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ITALIAN PUBLIC TOURISM SECTOR, BUREAUCRACY AND CHANGE MANAGEMENT PROCESS: FOUR BUREAUCRATIC ORGANIZATIONAL TYPOLOGIES

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Abstract: This study intends to identify factors that can aid the management of change in the Italian public tourism sector (IPTS). The bureaucracy in IPTS were analysed so as to identify organizational typologies and assess underlying management culture in order to pinpoint the elements that could influence the process of change. The study considered, within IPTS, two regions, one located in southern Italy (Campania Public Tourism Sector – CPTS), and the other in northern Italy (Tuscany Public Tourism Sector – TPTS). The specific data are the Ministry of Cultural Heritage and Activities and Tourism - MiBacT – 2017 and 24 privileged witnesses. The paper reports findings from research in progress. The data were collected through using a questionnaire and statistically analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0. The case study allows to identify different typologies of bureaucracy in IPTS (insensitive, sensitive, participated and proactive) and data show the correlation between managerial culture and change management in bureaucracy. The research was limited to only 2 Italian regions out of a total of 22. It is necessary to extend the research to the other regions located in the North and the South of Italy. Possible measures to address operational and cultural problems in the regions have been identified in further research at the national level, analysis of good practices and cross contamination of proactive managers with the participated and insensitive managers. This process can be identified as a change process for the IPTS. It is the first IPTS research paper on the CPTS and TPTS. The analysis may be extended to the entire country. Such a view rejects a stance whereby the bureaucracy could be regarded as ultimately unchangeable. It must instead be seen as under constant development and re-interpretation.

Keywords: Italian Public Tourism Sector, Campania and Tuscany, Factor Analysis, SWOT Analysis, Bureaucratic Theory, Quantitative and Qualitative Approach, Management

Introduction

The IPTS offers an ample chance for experimentation. Its strength is linked to the richness of natural, historical and cultural heritage assets of many regions. On the other hand, the organizational bottlenecks and the high incidence of political decision makers constitute the sector's negative features. A competitiveness-enhancing reform based on professional skills, management capabilities and training needs to be implemented but the process is still ongoing. IPTS, can be a driving force for local development. As an expanding sector, it dynamizes traditional economic activities and enhances local cultural specificities, offering people new opportunities for employment (Gartner C. Cukier J. 2012). Numerous studies (Garcia J.A. 2016) have shown that a timely analysis may be supportive to overcoming obstacles such as:

- poor understanding of local tourist (customer characteristics and market trends by local managers);
- overly large projects (the development of tourism products that can satisfy existing demand);
- adverse environmental impacts (pollution, degradation of natural sites);

- cultural problems (loss of "folklore", characteristics and specifics of the territory);
- managerial culture change management process, characteristics and specificities of the territories.

The purpose of this study is to identify the typologies of bureaucracy in public organizations, underlining the elements that are relevant for change management within CPTS and TPTS. This study examines productivity and efficiency related to the managerial culture. Attention is focused on two regions, one in the North and the other in the South of Italy, and the research outlines change management tools (Beer and Nohria, 2000; By, 2005) capable of contributing to the change management process in IPTS. Secondly, it aims at observing the extent to which the IPTS makes the implementation of organizational change specific. The bureaucracy (Crozier, M. 1964) represents a classic in change management (Merton, 1949; Elliott, J. 1997; Bevir, M. 2009; Hall, C. M. 2005). A change management process in bureaucratic public organization entails realizing strong management procedures that require specific skills, culture, and innovative (Hsu, Tan, Jayaram, Laosirihongthong 2014) attitudes. The managerial culture (Calantone, Gonzalez-Padron, and Hult 2008; Bina 2012) represents a driving factor in motivating and shaping employee behavior (Merton,1949; Kanter,1985; Elliott, J. 1997; Raharjo K., Nurjannah, Solimun and Adji A. R. F., 2018). Many authors have suggested that the specificity of public organizations may have effects on change management (Coram and Burnes, 2001; Isett, Glied, Sparer, and Brown, 2012; McNulty and Ferlie, 2004), but there is little empirical evidence regarding the issue of the bureaucracy. Several studies (Boyne, 2006; Karp and Helgø, 2008; Kickert, 2013; Klarner, Probst, and Soparnot, 2008; Rusaw, 2007) stress the matter and context of change, instead of the achievement process. In this way, Kuipers et al. (2013) underline that many studies did not approach the outcomes of a change management (Fernandez and Pitts, 2007; Kickert, 2010). The implementation of change management is strongly dependent on the support of managers. The managers' support is strategic for the evaluation of the degree of change in the entire organization (Gill, 2002; Higgs and Rowland, 2005; Karp and Helgø, 2008; Kotter, 1996). IPTS typically operates under a strict legal framework and strict accountability requirements (Rainey, 2003). Because of this, IPTS tends to avoid risks by formalizing the operations and centralizing decision-making in the organization. These are two of the main features linked to the bureaucracy (Mintzberg, 1979). The research allows to identify four different bureaucratic organizational typologies (insensitive, sensitive, participated and proactive) and different manager cultures (Perrow 1969; Nunkoo, R. and Smith, S. L. J. 2013, Ruhanen, L. 2013). It is necessary to extend the research to the other Italian regions located in the North and the South of the country for an accumulation of knowledge to improve the analyses and performances of IPTS and its bureaucracy.

Literature Review

The management of change process is a central topic in the broader issue of the bureaucracy. However, the achievement processes to implement organizational changes in bureaucracy have not received enough attention in academic research (Ongaro E.,2010; Raharjo K., Nurjannah, Solimun and Adji A. R. F., 2018). These issues are present also in IPTS (Boyne, Farrell, Law, Powell, & Walker, 2003; Kickert, 2007; Ongaro, 2010; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004; Tribe, J., and Liburd, J. 2016; Lamers, M., Van der Duim, V. R., and Spaargaren, G. 2017; Raharjo K., Nurjannah, Solimun and Adji A. R. F., 2018). As result, the achievement processes of change management at the regional level have not been properly developed in a lot of Italian geographical areas. Instead the theory on change management has usually been developed on private sector research applying the theory in a context-sensitive way during a change management process (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Pettigrew, Ferlie, & McKee, 1992; Pettigrew, Woodman, & Cameron, 2001) but unfortunately not in the context-sensitive way of bureaucratic theories (Kuipers et al., 2013). Despite the attention being paid to the Italian

bureaucracy, the literature has showed two considerable limits. The first is linked to the presence of a lot of studies based on qualitative methods (Ongaro E., 2010). Such studies emphasize the importance of the general framework at the national level of change management rather than on the implementation of achievement processes related to bureaucracy. A second limit regards the lack of empirical evidence concerning the specificity of change management of bureaucracy in IPTS. In this study for a better accumulation knowledge both topics have been dealt.

Bureaucracy and processes of change

In the years, many studies have examined the influence of managerial cultural factors on the outcomes of change management in the bureaucracy (Marcoulides and Heck 1993; Rosenthal and Masarech, 2003; Warrick, 2017). The studies on managerial culture within the bureaucracy have an old tradition. Starting from a classic approach, Weber (1922) distinguished eleven basic features of managerial culture in the bureaucratic public organization, but it is possible to reduce them to three main characteristics: *hierarchy* - each employee has a clearly defined role within a division of labor and his performance is evaluated by a direct superior. *Continuity* - the office constitutes full-time employment with a related salary and eventual possible perspectives of career. *Impersonality* - the work is conducted according to a general framework and checked by a superior. With reference to rational managerial culture, Simon (1947) argues that *"In the process of decision those alternatives are chosen which are considered to be appropriate means of reaching desired ends. Ends themselves, however, are often merely instrumental to more final objectives. We are thus led to the conception of a series, or hierarchy, of ends. Rationality has to do with the construction of means-ends chains of this kind"* (H. A. Simon, 1947). Crozier (1964), suggests that bureaucratic public organizations are characterized by the presence of a set of vicious circles and find their source in centralization and impersonality of the managerial culture: *The development of impersonal rules* - in order to be rational and democratic, bureaucracies try to develop a set of impersonal rules to cover all possible actions. The result, according to Crozier, is that hierarchical relationships weaken in the decision-making process and the bottom-up and top-down communications lose the power to govern the lower levels. *The centralization of decisions* - in order to maintain the impersonal nature of decision making, it is necessary to guarantee that the decision maker is protected from the influence of those who are affected by such decisions. The result is that there is no direct solution to the problem, within the organization, and furthermore the organization does not develop a knowledge oriented to the problem solution. In this way the decision-making process is delegated to some impartial central body. *The isolation of strata and group pressure within strata* - delegating to an impartial central body entails creating an organization that consists of a series of isolated strata. Within the strata is possible to underline two main characteristics: the first is that it represents the only defense for the individual against demands from other parts of the organization and the second one consists in allowing each group some degree of control over their own domain. The result is a mismatch between the single strata goals and the wider outcomes of the organization. *The development of parallel power relationships* - it is linked to the impossibility of the organization to check each stratum and group, furthermore the constant addition of impersonal rules and the progressive centralization of decision making create a strong uncertainty for the decision makers. The result is the creation of parallel power structures that give groups or individuals, in certain situations, disproportionate power in an organization.

A Bureaucratic public organization, according to the above-mentioned studies, is conceived as an organization that emphasizes hierarchy, rules, impersonality, routine and non-merit-based employment. Following these studies Weick and Quinn (1999) argue that the first step in implementing a management process change consists in an unfreezing of the principles of the

bureaucracy. Miner (1978, 1993,2005) proposes different organizational typologies highlighting the role of managerial culture also in the bureaucracy (Spangler, Tikhomirov, Sotak and Palrecha, 2014). The term, in Italy, is more often used to refer to the negative aspects of an organization rather than to the ideal organization type. This study, starting from the above described theories, intends to develop typologies of the bureaucracy in IPTS, underlining the role played by the *culture of* managers in paving the way for management change. The processes of change management allow the identification of different typologies of organizations underlining the importance of the influence of managerial culture in a bureaucratic public organization.

Case Study

Italian public tourism sector
Natural, archeological and cultural heritage assets of Italy are outstanding. National figures, concerning sites available to tourists can be synthesized as follows:
- 3.607 Museums;
- 802 Monuments;
- 330 Archaeological Sites.

More than 70% are owned and managed by the public sector. If the number of tourists is considered by geographic typology (Italian Tourist Council 2017), art cities are second only to seaside resorts:
- 38% seaside;
- 30% cities of artistic and historical interest;
- 15% mountain resorts;
- 8% lake resorts
- 4% hill and various resorts.

Annually, the three most visited public sector attractions are:
- The Colosseum, the Palatine Hill, and the Roman Forum;
- Excavations of Pompeii (Campania);
- Uffizi Gallery, (Florence, Tuscany).

In this context, we analyze the two regions with the largest number of tourist visits: Campania and Tuscany.

Case study context
In Europe, it is a cliché to state that the demand for tourism services has increased significantly over the last few decades. Many public organizations (Etzioni, 1964) have recognized (Chemin, 2016) a potential for adding to tourism supply in areas that were previously not considered attractive destinations (Aaker, Kumar, Day, 2003) for tourists. At the local level, (Beirman, 2003) particularly in Southern Europe, tourism has often been seen as a means of generating economic prosperity (Gartner, 2000) and playing a role previously attributed to manufacturing. Additionally, tourism can enable public authorities to achieve a variety of social objectives, such as improving employment (Commission of the European Union, 2016) and the physical environment of an area (Giddy J. K. & Webb N. L. 2016). CPTS and TPTS are within this track, in fact these two regions are driving for development of new investments by the European Union and other public actors that are changing the old manufacturing areas into the new and competitive tourist arena. (Hong W.-C. 2009). In this context (Aram, 2013) two different areas of the IPTS will be investigated. The IPTS is illustrative of the different, disjointed interests between administrative, organizational and managerial aspects (Simon, 1947). The IPTS must interact with the surrounding economic and social environment for which it should regulate the social (Merton, 1949) and economic processes. The IPTS is not the result of the simple addition of the performance of all units. On the contrary, it depends on the relationship, which exists among all tourism sector units, and the managers' decisions linked to it, among the

different economic and social goals and between these and the organizational and managerial actions (Thompson, 1967) of visible hand. To start from this assumption means abandoning the "one best way" of a tourism sector and replacing it within a change management process (Perrow, 1969). Campania, for e. g., has a very favorable climate and natural resources. The morphology favors the coastal area where the main points of interest are situated. The coast presents four gulfs including the one of Naples, which offers an excellent view of one of the active volcanos in continental Europe. Furthermore, secondary volcanic phenomena like hot springs are still present in the Neapolitan area like the Phlegrean Fields. Islands like Ischia, Procida and Capri are quite close, easily accessible via boat or hydrofoil from different parts of the coast and especially Naples port. There are many UNESCO sites throughout the region, including the recent addition of Naples' historical city center. However, tourists who distribute wealth when visiting the region also require quality services during their stay. In certain cases, such as Pompeii and Capri, natural cultural attractions are complemented by quality services, which are also the result of management, professional skills and staff training. The specific statistical data concerning Campania is represented in Table 1. Particular, attention is addressed to the negative score concerning:

- presence variation – 11%;
- variation in Gross revenue, -12%;
- variation sector revenue, -5% foreign and -3% domestic.

Table 1 The specific statistical data concerning Campania

Territory	Accommodation
Area Km^2 13.595.34 Resident population 5.831.461 Provinces 5 Municipalities 551 Density of inhabitants per Km^2 428,15	Beds 198.234 Public sector beds as % of total (%) 5,7
Mobility	**Presence of paying tourists**
Airports 2 Railway km 1.252 State motorways km 1.285 Highways km 383 Ports 28	Total presences 18.368.280 Foreign (%) 40,6 Main nationalities of inbound tourists USA - UK – D Average stay (days) 2,1 Presence variation 2016/2010 - 11% Total in Italy 98.602.605
Gross revenue	**Sector revenue**
State cultural heritage (Euro) 31.362.067 Total in the South 34.038.022 Variation 2016/2010 - 12% Total in Italy 135.508.666	Variation 2016/ 2010 - 5% foreing Variation 2016/2010 - 3% domestic

Data elaborated from source: MiBacT 2017

The SWOT (Strength, Weakness, Opportunities and Threats) Analysis is an overview of IPTS. It involves the assessment of business organization's internal strengths and weaknesses, its opportunities for growth and improvement and the threats to its survival caused by the external environment. The SWOT analysis below synthesizes the sector in Table 2. It underlines structural problems linked to Threats, particularly:

- presence of investments from illegal revenue;
- long term emergencies in waste disposal issues and relative negative media impact.

