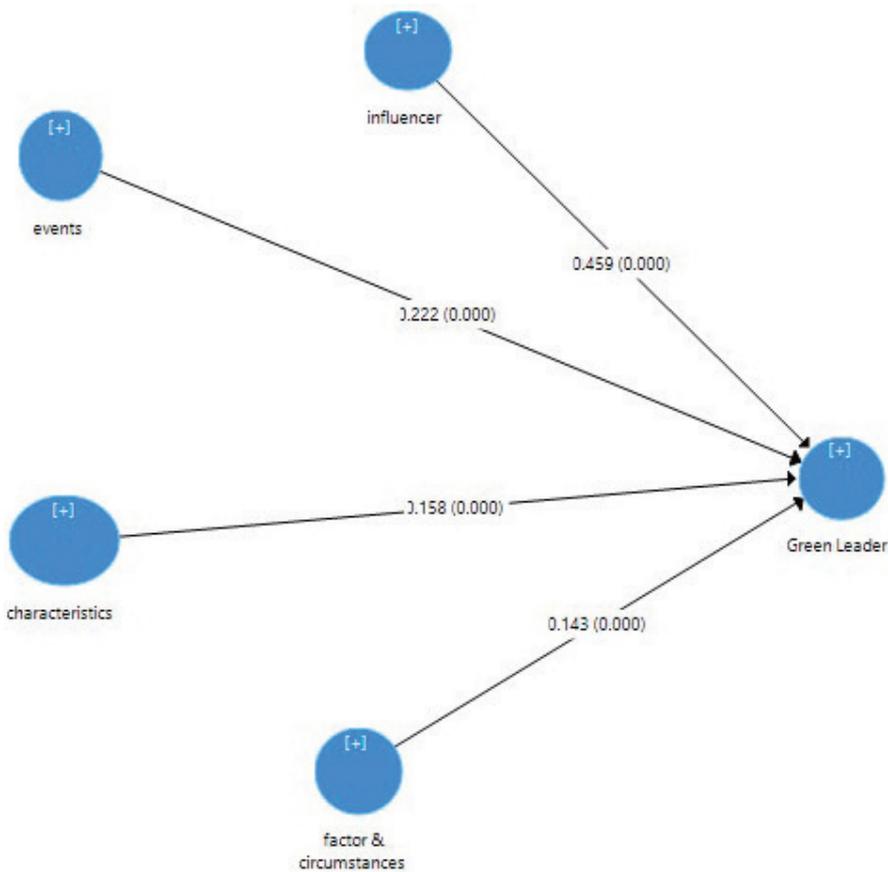


Figure 2. Assessment of the structural model with the mediation effect (full model)

Assessment of Variance Explained in the Endogenous Latent Variables

Another key criterion for evaluating the structural model in PLS-SEM is the value of R -squared (R^2 value), otherwise called the coefficient of determination (Hair et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2009). The value of R^2 indicates the extent of variation in the DV(s) that can be clarified by one or more predictor variable (Elliott & Woodward, 2007; Hair et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2006). Although the satisfactory level of the R^2 value is subjected to the research context (Hair et al., 2010), Falk and Miller (1992) suggested an R -squared estimation of 0.10 as the least adequate level. In addition, Chin (1998b) recommended R -squared estimations of 0.67, 0.33, and 0.19 as substantial, moderate, and weak, respectively. Table 4 presents the R^2 values of the endogenous variables (green leader or champion). It

shows that 59.2% of the total variance is in green leadership. This advocates that the four sets of exogenous latent variables (i.e., characteristics, influencers, factors and circumstances, and events) collectively explain 59.2% of the variance of the green leader or champion. Therefore, as a result of Falk and Miller’s and Chin’s criteria, the two endogenous latent variables showed acceptable levels of R^2 values, which were considered substantial.

Table 4. Variance explained in the endogenous latent variables

Latent Variables	Variance Explained (R^2)	R^2 Adjusted
Green Leadership	0.592	0.592

Assessment of Effect Size

Assessment of effect size (f^2) is another important step, after the assessment of the R^2 value in the structural model assessment procedure (Hair et al., 2016). The effect size is referred to as the changed R^2 due to the effect of a particular exogenous latent variable on an endogenous latent variable(s) (Chin, 1998a). It is also considered the increase in the R^2 value of the latent variable to which the path is connected, relative to the latent variable’s proportion of unexplained variance (Chin, 1998a). The following formula is used to calculate the effect size (f^2) (Cohen, 1988; Hair et al., 2016; Selya, Rose, Dierker, Hedeker, & Mermelstein, 2012).

According to Cohen (1988), the effect size (f^2) is considered suitable if the given values range between 0.35, 0.15, and 0.02, also described as large, moderate, and small effects. Table 5 presents the effect sizes (f^2) of the current study, as calculated using the given formula.