About these problems regional action was implemented but results are disjointed and not effective.

Table 2 SWOT analysis Tourism Sector in Campania

Strength	Weakness
- youth accommodation - food and beverage Tours - cultural visits	- concentration of offer in certain areas, Naples and Salerno - inadequate value for money
Opportunities	Threats
- acquisition of certified brands of typical and protected products - acquisition of cultural events	- presence of investments from illegal revenue - long term emergencies in waste disposal issues and relative negative media impact

Our elaboration from TAB 1 source: MiBacT 2017

Tuscany has a very favorable climate and is rich in natural resources. The morphology favors the coastal area where most of the plains are situated. Tuscany has a triangular shape with a west coast on the Tyrrhenian Sea. There are mountain ranges that surround and cross the region and some fertile plains. Florence, Pisa and Empoli are among the most important Tuscan cities and are situated on the banks of the Arno River. In the inland areas there is tourism linked to agriculture because of the typical wine and food products. The islands, Elba and Giglio, are quite near and easily accessible, via boat or hydrofoil from different parts of the coast but mainly the port of Piombino. There are many UNESCO sites throughout the region. The specific statistical data concerning Tuscany is represented in **Table 3**. Particular attention is addressed to positive score concerning:

- presence variation +17%;
- variation Gross revenue + 37%;
- variation Sector revenue, foreign + 18%, domestic + 14%.

Table 3 The specific statistical data concerning Tuscany

Territory	Accommodation
Area Km^2 22.994 Resident population 3.753 million Provinces 10 Municipalities 279 Density of inhabitants per Km^2 163	Beds 187.881 Public sector beds as % of total (%) 7.7

Mobility	Presence of paying tourists
Airports 3 Railway km 1476 State motorways km 1254 Highways km 641 Ports 41	Total presences 44.000.00 Foreign (%) 47,5 Main nationalities of inbound tourists USA - UK – D Jap - China Average stay (days) 4,7 Presence variation 2016/2010 17% Total in Italy 98.602.605
Gross revenue	Sector revenue
State cultural heritage (Euro) 38.392.097 Total in the north 44.138.822 Variation 2016/2010 37% Total in Italy 135.508.666	Variation 2016/ 2010 18% foreign Variation 2016/2010 14% domestic

Data elaborated from source: MiBacT 2017

The SWOT analysis below synthesizes the sector in Table 4. It underlines structural problems linked to Threats, particularly:
- coastal erosion;
- worsening conditions of the sea water.

Concerning these problems regional and national action was implemented but results are disjointed and not effective.

Table 4 SWOT analysisTourism Sector in Tuscany

Strength	Weakness
- Cultural and natural heritage - Agricultural production quality and certified, and the food and wine - Brand "Tuscany" & Tuscan cities inland Presence of numerous territories certified	- Lack of a network of urban and suburban public transport - Lack of public aggregation places - Depopulation and aging population seasonality
Opportunities	Threats
- Increase the synergies between territories (coast-hinterland) - Possibility to exploitate alternative types of tourism/tourism products differentiated but complementary - Exploiting the demand for green tourism	- Loss of traditions and identity - Coastal erosion - Worsening conditions of the sea water.

Our elaboration from Tab 3 source: MiBacT 2017
Campania and Tuscany are representative of ITPS with more than 1/3 of total presences.

Northern vs southern IPTS

A change in the relationship between the northern and southern Italian public sectors (Ouerfelli, 2010) is necessary. These changes can affect the attractiveness of destinations and

the consequences of tourism development on social and physical environments (Chen, Var, 2010). New logic and change management processes are linked to the application of bureaucracy theory in the IPTS (Blackman D., Kennedy M. & Ritchie B. 2011). Such issues, include:

• the characteristics of the tasks that the public tourism sector is supposed to carry out;
• the normative foundation of their work and;
• in this context, some strategic organizational and managerial elements are considered in order to improve management and managers. These elements are referred to the task context and the normative context.

The task context

The tourist's experience is typically produced by two circuits. The first relates to travel patterns and motivations. The second is more diffuse and complicated. It concerns the local managers' goal for which the specific services can be seen as a means and an end. In this latter approach, tourism is not about an individual's concerns, but rather about the reproduction and development of their country's culture. In this way, IPTS carries out both aggregative and integrative functions. On the one hand, it must take as a point of departure the citizens' needs (aggregation); on the other, it socializes and regulates the citizens' behavior (integration).

The normative context

The normative context contains the considerations, principles and demands to which the managers must generally relate. Therefore, there are varying elements, all of which can be seen as restrictions on internal processes and the way in which services are produced and distributed. The issues are related to resources use, productivity, efficiency and quality of services.

Methodology

Starting from data MIBACT 2017, Table 1 and Table 3, the SWOT analysis results, have been presented in Table 2 and Table 4. The SWOT analysis has been utilized to build up open interviews with 24 privileged witnesses, 12 CPTS and 12 TPTS, 4 for each of the 3 areas: coast, middle, inland, that make up the sector. The decision to divide the region into three main areas is dictated by the different orientation of the management culture (Schein, 1985) concerning the privileged witnesses. From these interviews were emerged the following strategic variables (Blau, 1971).   Motivational factors and working organization are essential, knowing how and why to motivate employees is an important managerial skill. Furthermore, IPTS legislation is strategic (Ruhanen L. 2008) in order to formulate a legal and regulatory framework for the sustainable development and management of tourism. Job stability (Lillo-Bañuls A. & Casado-Díaz J. M., 2015), is also an important element. Furthermore, investment in information technology (ICT) (Torrent-Sellens J., Ficapal-Cusí P., Boada-Grau J. Vigil-Colet A. 2016), the role of private organization (Tse T.S.M. & Prideaux B. 2017), the allotment of duties and managerial culture are major human factors (Prayag G. & Hosany S. 2015) at the organizational level. Furthermore, by privileged witnesses has been possible Fig. 1 that show the IPTS. From the emerged variables by the interviews to the 24 privileged witnesses, a sample of Italian public managers was selected during May 2017, the interviews started during September 2017. The high number of managers in two different regions and in different areas in the regions, 800 in CPTS and 800 in TPTS required significant amount of time in order to establish contact and make visits.   A large proportion of the interviews (70 per cent) was undertaken in the Local public agencies of the two regions conducted inside the organization and the remainder (30 per cent) by skype interview. From Fig.1, it can be said that the two regions are characterized by:
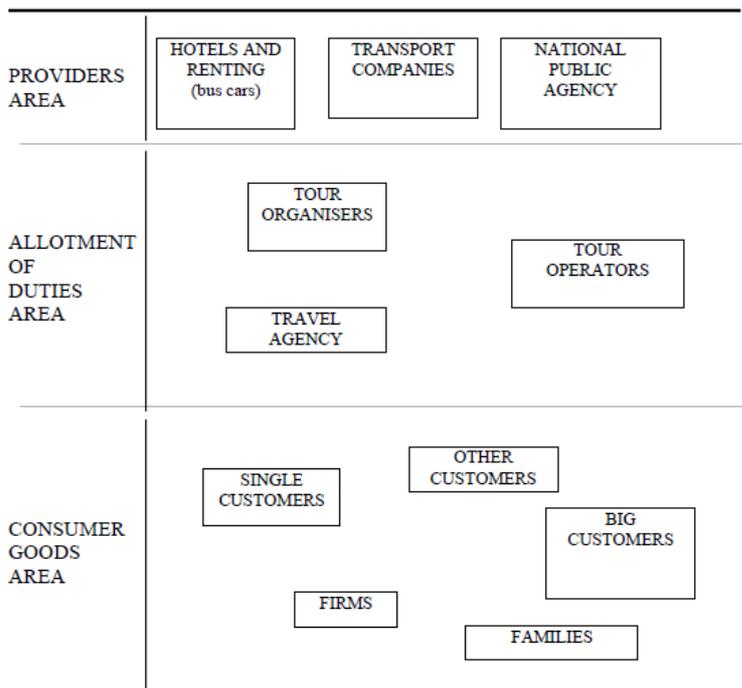
Fig. 1. Italian public tourism sector (our elaboration from source Mibact 2017)

• the presence of one large public agency in each region and the presence of few large companies (provider area, see the SWOT analysis Table 2 and 4);
• the presence of small firms (allotment of duties area, see the SWOT analysis Table 2 and 4) with at most ten employees and,
• the presence of a consumer goods area (see Table 1 and Table 3).
The first and second areas (see Fig. 1) have been investigated using a questionnaire that takes into account three different context of analysis:
• social background variables;
• productivity variables;
• efficiency variables.

The second and third parts of the questionnaire comprised 30 pre - developed, 15 for each part, Likert statements, designed to measure the productivity and efficiency variables. Specifically, respondents were asked to indicate the level of criticity on a seven-point scale, ranging from "strong criticity" (7) to "low criticity" (1) by different items of the second and third parts. The 30 Likert statements were explored by principal components factor analysis and varimax rotation, which resulted in a four - factor solution, two for each region. The purpose of the factor analysis (Hair and others, 1995) was to combine the statements into a set of factors that were deemed to represent a first organizational type linked to the interviews of managers in different regions. The internal consistency of each factor was examined by Cronbach's alpha tests. All the alpha coefficients were above 0.5, which means that high correlation existed between the items. The collected data were statistically analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0.

Empirical results
The results were obtained by questioning a sample of managers from Campania and Tuscany. The sample distribution by geographical and education factors, is show in tables 5 and 6. Table 6 shows the general lack of tertiary sector educational qualifications among the staff.

Table 5 Managers by region

Campania public managers (South Italy)	Tuscany public managers (North Italy)
33% on the coast	33% on the coast
33% in the middle	33% in the middle
33% inland	33% inland
Total managers 800	Total managers 800

Within the three macro areas, culture and service (Selznick, 1953, Sasser et. al., 1978) orientation is homogeneous in relation to the school curriculum and previous experience in the field. Table 6 shows the number of graduates for the two regions. "No educational level" in Campania, is the item with the greatest number of responses. In Tuscany a degree in management, law, engineering, cultural heritage (also these prevail for Campania) and Secondary school diploma represent 58 per cent of the responses.

Table 6 Managers education level by region

Campania public managers South Italy	Tuscany public managers North Italy
University 10%	University 30%
Secondary high school 25%	Secondary high school 28%
Junior high school 20%	Junior high school 31%
No education level 45%	No education level 19%
Total 100% (70% male)	Total 100% (80% male)

The purpose of the factor analysis, which resulted in a three factors solution, was to combine the statements into a set of factors that were deemed to represent the organizational types linked to the interviews of managers. Specifically, items with higher loadings, 16 factors, (see table 7) were considered (alpha coefficients above 0.5) as more important and as having a greater influence (Hair et al., 1995) on organizational types.

Table 7 Factor analysis Italian public managers

Factor names and items	Mean	S.D.	Factor Loading		Alpha
Improving productivity Campania Managers	5.0				0.83
Motivational factor to entry	5.25	1.57	0.78		
The role of public management	5.14	1.59	0.65		
Control of public sector	5.19	1.36	0.58		
Coordination of public sector	5.61	1.43	0.61		
Improving productivity Tuscany Managers	5.73				0.90
Relations customers – allotment of duties	5.19	1.37	0.53		
Low level of information technology	5.15	1.37	0.49		
Private control	6.15	1.11	0.81		
Private coordination	6.25	1.23	0.88		
Improving efficiency Campania Managers	5.26				0.80
Work organization as problem	5.19	1.54	0.75		
Mutual help relation with other managers	5.00	1.04	0.62		
Job stability	5.17	1.13	0.52		
Salary	5.13	1.11	0.69		
Improving efficiency Tuscany Managers	5.73				0.81
Managerial culture	5.71	1.24	0.75		
Quality of service	5.16	1.51	0.72		
Credit and information by banks	5.23	1.37	0.54		
Public legislation	5.33	1.47	0.64		

Managers have been asked what the critical points to improve productivity are. The results are categorized in table 8. Southern Italian managers (Campania) emphasized motivational factors to entry, especially incentives for productivity and training, and then factors described as 'the form of management' and 'coordination of the tourism sector'. Northern Italian public managers (Tuscany) considered the first element to be 'coordination' and 'control of public sector'. Both groups of managers underline the necessity of a new normative context and strongly criticize the role of the Italian Government.

Table 8 Factor loading items linked to the critical points for improving productivity

Campania Managers	Tuscany Managers
Motivational factor to entry (0.78)	relation customer – allotment of duties (0.53)
The role of public management (0.65)	low level of information technology (0.49)
control of public sector (0.58)	private control (0.81)
coordination of public sector (0.61)	private coordination (0.88)

The critical factors to efficiency items (Campania, see table 9) are: 'work organization', 'mutual help relationships with other agencies' and 'salary'. Managers underline the absence of hierarchical influences and 'professionality' into the service supply. They also point out the need to improve mutual relationships with other managers. The managers underline the modalities by which the different members of the organization undertake their specific tasks, professional functions and roles. The salary is the last element; managers argue that individual economic reward should be taken into account to improve productivity and efficiency. Northern managers, from Tuscany, (see table 9) underline the importance of 'managerial culture' and 'quality of service' in terms of paying more attention to the specific managerial culture of the sector and the needs of its users. One important bottle neck is quality of service in the relations

between customers and the allocation of duties: with reference to the need for a quick response about the coordination and control of information flows.

Table 9 Factor loading items linked to the critical points for improving efficiency

Campania managers	Tuscany Managers
Working organization as a problem (0.75)	managerial culture (0.75)
Mutual help relation with other manager (0.62)	quality of service (0.72)
Job stability (0.52)	credit and information by banks (0.54)
Salary (0.69)	public legislation (0.64)

Starting from tables 8 and 9, the data shows four different organizational types:
- insensitive organization;
- sensitive organization;
- participated organization;
- proactive organization.

In the insensitive organization the main characteristics refer to low attention to the identification of the user's needs, and to productivity and efficiency. This configuration is present in a large part of Campania, particularly inland. This type of organization takes into account the following factors to improve productivity:
- motivational factors to entry (0.78);
- the role of public management (0.65),

and improving efficiency:
- work organization as problem (0.75);
- salary (0.69).

The sensitive organization shows interest in the knowledge of the user's needs, productivity and efficiency. This configuration is present in Campania on the coast and inland in Tuscany. In these areas, the organization takes into account the following factors to improve productivity:
- control of public sector (0.58);
- coordination of public sector (0.61);

improving efficiency:
- mutual help in relations with other managers (0.62);
- job stability (0.52).

Participated organization in the middle of Tuscany takes into account the following factors for improving productivity:
- relations with customers - allotment of duties (0.53);
- low level of information technology (0.49);

improving efficiency:
- public legislation (0.64);
- credit and information by bank (0.54).

The proactive organization shows great interest in the user's requests, productivity and efficiency. This configuration is present in a large part of the Tuscany coast. This type of organization takes into account the following factors for improving productivity:
- private control (0.81);
- private coordination (0.88);

improving efficiency:
- managerial culture (0.75);
- quality of service (0.72).

Discussion, Limitations and Implications for Future Research

The results of this study highlight the coexistence of classic bureaucracy and a new form of bureaucracy (Ongaro 2010, Ouerfelli 2010, Warrick 2017, Raharjo et al. 2018). In this context, according to the literature (Boyne, Farrell, Law, Powell, & Walker, 2003; Kickert, 2007), change management is a topic related to the bureaucracy (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004; Tribe, J., and Liburd, J. 2016). This study contributes to create a pool of knowledge related to change management, particularly in IPTS, by underlining the relevant elements within different bureaucratic typologies. The four organizational typologies, the insensitive, sensitive, participated and proactive organization, highlighted in the empirical results how managers have strategic influence on the services productivity and efficiency. In Campania and Tuscany, south and north Italy, two different approaches emerge. In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in the use of change management process within the IPTS. On one hand, this takes the form of importing ideas and methods developed in and for the private sector. The assumption is that the private sector is better than the public sector in some specific ways: private sector organizations are more cost conscious, more inclined to implement modern personnel management and more capable of developing corporate culture as a steering instrument. Such a debate considers the incentives for productivity and particularly the necessity to create some reliable measures of management efficiency in the IPTS. On the other hand, there is an interest in the use of change management process in the study of the IPTS. Here the aim is somewhat different. The change management process should be verified, considering the real behaviors and managers' bureaucratic culture. After this first step the theory helps us to better understand the IPTS. In the literature review – case study context - and empirical results, the managers of two different geographic areas have two completely different approaches: in Tuscany the main variables are those of the private control and coordination, the importance of ICT and allotment of duties. Campania instead, always improving its productivity, underlines the importance of control and coordination of public sector, the motivational factor and the role of public management. In order to improve the efficiency, the two regions underline different variables set that for Tuscany is the managerial culture, quality of service, role of bank and public legislation. In Campania instead, such different variables set is working organization, mutual help, job stability and salary. The difference between the regions within the same country highlights that despite the profound differences in managerial culture, both attract a growing number of tourists. Operative and theoretical action are important to improve the IPTS. At operative level some organizational actions are strategic for managers in different regions. Particularly a cross contamination between managers in the different regions could be an interesting operative approach to improve efficiency and productivity in Campania by large part of Tuscany managers from the coast. It will be important to implement a governance idea of IPTS. In addition, there are different configurations in the same areas. The research was limited to only 2 regions (North and South) located in Italy out of a total of 22 regions. So, it is necessary to extend the research to other Italian regions located in the North and South of Italy. Possible measures to address change management problems (Lamers, M., Van der Duim, V. R., and Spaargaren, G. 2017; Raharjo K., Nurjannah, Solimun and Adji A. R. F., 2018) linked to the bureaucracy could be identified in further research, analysis of good practices and cross contamination of proactive managers with the participated and insensitive managers. This process can be identified as an achievement for IPTS and its bureaucracy (Weber, 1922 Simon, 1947, Crozier, 1964, Weick and Quinn 1969).

Conclusion

It will be important to implement a change management process in IPTS and its bureaucracy. Campania and Tuscany are important for the economic development of the IPTS. A change management process is possible.

Making a change means taking into account the different experiences of the bureaucracy in public organization, in each of these broad areas in which there are significant differences in relation to the location and culture. It is important to modify operational values and decisions. Four organizational typologies emerge from research: insensitive organization; sensitive organization; participated organization; proactive organization. Insensitive organization is representative of large parts of Campania, particularly inland and middle. The managers underline the importance of motivational factors to entry and work organization as a problem, in this configuration the high number of "no educational level", is a problem to improve efficiency and productivity. The second configuration underlines the importance of mutual help relation with other managers. Here the need is for a managerial approach between different stories, cultures, a tight confrontation to understand what the best strategies to follow and implement are. It is worth noting that in these two configurations the presence of Campania is exhausted and therefore it is placed between the insensate and sensitive configuration, while here we have the inland of Tuscany characterized by no educational level. In the third configuration there is only Tuscany, in particular the center. The need for greater investment in ICT and the low level of information technology were considered interesting variables to improve productivity. The proactive organization is present in large part of the coast in Tuscany, where there are managers with a degree in management, engineering and law and there is a family firm structure with excellent control and coordination of activities. Managerial culture and quality of service are best practice. Cross-contamination is needed between the managers of the two regions. Proactive organizational managers should support a particularly insensitive organization such as the one present in the inland of Campania. Cross contamination is important for change. The national policy on tourism, as a governance idea is a strategic action parallel to the first one. These operative and theoretical levers can represent an interesting organizational and economic mix to improve the IPTS. It is a diagnosis that, strategically implemented, reflects the nature of the different systems and contributes to the discovery of key strategic areas where a change could produce a better performance for the service and users. Values and culture of the bureaucracy are present in a part of Tuscany. The role of the IPTS is an open question and therefore, in the diagnosis of change management process there is no "one best way". Such a view rejects a stance whereby the bureaucracy could be regarded as ultimately unchangeable. It must instead be seen as under constant development and re-interpretation.

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ROAD-DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES TO SUPPORT SELF-DRIVE TOURISM (SDT) IN BALI BASED ON SWOT ANALYSIS

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Abstract: Self-drive tourism (SDT) has become a potential alternative of tourism in Bali, an island that has dozens of tourist attractions scattered all over it. Unfortunately, Bali still has an insufficient integrated system of land transportation. Tourists tend to choose reasonable modes of transportation and drive themselves to reach their desired destinations by land vehicles such as passenger car or motorcycle. Consequently, roads have an important role to connect various tourist attractions and to accommodate tourists' mobility, especially foreign tourists that have different driving attitude compared to domestic road users. Adjustments need to be made to the existing road development plan in order to maintain the expected tourists' driving experiences. Therefore, the government needs some feasible strategies for road development as an available option of transportation in Bali Island, particularly in order to support self-drive tourism. One of the common methods to gather the information needed in making decisions related to strategies is SWOT Analysis. This study uses a qualitative approach that employs the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats (SWOT) analysis method to examine the internal and external factors comprehensively, in terms of road. Internal factors consist of the strengths and weaknesses of the road in Bali Island as tourism destination, and external factor consist of opportunities and threats presented by the road in Bali Island. The adjustment to the driving tourists will be considered in terms of four relations: strengths-opportunities (S-O), weaknesses-opportunities (W-O), strengths-threats (S-T), weakness-threats (W-T). The results of this study show that the strategy in road development is not only focused on conventional road development that relates to the physical road, access, routes and modes of transport but must be adapted to the social aspects that promote and maintain local values. The adjustment of this strategy is expected to provide an overview to the parties who play a role in developing the road to be able to encourage SDT as one of the choices for the development of sustainable tourism in Bali

Keywords: Self-Drive Tourism, Road Development, Adjustment, Decision Support, SWOT Analysis

Introduction

Bali has become one of the favourable tourist destinations in South East Asia and earned the title 'The Island of God' for its beautiful and unique nature and culture (Prajnawrdhia, 2014). Bali is one of the Indonesian provinces that is famous as a tourist destination. Its total area reaches 5,634.40 km^2, with its length of beach stretching along 529 km (Bali Government, 2010). As a tourist destination, Bali's economy including its income, employment generation, and livelihoods, depends on the tourism industry (Hampton & Jeyacheya, 2015). Bali's cultural resources and nature potentials become its main commodities of the tourism industry. In terms of culture, Hindu religion forms Balinese way of life that offers colourful and exotic experiences to tourists. Other cultural sites are temples, rites offering, music, dances, ceremonies, and rich craft heritage (Wall, 1996). In terms of natural landscape, Bali has various types of tourist destinations from beach to mountainous areas. As an island, Bali has dozens of tourist attractions that are scattered in several tourist areas and most of them can only be accessed by

land. This condition makes Bali island very dependent on transportation (Lohman & Duval, 2014), especially in land transportation.

In Bali, the development of the tourism industry has not been optimally supported by the development of transportation. Public transportation as an effective and efficient means for daily mobility has not developed optimally. The low level of public transportation service is further worsening by the very limited availability of bus or other public transportations. In general, land transportation is divided into rail-based transportation and road-based transportation. Since Bali does not have a rail-based transportation option, it heavily depends on road-based transportation such as passenger cars and motorcycles. The limited number of transportation options makes most of the tourists choose rental cars or motorcycles as their main mode of transportation when they travel in Bali. This condition offers a good opportunity for vehicle rental industry to grow and opens a chance to promote self-drive tourism as a promising market in tourism industry in Bali.

Self-Drive Tourism emerges in Bali for various reasons, but it has not been developed and managed optimally. Many tourists have rented private vehicles such as passenger cars or motorcycles to do their activities during their holiday in Bali. Driving-tourists potentially generate conflicts both in the aspect of transportation aspect and in the social aspect. In the aspect of transportation, the characteristics of road condition and traffic become the triggering factors. Every tourist uses their own knowledge, skills, and experiences to adapt to the road environment that is different with that in their country of origins. These factors will shape a unique tourists' driving behaviour that tends to be more aggressive compared to local people's behaviour. As for the social aspect, conflicts may potentially arise related to the local culture issue. Since Balinese people are very strict to hold their local or tradition rules, norms violation by the driving tourists will cause serious conflict.

These factors can become challenges to the development of self-drive tourism industry. For those reasons, some adjustments are needed in the road development strategy; the strategy shall not consider the transportation aspect only but shall also include social aspect as a part of consideration. The government, as the one who makes a decision regarding policy or strategy to develop tourism development in Bali, needs a strong basic decision to support self-drive tourism. At present, the government sets a strategic objective to reduce the travel time from 2.7 hours/ 100 km to 2.2 hours/ 100 km which still becomes the focus to handle transportation problem (MPWH, 2017). This paper shows strategies that can be developed to promote self-drive tourism in Bali, while considering the potential conflicts in transportation aspect and social aspect. The potentials of Bali as a tourist destination will be explored in terms of self-drive tourism using SWOT analysis.

Literature Review

Road Development and Tourism
Transportation and tourism have a co-dependent relation (Hall, 1999) and should be considered simultaneously by the government (Lohman & Duval, 2014). Focusing only on the development of transportation will be an inefficient policy because of the large investment needed to build various facilities and infrastructures that are only used in certain periods like weekends or holidays season. On the other hand, focusing only on the tourism will stagnate the development of tourism industry due to the limited accessibility and mobility that should have been supported by transportation sector.

Transportation and tourism affect personal mobility. Tourism provides experiences and transportation provides facilities as expected by tourists (Lohman & Duval, 2014).

Transportation sector is built not only to accommodate the tourism industry. Some considerations or adjustments are needed because tourism industry's characteristic is different from the other industries. In road transport-based tourism industry, such as self-drive tourism, the tourists expect more satisfaction (Wu et al, 2017) rather than reducing distance and time travel, as they are expected at the other industries.

Road as one part of transportation plays an important role in the development of tourism industry. Road serves as a link between the centre of activity in tourist destinations and forms a hierarchical network. In general, road as a part of hierarchical network is classified based on the priority for mobility, access, and residential function (Goto & Nakamura, 2016). Every road will be designed based on its function to reach the expected performance while, at the same time, taking mobility and safety into consideration. Regarding tourism activities, road development does not only consider the factors of accessibility and mobility in designing roads but also must consider the aspects of satisfaction and experiences expected by tourists. So that the road development needs to pay attention to road facilities (Fjelstul & Fyall, 2015), 'forgiving roadside concept' (Yannis et al, 2007), types of road users who are unfamiliar with the road environment (Choocharakul & Sriroongvikrai, 2017) and sustainable issues (Murjanto, 2015).

Self-drive Tourism
Self-drive Tourism is described as traveling using any form of mechanically powered passenger-carrying road transport with the exclusion coaches and bicycles (Prideaux & Carson, 2011). It is often seen as a tourism activity that has potentials to assist economic development in rural and regional areas (Rolfe & Flint, 2017). The model of self-drive tourism has two main factors. The first factor is push factor that consists of existing vehicle, motivations, decision criteria, marketing, policies, insurance and safety, and auto clubs. The second factor is pull factor that consists of new vehicle, lease vehicle, attractions, destination, accommodation, highways networks, general infrastructure, and specific infrastructure (Fjelstul & Fyall, 2015). The ability to manage the push and pull factors will determine the success and sustainability of self-drive tourism.

Self-drive tourism also emerges in several regions in Europe and Australia. The tourists can drive from one point to the other and they can pass through several attractions in which they can freely stop and choose their own routes. Some companies also offer some packages for tourists. They can choose various types of driving options including the type of vehicles to use, the choice of destinations, and the choice of accommodations. Self-drive tourism is also defined as a multi destination trip rather than just one (Shih, 2006). It is not tied into a single route or specific route and offers freedom of movement as well as experience in driving. Available resources and attractions become other factors that motivate the tourists to take routes other than the road condition (Shih, 2005). The tourists will move freely to each destination they want to visit, and they can drive through high quality road to poor quality road. As drive tourism becomes popular, road networks, facilities, and themed routes rise to be important elements for promotion (Shih, 2005). Hardy (2003) suggests that there are eight components forming drive tourism: (1) the road and all of facilities; (2) accommodation; (3) information; (4) refuelling and roadside services; (5) enforcement of traffic regulations; (6) vehicle repairs and recovery; (7) attractions for driving tourists; and (8) promotion of on-road attractions.

Driving Tourist Conflict
Conflicts in transportation are often related to the road safety issues. Some traffic accidents are caused by the driving tourists. Driving in an unfamiliar road environment may lead to violations of the local traffic rules or laws as tourists misunderstand and misinterpret the traffic signs (Choocharakul & Sriroongvikrai, 2017). The severity of accident and the risk involving foreign drivers are heightened by insufficient driving skills under unknown conditions (Yannis et al,

2007). These problems become the main concern for road or traffic regulators when they target the foreign driver safety in their policy (Yoh et al, 2017). Safety related to tourist accidents should be assumed as higher priority, so the policy will be more proactive to guarantee tourist's safety and well-being (Page and Mayer, 1996).