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{included} - R^2_{excluded}}{1 - R^2_{included}}$$

The results in the table show that the effect sizes (f^2) for latent variables on green leader or champion were relatively small (0.034 to 0.128).

Table 5. Effect sizes of the latent variables on Cohen’s (1988) recommendation

Latent Variables	f Squared (f^2)	Effect Sizes
Green Leadership	–	Small
Characteristics	0.044	Small
Events	0.034	Small
Circumstances	0.050	Small
Influencers	0.128	Small

Assessment of Predictive Relevance

The study also applied the Stone-Geisser test to determine the research model predictive relevance using the blindfolding procedure, specified as Q^2 values (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). In PLS-SEM, the Stone-Geisser test of predictive relevance is commonly used as an additional assessment of goodness-of-fit (GoF) (Duarte & Raposo, 2010). Moreover, the predictive relevance (Q^2) is a criterion, which is the measurement of how well a model predicts the data of omitted cases (Chin, 1998a; Hair et al., 2014). Following Hair et al. (2016) guidelines, the Q^2 values were obtained for the endogenous latent variables by using the blindfolding procedure for seven specified omission distance. Table 6 presents the construct cross-validated redundancy (Q^2) test results, where the construct cross-validated redundancy (Q^2) statistics for the endogenous latent variable of the current study were greater than zero, thus signifying the model predictive relevance in line with Henseler et al. (2009) and Chin (1998a).

Table 6. Construct cross-validated redundancy

Total	SSO	SSE	Q^2 Statistics (1-SSE/SSO)
Green Leadership	26,793.00	17,593.13	0.343

Table 7. Structural model assessment

Relationships	Beta	t	Sig.
Characteristics → Green Leadership	0.158	9.558	0.000
Events → Green Leadership	0.222	5.846	0.000
Circumstances → Green Leadership	0.143	10.298	0.000
Influencers → Green Leadership	0.459	12.308	0.000

Assessing the model structure revealed that all four factors, that is, personal characteristics, events, factors and circumstances, and influencers, could drive green leadership among youths (refer to Table 7). Characteristics of the individual, which relate to self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Catalano et al., 2002; Watson, Chemers, & Preiser, 2001), are associated with being knowledgeable, feeling respected, being a leader among peers, loving outdoors and nature, having the tendency to champion community concerns, and having the autonomy to act. These are important traits of a green leader. Being knowledgeable was also indicated in the ranking exercise as the most important internal factor for green leadership. These findings supported those of past studies on self-efficacy characteristics, particularly on being knowledgeable (Bandura, 1977; Chemers et al., 2000; Hoyt et al., 2003; Watson et al., 2001) as an important driver for youth green leadership. Therefore, building self-efficacy in each

individual or youth, especially in terms of environmental knowledge, is crucial in developing youth green leadership.

Influencers or people who influence are also a factor that contributes towards green leadership among youths. In this study, friends and celebrities were found to be the biggest influencers of green leadership. The findings supported past contentions that people who were able to lead by example (e.g., celebrities, adult leaders) (van Linden & Fertman, 1998) were the primary influencers of youths in making them independent, responsible, resourceful, and respectful towards others (Catalano et al., 2002; Covey, 2008; Paul & Lefkowitz, 2006). These were the people who could show youths the ropes of how to develop their leadership ability (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; van Linden & Fertman, 1998) and become good leaders. This study also proposes that peers or friends could also be influencers for youth green leadership. Perhaps having “leadership by example” or “mentorship” initiatives, activities, or programmes among peers could help more youths to embrace green leadership.

Meanwhile, the finding that events inspire youths to become green leaders points to events such as green campaigns (organised by an NGO) as being the most inspiring in green leadership. Hence, events to inculcate youth green leadership among university students may consider collaborating with relevant NGOs, such as the World Wildlife Fund (WWF) and Malaysian Nature Society (MNS)—not only are these NGOs credible, but they could also attract and inspire university youths to become more engaged in green issues, activities, programmes, or initiatives. Offering awards and recognition for youth involvement in green issues could further motivate them to champion green issues. At the same time, it is pertinent to ensure that these events or programmes are youth-oriented and can be continuously improved according to the needs of youths (Costello et al., 2000). These findings also highlight Bruce et al.’s (2006) contention on the usefulness of understanding learners’ characteristics in developing youth leadership.