Since transportation and tourism development strategies should be co-dependent, the road policy makers or road planners should develop the awareness of tourism's political and social impacts to support effective tourism planning (Hampton & Jyeacheya, 2015). Self-drive tourism as tourism activity has impacted the local social-cultural characteristics, habits, customs, social life, and belief and the values of the inhabitants of tourist destination (Garcia et al, 2015). Social impact of self-drive tourism policy should become main concern, together with the safety concern, to avoid conflict with locals.

Tourists prefer to move freely by personal mode rather stick to a specific route (Nakamura, 2016). Tourists will move using own or rental car to explore and have direct contact with residents. While they are driving in the tourist destination, their driving behaviour, perception, and understanding of different road environments from their origin country can potentially become sources of conflict with local social rules. Driving tourists can have misperception or are unable to pay attention to local rules such as local norms and traditions. This will lead to negative perceptions towards driving tourists by residents.

SWOT Analysis

SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats) analysis is a method often used in the field of business and can be used as a decision support tool for policy makers. It is an efficient structured planning method used in the case of strategy planning by identifying the potential and priorities of a project for the accomplishment of the development strategy (Buta, 2007). This strategic planning method has also been used in the assessment of sustainable tourism (Mondal, 2011). SWOT analysis is used to identify and evaluate the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats related to a company or organisation. Strengths and weaknesses are internal to a company/organisation and opportunities and threats are external. After identifying every factor representing strength (S), weakness (W), opportunity (O), and threat (T) in the project under study, an analysis was conducted using a matrix to identify the relations between strength-opportunity (S-O), weakness-opportunity (W-O), strength-threat (S-T), and weakness-threat (W-T) as shown by Table 1 (Khan, 2018).

Table 1. SWOT Matrix

Factor Relation	S: List strength	W: List of weakness
O: list of opportunity	(S-O) Strategies Use strength to take advantage of opportunity	(W-O) Strategies Overcome weakness by taking the advantage of opportunity
T: List of threat	(S-T) Strategies Use strength to avoid threat	(W-T) Strategies Minimize weakness to avoid threat

Modified from Khan, 2018

Methodology

The first stage of research was conducting interviews with the related stakeholders that consist of academics, practitioners, and government in transportation and tourism sectors to know their perceptions about the current condition in Bali. The results of this stage will help to conclude some strategies to adjust the road development. The second stage was SWOT analysis, which is known as the basic analysis in marketing, to help promote tourism. Currently, Bali tourism experiences a decline in tourism quality due to mass tourism and tourism alternatives needed to overcome this problem. It is expected that this analysis will be one of the first studies that can harmonize the road development and tourism in Bali.

In the second stage, a SWOT analysis was performed to determine the possible road development strategies to support self-drive tourism in Bali. SWOT analysis is divided into two main steps. The first step is making the list of SWOT components based on Bali conditions. This step has two types of analysis: (i) analysis of internal factors on strengths and weaknesses aspects, and (ii) analysis of external factors discussing opportunities and threats. Every type of analysis will provide lists of SWOT components that are related to transportation and social aspects of self-drive tourism in Bali. The second step is determining possible strategies based on matrix relationship between internal and external factors; strength-opportunity (S-O), weakness-opportunity (W-O), strength-threat (S-T), and weakness-threat (W-T). The scope of possible strategies is only limited to transport aspects and social aspects.

Road infrastructures as 'transportation aspect' become one of the important factors to support self-drive tourism. In drive tourism model (Prideaux & Carson, 2011), road infrastructure plays the role as a pull factor of a tourist destination. It is represented by highway network, general infrastructure, and specific infrastructure. In this study, road infrastructure will represent road network to maintain the accessibility to a tourism destination and road quality to ensure mobility of the driving tourists. Conflicts part of the social aspect become an adjustment factor and it should be considered when developing a strategy. Especially in Bali, 'social aspect' is heavily influenced by local wisdom and it is translated into Regional Regulation. For example, Regulation of Bali Regional Spatial Plan 2009-2029 (Perda RTRW) Chapter 95, Verse 2b on the limitation of the height of the buildings in Bali as high as 15 meters. This regulation is based on local wisdom called *Tri Hita Karana*. *Tri Hita Karana* is a cosmopolitan value of harmonisations of human relationship with God (*sutata parhyangan*), human relationship with fellow human beings (*sutata pawongan*), and human relationship with its natural environment (*sutata palemahan*) (Suardita and Krisnawati, 2015). In many cases, right of way and even road closures are often happened for the sake of religion or traditional ceremonies. This shows how local wisdom has a very strong influence in Balinese life.

Results and Discussion

In the early stages of this study interviews were conducted from those who understood the conditions of transportation and tourism in Bali. Interviews were conducted with eleven (11) experts. The aim was to get an overview of issues concerning self-drive tourism; key findings of the interviews include:

1. Self-drive tourism has a good potential in Bali with its increasing number of foreign tourists.
2. Bali lacks public transportation and has mixed traffic.
3. Infrastructure development should be conducted to support the growth of tourism, not the opposite.

4. Generally, local people are very opened to tourists, but in some areas, there are disturbances that reduce the quality of life of the local communities (culture, and environment), especially in the areas that are still closed.
5. Conflict can occur between communities due to inequality of income.

First step in SWOT analysis is to determine the internal and external factors of the issues in the context of Bali, with transportation and social aspects as the main scopes of the study. The factors are listed below.

1. Strengths
    i. The road accessibility around Bali island is quite good (MPWH, 2017). The road network in Bali Island consists of national highway, provincial road, and municipal road that form access to every location in Bali island including tourism destination. Regarding its size and quality, this road network can open the access to all tourism areas by passenger car and motorcycle.

    ii. The road quality in Bali Island is in good quality. The road quality in Indonesia is measured by Reliability Index (RI) based on road pavement performance. The government has set a national goal of 2019 that the RI of national road shall reach 90% and province road or municipal road shall reach 70%. Bali has 535.3 km national road as the main entrance from airport and seaport with its RI reaching 99.98%. (MPWH, 2017).

    iii. Balinese has strong ways of life based on local wisdom. Local wisdom in Bali has proven to be able to overcome various social life problems and conflicts. Besides *Tri Hita Karana*, several other local wisdoms are also upheld in Bali (Suardita and Krisnawati, 2015):

        a. *Tri Kaya Perisuda*; balance in character building and human identity by uniting mind, word, and deeds.
        b. *Tatwam Asi*; you are me and I am you. This social value recognises an existence by respecting others and having self-respect.
        c. *Salunglung Sabayantaka, Paras Paros Sarpanaya*; a social value about the need for togetherness and equal cooperation with one another.
        d. *Bhineka Tunggal Ika*; unity in diversity.
        e. *Manyama Braya*; contains the meaning of the equation and fraternity and social recognition that we are brothers.

2. Weaknesses
    i. Most parts of the road network have mixed traffic characteristics including long distance and commuter traffic and mixed with logistic transportation in west side of Bali Island. The road development still focuses on the effort to accommodate all types of industry. In Indonesia, 90% businesses use land road infrastructure as a means to transport their products (Murjanto, 2015).

    ii. Many roads in Bali do not have sufficient width to sufficiently accommodate multiple lanes. Even, some networks in national highway have lesser capacity than the regulation. Many roads are too narrow, especially the municipal roads, that is off-limit for coach (big bus). Sometimes, to reach certain tourism destinations, the visitors should go through residential areas. This condition limits the number of tourists to reach certain tourism objects.

iii. There is social conflict with traditional or "*adat*" dimension. Social conflict that related to traditional dimension often happens in Bali. Conflicts are triggered by unequal economic activities related to tourism industry (Suardita & Krisnawati, 2015). Unequal economic activities are also caused by the development gap between the areas of tourist destination and non-tourist destination.

3. Opportunities
    i. Bali becomes a national concern. The government, through the President of Republic of Indonesia Regulation No.4 of 2011 on "Masterplan for Acceleration and Expansion of Indonesia's Economic Development" has appointed Bali as the main gate for foreign tourists. Then, it is followed by other ministries that set Bali as their main concern and investment target. The improvement of Bali international airport capacity and the construction of toll road above the sea are the examples of program in transportation sector.

    ii. There is increase in the number of foreign tourists. Bali is the main access gate for foreign tourists to travel in Indonesia. Central Statistics Agency recorded the number of foreign tourists that enter Indonesia through Bali reached 3,936,066 in 2015 or 38,74%. The foreign tourist number increases 4% - 5% every year. The tourists from Australia and China dominate the population of foreign tourists that come to Bali every year. Australia has a long history for self-drive tourism and it becomes the most popular travel style in China in the last five years (Liu, Zhang, & Nie, 2012).

4. Threats
    i. There is a rising of competitors. The government of Indonesia has an agenda to push the infrastructure development in the National Tourism Strategic Area as stated in the Government Regulation No.50 of 2011. The policy prioritizes 10 destinations called 'New Bali' as part of the National Goal to Support Tourism. Two of the destinations mentioned are Bromo area (East Java) in the west and Mandalika area (Lombok) in the east. This can reduce the driving tourist share in Bali.

    ii. There is concern about tourists' driving behaviour. When driving in an unfamiliar road environment, tourists tend to violate local traffic rules (Choocharakul and Sriroongvikrai, 2017). Meanwhile, different driving behaviours such as extreme acts (shouting, doing malicious assaults, etc.) or less severe manifestations (roadside argument, gesture, etc.) are seen as aggressive driving behaviours (Vanlaar, 2008). This condition can lead to conflict between driving tourists and local residents.

The second step of SWOT analysis is the construction of matrix of relations; strength-opportunity (S-O), weakness-opportunity (W-O), strength-threat (S-T), and weakness-threat (W-T) to determine possible strategies. The matrix is described as follows:

1. Strength-opportunity (S-O) to use strength to take advantage of opportunity.
    i. Good road infrastructure condition and well-connected network become the basic requirements to develop and promote tourism destinations. Local wisdom, combined with local natural resources such as traditional buildings or nature scenery, play a role as a unique attraction factor. These factors affect the tourists' decision on driving route, especially when they want to experience the local scenery (Alivand et all, 2015). Since Bali has becomes a national concern and has potential factors to scenic routes, road infrastructure investment can be driven to construct or develop scenic route around the island.

ii.   Local wisdom plays a role as the sustainable development foundation, especially in rural tourism and has potential as an attraction (Vitasurta, 2015). With the increasing number of tourists who come from country with high driving interest every year, every area in Bali is exposed to drive tourism. To reduce the conflicts between residents and incoming tourists, the government can empower residents to promote local wisdom and local hospitality as attractions to the driving tourists.

2. Weakness-opportunity (W-O) to overcome weakness by taking the advantage of opportunity.
   i.   Insufficient road lanes and mixed traffic cause congestion on narrow roads. Construction of road, road pricing, or traffic management generally become solutions for congestion on the roads (Calvert et all, 2018). With the increase in road investment, constructing new road corridors will increase the capacities of the existing road networks or develop alternative land transportation such as rail-based transportation. This can reduce potential conflict between tourists, as the new road users, with the other users who are accustomed to the driving routines on the road.

   ii.   The increase in road investment can be used to develop new access to minimize potential conflicts between residents and driving tourists. The increase in number of driving tourists can be too overwhelming to local roads that are not designed to accommodate high traffic volume. The change of road function will also trigger a change in the land used for it. In the case when the construction of new road access cannot be done, the traffic and access management involving the residents or communities can become an alternative solution.

3. Strength-threat (S-T) to use strength to avoid threat.
   i.   Bali has a reliable road infrastructure and its unique local wisdom becomes a strong marketing tool. The road planners shall be able to take advantage of this condition as a value to give positive experience to the driving tourists. For example, they can build an iconic road facility based on local uniqueness.

   ii.   Good road infrastructure combined with increasing number of vehicles such as cars and motorcycles that are used by the driving tourists can increase safety problem issues. These cause traffic conditions and characteristics that may never be experienced by the driving tourists in their countries and potentially triggers aggressive behaviour by the driving tourists. In this case, the government with local-residents can hold courses for driving tourist regarding safety rules before the tourists can drive in Bali.

4. Weakness-threat (W-T) to minimize weakness to avoid threat.
   i.   Mixed traffic condition, narrow roads, and traditional conflict can create negative influence in promoting self-drive tourism in Bali. In this case, the government should increase the road network capacities, manage logistic transport, and ensure the equal distribution of development to avoid social conflict.

   ii.   Driving tourists will feel that they are special road users who deserve special treatment and tend to act more aggressive compared to the other road users (Bushman et al, 2018). Traffic condition, narrow roads, and driving tourists' behaviour can cause accident and conflict with local-residents. Traffic management can be applied to divert the route away or to restrict access to sensitive areas such as temple or holy places. Introduction of local laws to driving tourist is also possible. This can preserve the locals' tolerance of driving tourists.

The summary of possible strategies for road development resulted from relation matrix is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Possible strategies for road development in Bali

Factor Relation	S: Strengths i. Good accessibility ii. Good road conditions iii. Local wisdom	W: Weakness i. Mix traffic ii. Narrow roads iii. Traditional conflicts
O: Opportunity i. Become national concern ii. Increasing number of tourists	1. Develop scenic route in Bali 2. Promote local wisdom as attractions	3. Develop alternative mode 4. Develop new access.
T: Threats i. Rise of competitor ii. Tourist behaviour	5. Branding SDT in Bali 6. Introduction safety driving	7. Increasing road capacity 8. Preserve local tolerance

Conclusion

This study examines the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of road development to support self-drive tourism in Bali. Bali has a great potential to be a self-drive tourism destination with beautiful nature and unique culture; the strong points compared to other competitors. Bali becomes the centre of attention of the government and plays an important role in Indonesia tourism industry. The road infrastructure, which has an important role to support the tourism activities, should be developed according to the need of self-drive tourism. To maintain its sustainability as a tourist destination, the road development in Bali should consider not only the transportation aspect for foreign tourists, such as providing better signage, road facilities, information, etc. Instead, it shall also minimize the effects caused by driving tourists' behaviour and diminish the traditional or "*adat*" conflicts. This conflict can be eliminated by involving local residents to self-drive tourism activities.