The study findings also support own life circumstances as a driver or an influencer of green leadership among university youths. This is consistent with the contention of Benson and Saito (2001), Redmond and Dolan (2014), McCormick et al. (2002), and Morgan and Rudd (2006a) that circumstantial factors could influence youth leadership. Applying this to the context of green leadership, it is recommended that university youths receive continuous exposure to appropriate resources and opportunities to become green leaders (e.g., experiences and skill development efforts that are linked to environmental management and other green issues). Indeed, any future effort to inculcate green leadership among university youths should focus on: (1) enhancing self-efficacy among the youths, (2) ensuring that adults, particularly adult leaders and parents, demonstrate exemplary behaviour to youths in managing environmental issues, (3) exposing youths to events that could enhance

their environmental knowledge, and (4) providing youths continuous opportunities and experiences to help them become leaders. From the findings discussed, this study proposes the following model for factors influencing youth green leadership (Figure 3).

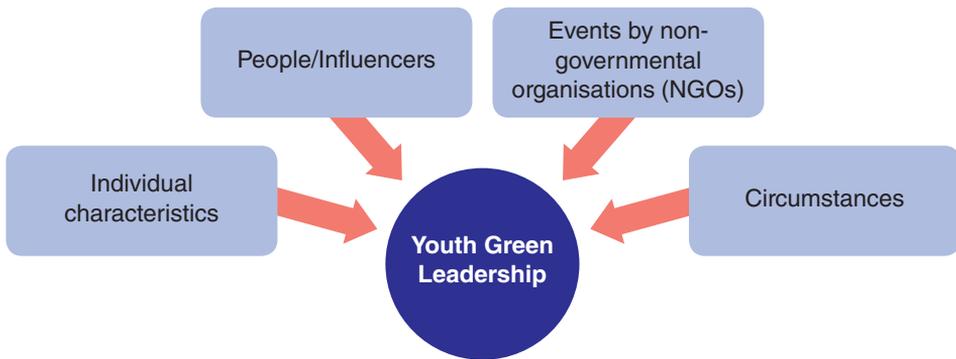


Figure 3. Model for drivers influencing youth green leadership

Conclusion

Overall, this study demonstrates that the factors found in past studies which drove youth leadership can also be applied to the context of green leadership. Hence, these factors should be nurtured and given emphasis in any future programmes aimed at inculcating youth leadership. This way, youths can be enlightened about environmental issues and, most importantly, become a strategic and reliable partner in realising the goal of SDG17.

On the other hand, the findings of this study only represent the youths in UUM. Thus, in order to have a more generalisable finding, it is recommended that future studies cover youths in as many public universities as possible, or even better, include those in private universities as well. It is also recommended that future research explore this topic qualitatively to provide the depth required to better understand the reasons behind the findings of this study.

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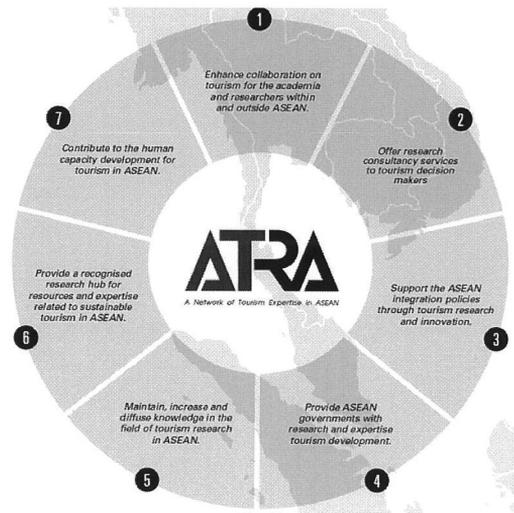
ASEAN TOURISM RESEARCH ASSOCIATION (ATRA)

ATRA or Asean Tourism Research Organization aims to support the ASEAN integration policies through tourism research and innovation, enhance collaboration on tourism for the academia and researchers within and outside ASEAN by establishing a network of tourism research clusters in Institutions of Higher learning from the region.

Mission and Vision

- Establishing a network of Tourism research clusters in ASEAN Universities.
- Developing links between ASAEAN researchers in tourism with common projects.
- Providing a recognized multi-site resource and expertise related to ASEAN Tourism.
- Contributing to the development of the Tourism Human capacity for ASEAN Countries.
- Supporting the ASEAN integration policies.

Objectives



Scope of Activities

In pursuance of the aims and objectives defined above the Association shall:

- Carry out research related to tourism in ASEAN.
- Organize seminars, forums, symposiums, exhibitions, workshops and conferences, carry out studies, research and raise issues in accordance with the objectives of the Association.
- Integrate, publish and disseminate materials, such as books, research reports and periodicals relevant to the tourism industry in ASEAN and other activities pertaining to the promotion of the objectives stated above.
- Maintain a database of tourism research expertise with a focus on ASEAN.
- Assist members of the association to find the right expertise and clusters for research collaborations in compliance with the objectives of the association.
- Accept and raise grants, endowments and financial support from available legitimate sources in support of its programmes and activities.
- Collaborate with other recognized associations or bodies within or outside ASEAN, which subscribe to the associations objectives.

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