Based on the SWOT analysis, some road development strategies are possible to implement in order to promote self-drive tourism in Bali: (1) developing scenic routes, (2) promoting local wisdom as attractions, (3) developing transportation modes, (4) developing new access, (5) building the brand of SDT in Bali, (6) introducing safe driving, (7) increasing road capacities, and (8) preserving local tolerance. These strategies can be applied by policy makers or road planners to consider not only transportation sector, such as increasing road capacities, but also its effects on social life. This study is a preliminary study of road development that is related to the needs of SDT in Bali which has only limited use of a qualitative approach through literature review. It is necessary to develop a study with a quantitative approach to be able to describe the factors of influence that affect each strategy. With this, it is expected that the strategy in road development can be determined by implementation priorities which depend on the ability of resources such as funds, time and human resources.

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A LOCAL PERSPECTIVE ON ECOTOURISM IN CRETE

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Abstract: Drawing upon the findings of an empirical study of ecotourism in Crete (Saatsakis, 2018), this industry focussed paper discusses and reflects upon the development of successful ecotourism for the Island and its well-being. Greece, including the island of Crete, is strongly committed to the implementation of the 2030 agenda for the sustainable development in balancing its economic growth, protection of the environment and social cohesion, so "no one is left behind". The paper is supported with evidence from research of several years in Crete and from personal experience of the first author working in the Cretan tourism industry, both in the public and private sectors (Saatsakis, 2018).

Keywords: Ecotourism, Crete, Sustainability, Development, Challenges, Tourism planning

Introduction

The paper is based on the researchers' experience and expertise on tourism sustainable development and policy. The Cretan ecotourism policy is influenced by values which reflect the protection of the scenic beauty of the island of Crete, its traditional way of life and culture. The policy aims to alleviate the detrimental impacts of mass tourism by diversifying and introducing alternative types of tourism.

This paper highlights the measures that are needed to be taken by all stakeholders involved in the tourism industry as articulated by prominent writers in the field (e.g., Buckley, 2009, 2012; Fennell, 2014; Hunter, 2007; Mason, 2015; Wearing & Neil, 2009) and recommended by the UN Sustainable Development Goals for 2030. The ecotourism market appears to be expanding at a faster rate than that for tourism generally, which itself is experiencing rapid growth (Saatsakis, 2018). Even though ecotourism expands rapidly, there are many threats to its sustainability and expansion. Ecotourism depends on pristine natural environments and authentic local cultures closely connected with them, and on the extent to which it is compatible with the conservation of its resource-base, its social acceptability and political feasibility (Anderson, Bakir & Wickens, 2014).

Managing Ecotourism Development

A period of 10 years research suggests that the future of ecotourism development in Crete is dependent on the successful implementation of the following recommendations. These are also informed by past studies (e.g., Buckley, 2012; Fennell, 2014; Mason, 2015) and UN Sustainable Development Knowledge Platform for Greece (2018).

- Involving local people in the development and planning process
- Educating, training and awareness raising
- Encouraging small-scale development
- Controlling growth, conserving resources and using certification
- Working towards the elimination of seasonality pattern and dependency on tour operators

- Protecting the natural and cultural environments
- Successful marketing through research
- Managing funding

Involving Local People in the Development and Planning Process

The involvement of locals in the development process is imperative for the industry's sustainability. A destination, such as Crete, may have the necessary conditions for expansion of the industry but they will not be sufficient without local community's acceptability. As the literature shows, a tourism development would be supported when local people have access to the process and their perceived concerns are being considered. Anderson et al. (2015) from their work on tourism development in Connemara, Ireland, found that there was a need for locals' participation in tourism decision-making and a strong leadership to ensure a sustainable ecotourism development. The Cretan ecotourism development is supported by the industry, however, there was evidence of only limited involvement of the locals in decision-making (Saatsakis, 2018). This paper suggests concerted efforts should be made to ensure that the 'wants' of the local community and its future development are taken into account.

A systematic analysis of local opinions and perceptions can play a vital role in tourism policy formulation. Only through a continuous discussion with the local community concerning tourism costs and benefits, the desired future strategies of tourism development projects are likely to succeed (Saatsakis, 2018). All community members have to be assured that they will not be disadvantaged as a result of tourism development and that through collaboration and co-ordination, benefits will be enhanced for all and distributed more equally (Anderson et al., 2015). The involvement of the locals should be encouraged from the very beginning, by promoting public dialogue and by enabling them to participate in the processes of decision-making and profit-sharing (Diamantis, 2004; Saatsakis, 2018). This is only possible when ecotourism development planning takes into consideration the views, perceptions and preferences of the local inhabitants (Anderson et al., 2015).

The Cretan study shows that when people do not receive sufficient benefits from ecotourism, they are prone to develop a negative attitude towards ecotourism development and oppose the goals of environmental conservation that are closely linked to ecotourism. This might occur for example when indigenous people, whose survival depends heavily upon the use of natural resources, perceive tourism as a threat that deprives them of their livelihood, as it competes with them over land and resources (Saatsakis, 2018).

Educating, Training and Awareness Raising

Ongoing education and training on sustainable tourism is essential for its development. The provision of educational programmes helps to address the issues of sufficient capacity. Locals deserve to know about the impacts of tourism developments in their destination. Both local communities and tourists need to be educated about over-tourism and its impacts. In promoting sustainable tourism development, communities and tourists should be continually educated and trained about tourism and how to protect the environment (Anderson et al., 2015).

Authorities should have on-going educational workshops and training for the communities, tourists and public employees. Developing and adopting positive attitudes towards tourists, the local community will more likely to achieve a competitive advantage for Crete's tourism industry. However, local attitudes regarding any further development of the industry can change over time. For instance, over-tourism has been affecting negatively mainland Greece and many Greek islands (e.g., Santorini and Crete), resulting in diminishing support for the

industry (Anderson et al., 2015; Wickens, 1994). The way to achieve sustainable ecotourism development is through educational programmes, public meetings, workshops and advertising campaigns in the mass and social media, schools and various community organisations.

Encouraging Small-Scale Development

The concentration of tourists on the north side of Crete has some obvious advantages because infrastructural investments in this part of the island confines tourism problems, allowing greater use of existing infrastructure through economies of scale. In the existing developed resorts and urban areas of the island no new accommodation is required, as existing establishments already possess a supply well in excess of demand. As a result, any growth in the supply of accommodation may further reduce the occupancy rates and may have detrimental effects on the already saturated environment. Therefore, for existing resorts the focus of tourism policy should be on the best use of existing establishments, rather than building new ones (Saatsakis, 2018).

Ecotourism entrepreneurs should be encouraged by the Greek authorities through various incentives to improve the standards of the services, upgrade amenities and construct a range of facilities that would bring distinct benefits to the areas. Research from Crete shows that small enterprises have been neglected by the public sector (Saatsakis, 2018). Public investments should not only be directed to large enterprises but also to smaller ones, so long as they contribute to the enhancement of the ecotourism product. Furthermore, higher participation of local investors in development creates employment opportunities for locals and reduces leakages. The development of small-scale tourist facilities and tourism centers should be encouraged in the underdeveloped southern and inland areas of the island.

Local owners of small businesses can contribute significantly to economic growth because they supply smaller markets (such as niche tourism products), demand relatively small amounts of capital, use local resources and materials and do not require costly and urban infrastructure. Therefore, small-scale developments in Crete may appear in the form of ecotourist villages, incorporating small traditional hotels, restaurants, shops and various recreational, leisure and sport facilities, owned by local entrepreneurs under a shareholder scheme.

Controlling Growth, Conserving Resources and Using Certification

Ecotourism is not a panacea for environmental conservation, and on its own, it cannot lift local communities from poverty. Unless ecotourism is well planned and constantly monitored, it might even achieve the opposite results, namely placing even heavier pressure on the environment and exacerbating local inhabitants' poverty (Saatsakis, 2018). In contrast, if ecotourism is perceived as part of a general strategy for sustainable development, then it truly has the potential to contribute to the protection of natural environment and promote the socio-economic well-being of host communities (Saatsakis, 2018).

Crete has many areas of ecological and environmental sensitivity or natural beauty that are its major attractions. Since the attractiveness of these areas depends upon their ecological balance, it is of the utmost importance to ensure environmental conservation by special legislation. Although, all tourists have an impact on a destination, alternative tourists are considered as low-impact (Anderson et al., 2015). Therefore, in these areas, alternative forms of tourism, such as eco-tourism, trekking and bird watching should be promoted. No building or any other types of development that destroy the unspoiled environment should be allowed.

Sensitivity of local communities towards the preservation of the natural resources should be

ensured through public information campaigns and the introduction of environmental courses into the curricula of schools. A series of car parks, trails, guided walks and signs should be provided to encourage environmentally-friendly activities with control and regulation of visitor viewing and activities. Likewise, more incentives for environmental conservation, such as biological cleaning, water and marine parks should be supported by EU funding.

Any type of growth based on archaeological and cultural richness should be adjusted to their architectural, cultural and historical identity. Tourism should be developed and operated so as to promote conservation of archaeological sites and historical places of Crete. Priority should be given to their preservation and regulations should be applied to this end. Conversion of traditional or listed buildings into hotels or for any other type of touristic use, e.g. restaurants, museums, cultural centers and traditional workshops, could be allowed under the condition that preservation will be ensured. Since archaeological and historical sites are major attractions for tourists, admission fees can cover the cost of investments for their enhancement and preservation.

There should be an environmental plan for the achievement of sustainable development in Crete. This plan should consider the saturated areas and each area's carrying capacity limits, as well as the consequences if these limits are exceeded. Much hope has been placed in the possibility of using the concept of carrying capacity to manage ecotourism. However, it is not a straightforward operational concept. Its application usually requires some evaluations to be made and often these are unavoidably subjective. Nevertheless, carrying capacity constraints are sometimes imposed. Once a carrying capacity is determined, it is necessary to adopt measures such as the imposition of entry fees or allocation of permits to ensure that it is not exceeded (Anderson, et al., 2014; Saatsakis, 2018).

There is a strong relationship between certification and ecotourism since the first is seen as a significant tool for setting standards for the second (Honey & Stewart, 2002). Certification is advocated as a means to distinguish genuine ecotourism products from 'green washed' products, which are labelled as ecotourism but do not meet required standards (Medina, 2005). Certification indicates high quality and environmentally and socially conscious products (Haaland & Aas, 2010). This should also be the case for ecotourism in Crete where the local government in cooperation with the tourism business and the host population must develop quality certifications assuring that products and services fulfil the high standards required by ecotourism principles.

Certification has attracted significant attention both within the academic community and the tourism industry and has generated general optimism with regard to its potential to help achieve sustainable development in the tourism sector (Fennel, 2002). In particular, certification is believed to have the potential to decrease the adverse environmental and social impacts of tourism. However, one of the most important limiting factors for the widespread success of certification programmes is their relatively poor uptake by the tourism industry worldwide, as is the case in Crete. Nevertheless, certification is strongly recommended for the whole ecotourism industry in Crete, including; hoteliers, tour operators, craft businesses, tavernas, and others.

Working Towards the Elimination of Seasonality Pattern and Dependency on Tour Operators

Seasonality is considered as a problem in Crete's tourism industry. Given the importance of the tourism industry to the island's economy, employment and income creation, efforts should be made to extend the tourism season. Cultural and alternative forms of tourism should be promoted. The island of Crete has rich environmental and cultural resources, and along with

the good weather (limited rainy days every year), these resources can help extend the tourism season. For example, trekking holidays in the numerous forest trails of the island could extend the tourism season and reduce the seasonality pattern of the sun-seeking type of tourists.

Furthermore, as seasonality depends on the availability of tourist attractions and services, these attractions and services should be created or made available off-season, making attractions and services available outside the main summer season. A significant opportunity for out-of- season tourism could be achieved in the island of Crete, where 'multi-season' attractions could be promoted through the organisation of cultural activities related to local communities. However, increased marketing activities are required from the authorities, such as promotional campaigns for off-peak seasons, lower off-peak prices, and business and sporting events. A major problem in Crete is the control of the tourism industry by foreign tour operators. To address and eventually eliminate this problem, Crete has to establish regular charter flights from the major tourist generating countries and directly sell eco-tourist packages to these tourists. This would help to reduce the leakage of money to foreign airlines and, to some extent, diminish the monopolistic powers of the large international tour operators (Saatsakis, 2018).

Protecting the Natural and Cultural Environments

Like many forms of tourism, ecotourism has been criticised for its negative impacts on the natural and cultural environments. Careful guidelines for planning and management of ecotourism in Crete should be provided in order to ensure that it is appropriately and effectively developed, and that it offers the local communities increased opportunities and benefits. Prior to the commencement with any ecotourism development, its main features and characteristics should be recognised by local communities, governments and businesses so that the claimed benefits of this development in terms of conserving the natural and cultural environment are achievable and not overstated. Alongside small-scale development and certification (explained above), ecotourism development planning should particularly incorporate the following features (see Anderson et al., 2015):

- Promotion of the natural and cultural environment among local population, concerned stakeholders and tourist groups

- Making the commitment to support environmental protection and conservation of resources a primary concern

- Focusing on interactive exchange of knowledge and experience between hosts and guests; and

- Providing high quality service to ensure tourists' satisfaction.

The above features should also be incorporated in the policy and planning of ecotourism development in Crete.

Successful Marketing Through Research

Research shows that a number of visitors to Crete are interested in ecotourism activities (Saatsakis, 2018). Local tourism operators offer day trips to the designated protected areas; however, they are not aware of the impacts of such activities. Local tour operators need to be better informed and their activities should reflect the values of those tourists who demand authentic ecotourism experiences. The Cretan study makes the following recommendations to the local industry. Local educational institutions should develop and run educational and

knowledge transfer programmes for the local ecotourism entrepreneurs. For instance, through workshops or tailored courses which clearly explain the complexity of reconciling the demand of ecotourists with the need of protecting the environment, both the natural and cultural environment. Local academic experts should be able to furnish the industry with the knowledge and experience of the detrimental impacts of unchecked tourism activities. The programmes should focus particularly on the interpretation of what is ecotourism, its environmental management, planning and designing ecotourism activities. Furthermore, market research on ecotourists' perceptions, preferences, values and motivation should guide the design of ecotourism products and go a long way to protect the designated areas (Avgeli, Wickens, and Saatsakis, 2006). It is important to make the recommendation of conducting research on what visitors to Crete would like to experience, the type of accommodation they would like for their stay, their motivations and perceptions and knowledge of the natural and cultural specificities of the Cretan island. Such findings would certainly assist the promotion and sustainable development of genuine ecotourism products.

Managing Funding

In the past, funding was almost exclusively managed by government. Such funding often runs into deficit. Also, the objectives of tourism policy are subject to change with different political administrations. Crete not being an exception, depends largely on governmental support in terms of funding, assessment and recognition. This industry focused paper recommends the establishment of a non-profit organisation that is responsible for overseeing the protection and conservation of the designated zones. The work of this organisation should ultimately benefit the local community by effectively managing additional funding generated by tourism activities, such as, purchasing local handicraft and food, including; olives, honey, oregano, feta cheese. This organisation should be supported by local government and EU funding. Furthermore, existing European funding should support training, environmental education, and providing guidance to new ecotourism businesses.

Concluding Reflections

The rapid and intense tourism development that happened in Crete over the past years was often without a concrete plan of public infrastructure and was not conducted by proper planning and management policies. Lack of planning and management, together with the ineffectiveness of the enforcement mechanisms have generated a series of problems in the Cretan tourism sector. In particular, transportation, telecommunication systems, police and health services, water supply and sewage systems are inefficient and unable to support tourism demand during the summer months, when tourism concentration reaches its peak. In recognising the increasing tourism demand, the authorities have planned the development of a new airport in Crete in Kasteli area in order to replace the old one that cannot cope with the peak tourist arrivals. Although, this airport was promised many years ago by five different governments, it is still not developed, being postponed with different pretexts and detrimental consequences for Cretan tourism.

Lack of a clear governmental strategy regarding tourism development is one of the main obstacles in the process of developing a competitive ecotourism product in Crete. This is mostly due to the fact that tourism has been often used in the past, and unfortunately in the present, by various governments as a way for accomplishing their political goals. Lack of political commitment has led to the adoption of highly variable tourism measures and regulations that changed with new political leadership, resulting in general confusion and ineffective tourism policies. Tourism policies adopted in Crete affected by political interests, lobbying and short-term profitability, largely drove the haphazard development in the past decades and failed to

establish a long-term vision for sustainable tourism development. In addition, the mass tourism development in Crete creates a growing pressure for building new constructions that are intended for use as hotels, restaurants and other tourism facilities that often ignore the existing land-use and urban planning regulations and tend to expand in an anarchic way, thus creating a mixed and overcrowded built environment.

Moreover, the dependency on mass tourism development produced extensive degradation of the natural and cultural environment, aggravated by the high seasonality of the tourism demand as well as the spatial overconcentration in certain areas. The north side of Crete is overdeveloped while the south side is completely underdeveloped with considerable negative effects on the local economy. Currently, the Cretan ecotourism industry has shied away from undertaking voluntary initiatives, and the improvement of its environmental performance still relies heavily on governmental control. Many hotels tend to implement some kind of environmental-friendly practices, such as, the use of energy-saving light bulbs or appliances, because of their direct financial payoff. Likewise, the use of water-saving devices has increased significantly in the accommodation sector in Greece. Nevertheless, the number of hotels that have put in place an integrated strategy for improving their environmental performance as a whole is still very limited, with the exception of few large hotel chains. Consequently, the development of ecotourism like all other forms of tourism requires careful planning and continuous monitoring, as suggested in this paper, in order to achieve the sought outcomes.

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REFUGEE CRISIS AND VOLUNTEER TOURISM IN LESVOS, GREECE

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Abstract: In recent years, Greece has become one of the main gateways for immigrants and refugees seeking safety in Europe. The enormous humanitarian crisis that has taken place mainly on the northeastern Aegean islands has prompted the activation of dozens of organizations and thousands of volunteers. The aim of this study is to examine the profile, motivations and on-site experiences of volunteer tourists who operated on the island of Lesvos in Greece to deal with the refugee crisis. Survey was conducted in a sample of 107 volunteers. The results of the study revealed three altruistic motivations: to help people in need, to do something meaningful and worthwhile, and to work with an organization whose mission they support. Moreover, when choosing a destination to offer their voluntary services, volunteer tourists take into account mainly two factors: the level of need in the destination and the safety in the destination. Volunteers' perceptions of best experiences were largely linked to the concept of altruism and the social dimension of volunteer tourism, whereas worst experiences highlighted the themes of dead refugees, especially children, and the lack of adequate means to face the massive influx of refugees in the island. Findings and discussion of this study are useful to academic researchers and organizations (NGOs, volunteer organizations, community stakeholders) interested in volunteer tourism.

Keywords: Refugees, Volunteers, Voluntourism, Motivations, Lesvos, Greece

Introduction

Since 2015, Europe has witnessed an unprecedented influx of refugees seeking safety, the largest since Second War World (Cretu, 2015), as a result of the on-going wars in Syria, Iraq, Afghanistan and Libya, as well as conflicts in many African nations. Greece has become the main entrance gateway for hundreds of thousands of people trying to get to northern European countries through the Balkans (Georgiou, 2016; Sekeris and Vasilakis, 2016). According to UNHCR (2018), a total of 856,723 refugees and migrants arrived in Greece via Turkey in 2015, followed by 173,450 more refugees in 2016, and 29,718 refugees in 2017. The reason for this great reduction in 2016 and 2017 in refugee flows is the EU–Turkey Repatriation Agreement that was signed on 8 March 2016 (Tsoni, 2016). More than half of the refugees (500,000 in 2015) arrived crossing the Aegean Sea in the Greek island of Lesvos, while the rest of them reached the islands of Chios, Samos, Kos and Leros (Rozali, 2016). The favorable location of these islands located near the coast of Turkey turned them into a bridge to Western Europe for the refugees.

Nevertheless, the arrival of the migrants came as Greece was still reeling from a painful financial crisis. The huge, unprecedented numbers of arrivals have made it impossible for reception mechanisms to meet needs (Gkionakis, 2016). For the Greek authorities it was very hard to handle such flows of people due to the economic situation of the country and the lack of infrastructure to accommodate and register the refugees/migrants. The islands that are near Turkey, such as Lesvos, Kos, Chios and Samos were found to face an enormous pressure to deal with such large number of refugee arrivals and were struggling to cope with this humanitarian crisis. These islands happen to have limited economic resources making them very fragile in emergency situations, like the one related to the refugee crisis (Skanavis and Kounani, 2016).

However, the massive and continuous influx of refugees and the circumstances under which they were received in Greece provoked a mass solidarity reaction from all over the world (Gkionakis, 2016). Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) with thousands of volunteers arrived in the North Aegean islands, and operating sometimes outside the traditional state frameworks, were a determining factor in dealing with the crisis by creating on-site structures for the rescue, reception and support of refugees (Chtouris and Miller, 2017). Thus, the burden of managing the crisis fell almost exclusively on the shoulders of volunteers and local communities which, despite the improvisational nature of their involvement, made a great humanitarian effort to manage the situation, at the same time when the official political or administrative reactions of the Greek or the European authorities remained strongly inadequate, if not entirely absent (Tsoni, 2016).

As a result of the massive arrival of volunteers in the Greek islands, it was the development of a novel type of alternative tourism that combines tourism activity with the need for volunteering, namely volunteer tourism. According to Wearing (2001: 1) volunteer tourism (or 'voluntourism') refers to "*those tourists who, for various reasons, volunteer in an organized way to undertake holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or environment*". These travelers are more sophisticated, and they increasingly seek unique, authentic and meaningful travel experiences to satisfy their specific needs and desires (Lo and Lee, 2011). The growth of volunteer tourism worldwide has triggered many surveys from researchers, marketers, and NGOs, seeking to learn more about the motivations of these travelers. Nevertheless, while there is a growing volume of literature regarding volunteer tourists' motivations in a number of destinations worldwide, there is a lack of empirical studies focusing in the Greek context. This paper comes to partly fill this gap and contribute to the volunteer tourism literature, as one of the first attempts in Greece to explore the motivations and on-site experiences of volunteers who arrived in Greece to face the refugee crisis.

Literature Review

Several studies have been conducted on volunteer tourism, with a number of these studies focusing on volunteers' motivations. According to Pan (2012), motivation is considered as a key factor in explaining tourist behavior and is an important factor influencing an individual into action to become a volunteer. Soderman and Snead (2008) examined motivations as expressed by British gap year travelers to volunteer overseas (Latin America) and found that they are multifaceted and interlaced. Lo and Lee (2011) mention five main motives for volunteer tourists: the desire to give back and show love and concern, cultural immersion and interaction with the local people, religious involvement, a shared experience with family members, and escape from everyday life. In their study, Gage III and Thapa (2012) examined motivational factors of college students to volunteer and found that the strongest motive was to help others which can be related to the values and understanding dimension. Proyrungroj (2017) investigated motivations of volunteers who offered their services at an orphanage in Thailand, and identified five motivations: to help the children, to gain new experiences, to gain personal development and growth, to learn about/be immersed in local culture, and to meet and make friends. Personal development along with academic achievement was also found as important motivational factors for volunteers in the study of Galley and Clifton (2004). Benson and Seibert (2009) examined the motivations of German volunteers that were recruited in South Africa and found five important factors: to experience something different, to learn about another country and cultures and meet African people, to live in another country and to broaden one's mind via cultural experiences. The study of Brown (2005) concluded in four main motives for volunteer trips: the desire to give back, cultural immersion, the camaraderie that occurs on volunteer vacations, and family issues. Rhoden, Ineson and Ralston (2009)

concluded respectively in six motivational dimensions: altruism, personal (work substitute and relaxation/change), social/affiliative, and finally instrumental (hobbies and skills). According to Anderson and Cairncross (2005), creating opportunities to permit new learning experiences and/or the opportunity to use skills or knowledge that would otherwise go unpracticed are the main motives for people to become volunteers. The findings of Pegg, Patterson and Matsumoto's study (2012) revealed that the primary motivations for volunteers included the desire to meet new people while traveling, experiencing a unique natural environment or geographical location where few tourists had previously visited, and finally a desire to engage in an alternative tourism opportunity to what had been previously experienced.

Much of the discussion about the volunteer tourists' motivations concentrates on the 'altruism versus egoism/self-interest' or 'interpersonal versus personal' issue (Trihas, Antonaki and Kouremenou, 2014). Researchers argue that a historical shift is taking place from volunteering motivated primarily by altruism toward including the motivations of self-development and personal growth (Grabowski, 2013). Mittelberg and Palgi (2011) found that volunteers' motivations represent a pluralistic mix of personal and ideological motives with differential and often unanticipated consequences on both dimensions. Chen and Chen (2011) recognized eleven motivations for volunteers to travel overseas which they categorized into three groups: personal (travel, authentic experience, challenge – stimulation, and other interest), interpersonal (interaction with locals/ cultures, desire to help, enhancing relationships, and encouraged by others), and other (time/ money, unique style of the trip, and organization goal). Similarly, Lee and Yen (2015) agree that volunteer tourists are motivated to volunteer not only for interpersonal reasons (giving back, helping others, working with the locals, contributing skills), but also for personal reasons (developing careers, the desire to travel, experiencing new things, developing new relationships, learning professional development, fulfilling a dream). Broad and Jenkins (2008) examined the motivations of volunteers participated in an environmental conservation and wildlife rehabilitation program in Phuket, Thailand and recognized five motivation categories: altruism, travel, career development, personal development, and finally the characteristics of the specific project. Tiessen (2012) examined the motivations of Canadian youth who traveled abroad to participate in volunteer programs and found that many of these motivations (skills development, testing an academic background or career choice, cross-cultural understanding, language acquisition, adventure or travel experience) generally fit under the category of personal growth, and can be described as egoistic, extrinsic and self-oriented rather than altruistic. Likewise, Daldeniz and Hampton (2011) who examined the motivations of long-term volunteers in a rural development project in Nicaragua, found that their main driver was the acquisition of new skills and field experience, and consequently the enhancement of their curriculum vitae (CV), in order to find employment within their desired sectors, while many of them stated that they aspired to a career with an NGO. In the same direction, according to Chtouris and Miller (2017), for many volunteers, the professionalization process is not a taboo as they do not reject a professional cooperation with NGOs or other institutions. The study of Sin (2009) has found that motivating factors for volunteer tourists were 'to travel' rather than 'to contribute' or volunteer. Grimm and Needham (2012) also categorized volunteer motivations for volunteering abroad into self-interested (e.g. learn, travel, escape, have fun, professional development etc) and altruistic (e.g. help, make a difference, contribute, do something worthwhile etc). Altruism was found to be the primary motivation for volunteers in the study of Knollenberg et al. (2014), while other motivations, such as the desire to experience different cultures, build relationships with family and to escape one's daily life are important too. Weaver (2015) concluded that altruism and personal wellbeing are the most important among 24 motivational factors studied. Coghlan and Fennell (2009) argue that altruism is commonly associated with volunteer tourism as a motivational force for participants and a key factor in their on-site experiences. However, they suggest that, while volunteer tourists may behave in an altruistic manner, personal benefits derived from the

experience by and large dominate the experience. Nevertheless, Mustonen (2007) argues that the line between altruism and egoism is blurred, suggesting that altruistic and ego-centric motives are interconnected.

Other researchers adopt the push-pull factors framework in order to explore the motivations of volunteers. For example, Pan (2012) examined motives for Taiwanese students to volunteer overseas and classified them into pull (expecting challenge, validating personal perceptions of the place, getting to know local residents and experiencing the life in a foreign culture) and push (escaping from daily life to reorganize and relax, look for new ways of life and self-exploration, a desire to give back, to make friends who share a common interest, a less expensive way of traveling, encouragement by others, and parental compulsion) factors. Similarly, Otoo (2013) studied the motivations of American volunteer tourists to Ghana and recognised six key pull factors that motivated them to choose the specific destination (culture, locals, volunteer opportunity, political climate, climate and attractions), and two prime push factors (altruism and learning, and relationship driven motives).

Methodology

A quantitative methodological approach was adopted. This type of research was chosen as it allows the collection of data from a large sample, in a short period of time and with less expense (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). Moreover, several researchers in similar previous studies have also applied the quantitative research methodology as it provides the best potential to assess motivations and expectations across a broad population of volunteer tourists (Benson and Seibert, 2009; Gage III and Thapa, 2012; Knollenberg et al., 2014; Lee and Yen, 2015; Otoo, 2013; Rhoden, Ineson and Ralston, 2009; Weaver, 2015). For the purposes of the research, a structured questionnaire consisting of three sections and eighteen questions, based on literature review, was designed. In the first section, participants were asked to provide some basic information about them, such as the organization they represent, the number of volunteer trips and the kind of volunteer projects they have participated in the past, and the criteria that affect their destination choice for volunteer tourism. The second section focuses on the current trip and examines the length of stay in the destination, the factors that motivated them to participate in this project (key push and pull motivational factors that were often cited in the literature were utilized here), their experience in the destination, and the possibility of either visiting the destination for vacations in the future or recommending it to others. The last section contained questions about participants' profile utilizing several demographic variables, i.e. sex, age, marital status, education, occupation and nationality. To ensure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire, a pilot test was conducted with 10 volunteers in Molyvos, Lesvos, to test efficacy and clarity. Little modifications were then made based on their recommendations.

The survey took place between November 1st, 2015 and February 29th, 2016 in Mithymna (Molyvos) in the island of Lesvos (see Figure 1). Lesvos is located in the North-Eastern Aegean Sea, and with an area of 1,636 km^2 is the third largest Greek island after Crete and Evia. Its coastline of 371 km is really close to the Turkish coast with 10 km distance from the capital Mytilini and 5 km from Efthalou. It has a total population of 85,330 residents. The local economy is based on the agricultural production – with an emphasis on olive oil production – and secondly on tourism. The number of hotels operating in the island has been steadily rising in recent decades, now reaching the number of 112 units (Hellenic Chamber of Hotels, 2018). Molyvos, on the northern part of the island, is the main tourist destination in the island. This village turned into a de facto migrant outpost, due to its proximity to Turkey.

Figure 1. Study area

Source: Google maps

Lesvos was selected among the other northeastern Aegean islands, because it was the epicenter of the refugee crisis, receiving most of the refugee/migrant population. In 2015, up to 7,000 refugees arrived in Lesvos daily and up to 100 national and international organizations, agencies and solidarity collectives, as well as thousands of independent international volunteers were active on the island (Tsoni, 2016). The volunteers' initial primary contribution consisted of frequently saving the refugees, children in particular, upon disembarking on the island and welcoming them (Chtouris and Miller, 2017). A convenience sample was selected. A total of 107 usable questionnaires were collected through personal interviews with volunteers that were active in the area and approached at random in their accommodations. They were informed of the nature of the survey and were asked to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire was administrated only to the volunteers who agreed to participate in the survey. Each survey lasted about 20 minutes. The sample size was considered as acceptable. The collected data were statistically analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0.

Results

The demographic characteristics of the 107 respondents are presented in Table 1. The majority of the respondents (54.2%) were female, while 49 of them (45.8%) were male. Most of them (42.1%) were between 25-34 years old, followed by 25 persons 35-44 years old (23.4%), 22 persons 18-24 years old (20.6%), 14 persons 45-60 years old (13.1%), and just one participant over the age of 60. More than half of the respondents (62.6%) were single, followed by married people (35.5%), while divorced participants only reached a 1.9%. The educational level of the participants was remarkably high, with 69 of them (64.5%) to have graduated from a college or university, and 25 persons (23.4%) holding a Master's or PhD degree. Regarding their occupation, a significant number of participants (40 persons) were either doctors or nurses, followed by students (5.6%), journalists or photojournalists (3.7%) and various other

professionals (47.7%). Full time volunteers represented only 5.6% of the sample (6 persons). In terms of the nationality, 38.3% of the respondents originated from Netherlands, 29.9% from Norway, 11.2% from USA, 9.3% from Canada and the rest from various other countries, mainly European.

Table 1. Sample Information

		N	%
Sex	Male	49	45,8
	Female	58	54,2
Age	18 to 24	22	20,6
	25 to 34	45	42,1
	35 to 44	25	23,4
	45 to 60	14	13,1
	60 and over	1	0,9
Marital Status	Married	38	35,5
	Single	67	62,6
	Divorced	2	1,9
Education Level	Basic	1	0,9
	High school	12	11,2
	College/university	69	64,5
	Master / Doctorate	25	23,4
Occupation	Doctor/Nurse	40	37,4
	Student	6	5,6
	Journalist/ Photojournalist	4	3,7
	Full time volunteer	6	5,6
	Other	51	47,7
Country of origin	Netherlands	41	38,3
	Norway	32	29,9
	USA	12	11,2
	Canada	10	9,3
	Israel	2	1,9
	Denmark	1	0,9
	Ireland	1	0,9
	Italy	1	0,9
	Sweden	1	0,9
	Scotland	1	0,9
	Switzerland	1	0,9
	Jordan	1	0,9
	Greece-Canada	1	0,9
	Sweden-Hungary	1	0,9
	Norway-Iraq	1	0,9
TOTAL		107	

For 52 volunteers (48.6%), this was their first volunteer trip abroad. 21 volunteers (19.6%) can be described as experienced by having participated in more than three volunteer trips, while two of them have three trips, 18 of them have two trips, and 14 volunteers have participated in one volunteer trip before. For 47 of the volunteers (43.9%) this was their first trip to Greece, while the rest 56.1% had visited the country before. Regarding their length of stay in Lesvos, 59.8% of the respondents stated that they will stay for one to two weeks, 22.4% for 15-30 days, 6.5% for 31-60 days, another 6.5% for more than 60 days, and finally 5 volunteers for less than one week.

A high percentage of participants (43%) did not have any previous experience in volunteer programs, as this was the first project, they participated in. The others were asked about the type of the most recent volunteer project they participated in. Their responses vary and confirm the variety of relevant projects available: community development (22.4%), medical assistance (15.9%), economic and social development (5.6%), scientific research (2.8%), cultural/historical restoration (2.8%), ecological conservation (1.9%), and other (5.6%) (building projects, church mission trips, orphanage, arts). Only two of the participants reported recent past experience of a migrant or refugee crisis (in Mexico in particular).

In the following part of the research the participants were asked to indicate in a scale of 1 (unimportant) to 5 (extremely important) on how important are some aspects when choosing a destination for volunteer trips (pull factors) (Table 2). Two factors seem to be of great importance to the respondents: first, the level of need in the destination (Mean=4.46) and secondly the safety in the destination (Mean=3.36). Accessibility to the destination is less important, while other factors most relevant to the 'touristic' characteristics of the destination (i.e. attractiveness and familiarity of the destination, not visited before) appear to play no important role in the destination selection process.

Table 2. Importance of various aspects when choosing a destination for voluntourism

	Unimportant				Extremely important	Mean	SD
	1	2	3	4	5		
Safety in the destination	3,7	25,2	25,2	22,4	23,4	3,36	1,201
Level of need in the destination	0,0	3,7	3,7	35,5	57,0	4,46	0,743
Attractiveness of the destination	47,7	32,7	11,2	6,5	1,9	1,82	0,998
Accessibility of the destination	19,6	36,4	23,4	11,2	9,3	2,54	1,200
Familiarity of the destination	56,1	25,2	9,3	5,6	3,7	1,76	1,080
Not visited before the destination	66,4	15,0	14,0	1,9	2,8	1,60	0,989

Note: 1=Unimportant, 5=Extremely important

Subsequently, participants were asked to state the reasons (motivations) that prompted them to participate as volunteers on this trip to Lesvos (Table 3). As can be seen from their answers, volunteers traveled to Lesvos mainly to help people in need (Mean=4.94), to do something meaningful and worthwhile (Mean=4.69), and to work with an organization whose mission they support (Mean=4.09). Other quite important motivations are 'to do something always wanted to' (Mean=3.51), 'to challenge myself' (Mean=3.31), and 'to broaden my horizon' (Mean=3.02). On the contrary, the motivational factors that contributed the least to the volunteers' decision to participate in this trip are 'to escape from my own troubles' (Mean=1.36), 'to visit Greece / Lesvos' (Mean=1.57), 'to be close to nature' (Mean=1.36), and 'to view the scenery' (Mean=1.44).

Table 3. Volunteers' level of agreement on various reasons regarding their decision to participate in this volunteer trip

One of the reasons I chose to come on this trip was…	Strongly Disagree		Neither Agree or Disagree		Strongly agree	Mean	SD
	1	2	3	4	5		
To travel	59,8	15,9	14,0	4,7	5,6	1,80	1,185
To visit Greece / Lesvos	66,4	15,9	12,1	5,6	0,0	1,57	0,912
To view the scenery	66,4	25,2	6,5	0,0	1,9	1,44	0,769
To help people in need	0,0	0,0	1,9	1,9	96,3	4,94	0,302
To live a cathartic experience	45,8	20,6	24,3	7,5	1,9	1,99	1,086
To meet people who may help me in my career	66,4	17,8	8,4	1,9	5,6	1,63	1,095
To be daring and adventurous	50,5	20,6	18,7	3,7	6,5	1,95	1,200
To think about my personal values	42,1	15,0	20,6	14,0	8,4	2,32	1,364
To have a good time	54,2	16,8	21,5	3,7	3,7	1,86	1,111
To be close to nature	74,8	17,8	5,6	0,0	1,9	1,36	0,757
To gain experience and skills that will help me in my career	36,4	19,6	20,6	11,2	12,1	2,43	1,395
To experience new and different things	28,0	20,6	14,0	24,3	13,1	2,74	1,430
To be with people who have similar values	27,1	15,9	25,2	24,3	7,5	2,69	1,306
To explore new places	54,2	19,6	10,3	12,1	3,7	1,92	1,214
To experience the challenge of the task	29,9	6,5	28,0	25,2	10,3	2,79	1,392
To develop my personal interests	39,3	20,6	16,8	15,0	8,4	2,32	1,356
To experience different cultures	33,6	29,0	13,1	11,2	13,1	2,41	1,394
To develop a relationship with other volunteer tourists	42,1	19,6	25,2	7,5	5,6	2,13	1,217
To escape from the daily routine	57,9	15,0	12,1	5,6	9,3	1,93	1,334
To take part in a rare opportunity	34,6	16,8	18,7	12,1	17,8	2,62	1,502
To meet new people	37,4	19,6	24,3	7,5	11,2	2,36	1,348

To do something meaningful and worthwhile	1,9	0,9	1,9	16,8	78,5	4,69	0,732
To work with an organization whose mission I support	11,2	1,9	4,7	30,8	51,4	4,09	1,285
To do something always wanted to	13,1	12,1	19,6	20,6	34,6	3,51	1,410
To live an authentic experience	29,0	15,0	25,2	12,1	18,7	2,77	1,464
To be more than a tourist	30,8	10,3	14,0	20,6	24,3	2,97	1,593
To broaden my horizon	20,6	11,2	29,0	24,3	15,0	3,02	1,352
To challenge myself	13,1	16,8	19,6	27,1	23,4	3,31	1,349
To learn more about the country	58,9	12,1	18,7	2,8	7,5	1,88	1,249
To learn new skills	24,3	19,6	22,4	18,7	15,0	2,80	1,390
To escape from my own troubles	77,6	14,0	4,7	1,9	1,9	1,36	0,817
To combine a love of travel with a desire to give back	37,4	14,0	19,6	12,1	16,8	2,57	1,505

Note: 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree

In the next part of the survey, volunteers were asked to freely describe their best and worst experiences of participating in the program. Participants' perceptions of best experience were largely linked to the concept of altruism: "the sense of solidarity and cooperation", "the privilege of helping traumatized people", "the gratitude of people that we were able to help and the smiles of the children", "the rewarding feeling", "all the helping hands", "giving smiles to those in need", "all the families and people we helped", "the fact that we are doing something to help people, although not enough", "smiling children after they get dry clothes", "saving people's lives and seeing their smiles on their faces knowing that I have touched a part of their painful experience to a better experience", "helping people off the boats and giving them a hug, warm clothes and food/water to see their joy at arriving safely", "the gratefulness of the refugees and the feeling of doing good thins", "what the volunteer represent: love compassion, heart" were just few of the many responses that focused on the feeling of helping other people in need. Another group of answers focused on the meeting of volunteers with other people, whether they were locals, other volunteers or refugees: "the amazing people I have met here", "the people who are from this area and their kindness", "my fellow volunteers", "good heartfelt contact with local Greeks, cooperation of people from different European countries", "all the good people I have met", "all the lovely Greek people of this island and from around Greece and all the volunteers", "the good people of Lesvos – they are all so kind, generous and giving, I am amazed", "the local's people generosity", "the people of Lesvos are very kind and thankful", "talking with refugees and hearing their stories", "having a football match with refugees", "the different people of all over Europe and elsewhere coming to help people in need, it feels like one big international family". Finally, some volunteers reported "the beautiful scenery", "the nature" and "the nice food" in Lesvos.

On the contrary, worst experiences highlighted mainly the issue of the loss of refugee lives in their voyage from the coasts of Turkey to Lesvos: "I saw dead children", "when a shipwreck happened where we had to deal with people dying", "when I saw a boat sinking in front of my eyes and the death of all these people who did not make it", "resuscitation of two drowned children", "hypothermic drowned people". Other volunteers addressed the issue of the lack of adequate means to face the humanitarian crisis and the absence of assistance from other organizations or authorities: "realizing that Lesvos does not receiving any help from the UN or any major organization that can deal with what is happening", "hospital and ambulance lack means and knowledge to take over patients with life threatening disease", "not to be able to help them all", "when we had nothing to give out when everyone was so hungry, wet and cold and there were so many refugees and very few volunteers", "the lack of coordinated international aid for the refugees and the lack of assistance to the Greek people in this effort", "not be able to provide the help people needed", 'luck of support – coordination by local government". Various other bad experiences included: "tiredness and sleeplessness", "storm", "people with 'hero' syndrome", "my trip to come here", "crashing my car", "the journalists – I think we need them, but they are too focused only on bad thinks and tragedy". Of particular interest are the views of some volunteers focusing on the competition that had developed between the different volunteer groups operating on the island: "there was not much to do, there were many volunteers and not much work", "not so many boats", "competing with other volunteer groups". All in all, participants comparing their experience of participating in the project with their prior expectations, would characterize it 'as it was expected' or 'better' (Mean=3.26).

In the last part of the survey, volunteers were asked if they would visit again Lesvos in the future for vacations this time, and if they would recommend Lesvos as a tourist destination to other people. In both cases, participants were quite positive in their answers (Mean=3.63 and Mean=3.93 respectively).

Discussion and Conclusion

As a whole, the on-going refugee and migrant crisis contribute for an unfavorable tourism conjuncture on the Greek islands of the North Aegean Sea. In Lesvos, the ability of the destination to adapt to the refugee crisis and at the same time sustain tourism and, by that, ensure that tourists can co-exist with locals and refugees, was threatened (Röslmaier, 2016). In the last years, the island of Lesvos has been transformed from an idyllic tourist destination into one of the main entry gates for immigrants and refugees to Europe. The refugee crisis affected island's inbound tourism – one of the main sources of income for the locals – as in 2016 there was a significant decrease in tourist arrivals. According to data by Mytilene airport, international passenger arrivals in 2016 dropped to 32,295 down from 75,767 in 2015, a decline of 42.8%. Some tour operators have stopped offering vacation packages to Lesvos, while many cruise companies have diverted from the island, with just 25 cruise ships docking in 2016, compared with the 46 cruise ships in 2015. The drop-in arrivals was attributed directly to the refugee crisis, with troubled tourists selecting alternative destinations in the country (Kolasa-Sikiaridi, 2016). Tourists – especially the sun-lust tourists (Pappas and Papatheodorou, 2017) – are worried that 'their' environment will be altered by refugee presence (Röslmaier, 2016). However, Lesvos has seen the rise of another form of tourism, that of volunteer tourism. Aid workers and volunteers arriving from all over the world to help the refugees, along with UN and Frontex employees, journalists, activists, photographers, researchers and others, keep tourism enterprises unseasonably busy. Consequently, the story of what constitutes 'tourism' is expanded yet further by these volunteer arrivals that use tourism services. This paper has been written to contribute to the body of knowledge on volunteers' travel motivations, and to stimulate further research in the field.

Most of the participants in this survey were female, single, young and well educated. These characteristics confirm the profile of volunteers in previous researches (see Galley and Clifton, 2004). Moreover, many of them were either doctors or nurses, followed by students and journalists/photojournalists. These professions also confirm the findings of other researchers. For example, Chtouris and Miller (2017) argue that in many cases, the contribution of volunteers, particularly senior ones, consists in the skills and experience they have already acquired as part of the profession they exercise or have exercised. Investigating the independent volunteering action in the unofficial settlements in Eidomeni, Piraeus, and Victoria Square in Greece, they found that some of the volunteers' professional activities and skills were cooking, legal services, organization and management, medical and nursing services, and journalism. A high percentage of participants in this survey were first-time volunteers, while only two of them had previous recent experience of a migrant or refugee crisis (in Mexico in particular). Other surveys that were conducted around the same time period in volunteers operating in Lesvos, found also that the majority of them had no prior relation or involvement (personal, educational or professional) with refugee issues (Tsoni, 2016), and even more they had no previous experience in shipwreck response or in dealing with survivors of shipwrecks (Gkionakis, 2016).

Throughout the literature, it is seen that the motivation of volunteer tourists is multidimensional. Many authors categorize the motivations for individuals to take part in volunteer trips into egoistic (self-interested) and altruistic (although that according to Holmes and Smith (2009) they are rarely entirely altruistic) or personal and interpersonal. Other researchers adopt the push-pull factors theory. In this study, it is clear that the driving force behind the decision of the volunteers to travel to Lesvos was altruism. Their main motivations were to help people in need, to do something meaningful and worthwhile, and to work with an organization whose mission they support. Moreover, when choosing a destination to offer their voluntary services, they take into account mainly two factors: the level of need in the destination and the safety in the destination. On the other hand, other motivations oriented toward self-interest or egoism (e.g. the desire to travel or to gain experience and skills that will help them in their career) which are acknowledged as the strongest motivation in other studies (see Daldeniz and Hampton, 2011; Sin, 2009), in this study were found to be rather unimportant. These findings concur with those of several other studies, which argue that volunteering involves a desire to help others and for that is associated with altruism (Chen and Chen, 2011; Coghlan and Fennell, 2009; Grimm and Needham, 2012; Knollenberg et al., 2014; Lee and Yen, 2015; Otoo, 2013; Weaver, 2015). These altruistic travel motivations separate volunteer tourists and traditional tourists. According to Guttentag (2011) volunteer tourists are no longer uncaring hedonists, but rather compassionate ambassadors of goodwill. Wearing and McGehee (2013: 132) introduce a concern regarding the study of volunteer tourists' motivations: "*Have we reached a place in the study of volunteer tourism where we can say with confidence that we truly understand the motivations of the volunteer tourists? If the end result of volunteer tourism has the same impact on the community regardless of motivation, does it matter if the tourist is motivated by altruism?*". These are difficult questions and not easily answered. In any case, knowing why volunteers decide to travel and volunteer can help NGOs and other volunteer tourism organizations in recruiting potential volunteer tourists and in developing programs that can perfectly meet their needs and interests. The results of this study suggest with confidence that altruism is a strong motivation that cannot be ignored in strategies to attract and satisfy participants in volunteer projects.

A number of the available studies focus on the on-site experiences gained by volunteer tourists suggesting that they are diverse and play a significant role towards their satisfaction. According to Wearing and McGehee (2013), volunteer tourism as a form of alternative tourism can create

a tourism experience that is more heavily influenced by motivations such as altruism than in the case of mainstream tourism. In this study, it was found that refugees did play a significant role in the volunteer tourists' on-site experiences, causing both strong positive and negative feelings to them. Volunteer tourists' perceptions of best experience are largely based on altruism and the feeling of helping others and doing something meaningful and worthwhile. Moreover, the social dimension of volunteer tourism experiences which is highlighted in many other previous studies (Brown, 2005; Lo and Lee, 2011; Proyrungroj, 2017) was also identified as crucial for the creation of a positive experience. This social dimension includes the opportunity to meet, interact and develop relationships with local people in Lesvos, other volunteer tourists and refugees. According to Proyrungroj (2017), the interaction of volunteers with local people allows them to experience more authentic and genuine experiences. Wearing and Grabowski (2011) also argue that the relationship between the volunteer tourist and the local community allows a richer understanding of the volunteer tourism experience, where more equal power relationships are evolving. The beautiful scenery of Lesvos also contributed to a positive experience in a smaller number of refugees. In total, it seems that in Lesvos there is an intense interaction between the volunteer tourists, the refugees, the host community and the natural environment, and this interaction form the volunteers' experience.

As expected, the sight of dead refugees, especially children, largely shaped the worst experience for volunteer tourists. Previous studies (Zahra and McIntosh, 2007) argue that witnessing and encountering suffering and hardship among local people in host countries can lead to negative feelings for volunteers. In Lesvos, the images of the dead refugees were so strong that actually it was impossible for volunteers to remain indifferent. Proyrungroj (2017) suggests that volunteer tourism experiences are learning in nature: the volunteer tourists are out of their comfort zone and have to face unfamiliar and challenging things on their own. As mentioned before, many of the volunteer tourists who participated in this survey were first-time volunteers with no previous experience in refugee crises, in shipwreck response or in dealing with survivors of shipwrecks. This fact made the feelings of the situations they faced in Lesvos even stronger. These experiences differ from the 'normal' tourism experiences and are life changing (Zahra, 2011). Other bad experiences were related with the lack of adequate means to face the massive influx of refugees in the island and the absence of assistance from other organizations or authorities. Overall, volunteer tourists in Lesvos were satisfied with their involvement in the program, which is in line with the findings of previous studies suggesting that volunteer tourists are generally satisfied with their experiences (Brown, 2005; Lo and Lee, 2011; Zahra and McIntosh, 2007).

Limitations and Future Research

There are some limitations in this study. The number of respondents is relatively small. Therefore, the results might not reflect the volunteer tourism market as a whole and may not be applicable to the thousands of volunteers operating in Lesvos and other North Aegean islands (Chios, Samos, Kos, Leros) which due to their geographical proximity to the coasts of Turkey turned into entry points for the refugees. Moreover, the same research in a different time period with fewer inflows of refugees and fewer shipwrecks would likely significantly differentiate the on-site experiences of volunteers on the island. The findings of this study are unique to the concept of refugee crisis volunteer tourism. Therefore, future studies could focus on the differences on motivations and on-site experiences of volunteer tourists who participated in different type of projects (e.g. sports and other special events, community development, economic and social development, scientific research, cultural/historical restoration, ecological conservation etc.). Grabowski (2013) argues that the type of activity that is performed while volunteering has a large part to play in the types of volunteers it attracts and, therefore, the needs and motivations that are satisfied. Finally, volunteer tourism in Lesvos can be

investigated from the perspectives of other stakeholders directly involved with the refugee crisis, such as the local community, the local authorities, the tourism businesses, and the refugees themselves as they are direct aid recipients of the volunteer tourists.

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THE DIMENSION OF RISK PERCEPTION IN THE CONTEXT OF POLITICAL CRISES

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Abstract: The tourism industry is fragile because tourists are highly vulnerable to various crises and disasters. Because of the safety concerns of tourists, the tourism industry can suffer as a direct result of internal political conflict. Political crises can increase the perception of risk at the tourist destinations. This paper aims to examine the underlying dimension of risk perception in the context of political crises. A qualitative approach was employed to gain multiple perspectives and a deeper understanding of risk perception from an international tourist's perspective regarding political crises. The semi-structured interview technique was selected to identify the types of risks or fears of the respondents when travelling to the political crisis destination. There were 64 respondents, comprising both potential international tourists and tourists who had previously visited Bangkok. Some respondents had experienced political crisis incidents, others had not. Thematic analysis of the data resulted in the identification of 32 political crisis risk perceptions which were grouped into 6 main themes as follows: 1. Trust in government; 2. Feeling lost; 3. Political turmoil anxiety; 4. Feeling detained; 5. Hospitality distorted; 6. Lack of political crisis knowledge/background. Understanding risk perceptions regarding political crises will help destination managers develop more effective crisis management strategies for dealing with potential political crises in their countries.

Keywords: Tourists' Risk Perceptions, Political Crises, Dimension of Political Risk Perception

Introduction

Tourists are very sensitive to crises and disasters in destination countries which give rise to risk and safety concerns. In some parts of the world the tourism industry is in crisis as the result of ongoing political uncertainty and interconnected violence. Recent examples include the protests in Bangkok, Seoul, Hong Kong, Kuala Lumpur, and Istanbul, as well as the safety and security concerns arising from the North Korean missile tests which have created tension between the countries around Korean Peninsula. In many tourist destination countries where political instability and conflict has occurred, the tourism industry has been affected negatively, with a decline in the number of international tourist arrivals and tourism revenue.

The relationship between the change in the number of tourist arrivals and the occurrence of political crises indicates the way the political stability of a nation can determine the future of international tourism demand. According to Reisinger & Mavondo (2005), the tourism industry cannot develop in countries or destinations that are perceived as harmful and dangerous. Safety and physical security are the primary conditions for the normal tourism development of a destination, region, or country. For example, because of the prolonged political protest in Thailand (2013-2014) the tourism business certainly experienced a decrease in the number of international tourist arrivals and tourism revenues.

The impact of political instability on a country's tourism industry is potentially both immediate and long-lasting. Additionally, in some circumstances, instability in one country may affect the tourism sector of neighbouring countries. For example, there have been conflicts within Turkey as well as conflicts in neighbouring countries and the number of international tourists has been decreasing gradually. In contrast Greece has attract more international tourists as illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Number of international tourist arrivals in selected countries, 2005 - 2016
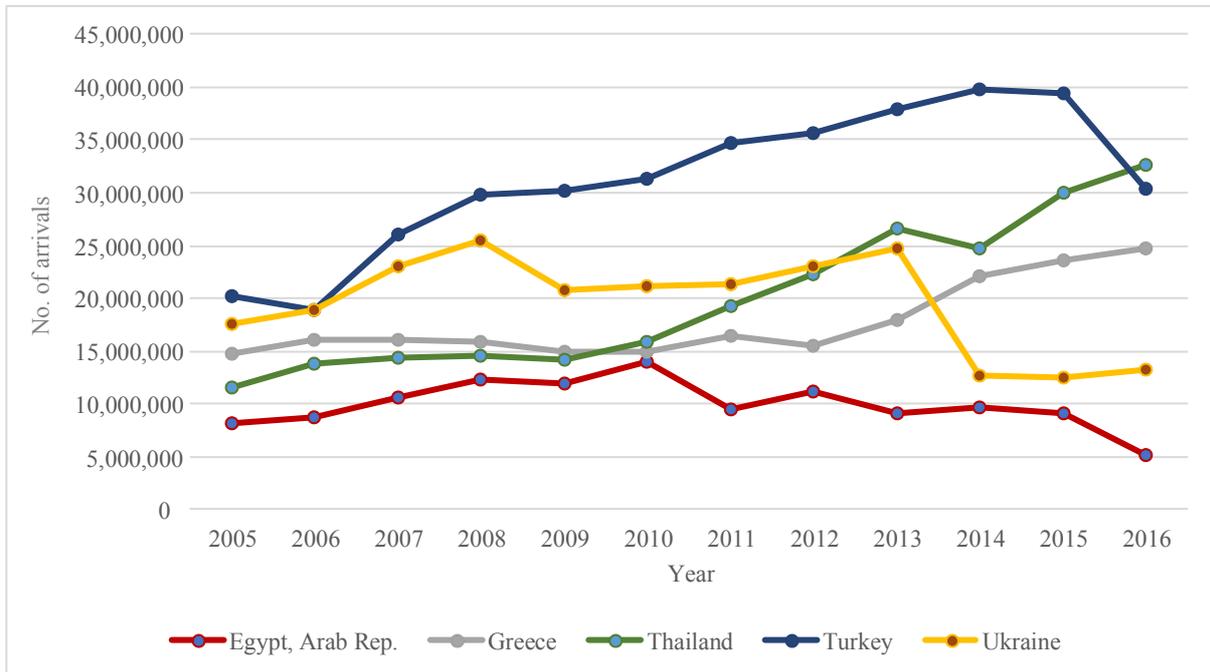
Source: (World Bank 2018)

Figure 1 illustrates the decline in the number of international tourist arrivals during and after the political crises in selected countries from 2005 to 2016. The Egyptian and tourist deaths resulting from attacks in Sharm El Sheikh and the city of Dahab in 2005 and 2006, together with the Arab Spring and the overthrow of President Mubarak (2011) led the number of international tourists to decline from approximately 14 to 9.5 million. Two years later, the political crisis in Egypt that led to the ousting of President Morsi resulted in the decrease of international tourist arrivals to 9.5 million in 2013 from 11.5 million in 2012. The period of political uncertainty in Egypt has resulted in the decline of the number of international tourists visiting the country.

Another example of the result of political crises on the number of tourist arrivals can be seen in Thailand. In December 2008 the international airport closure caused a decline in international tourists' confidence. This event led to a decrease in international arrivals of approximately 3% year-on-year. Political uncertainty continued into 2013-2014 with approximately 6 months of anti-government protests in Bangkok. The tourism industry was hit by a decline in the number of international tourist arrivals and tourism revenues (26 million in 2013 to 24 million in 2014). It shows that Thailand lost the opportunity to gain more international tourists due to the ongoing political crisis.

Given the recent decrease in international arrivals due to political conflict, there is a need to understand tourists' perceptions so that tourism organisations in both the public and private sectors can be better prepared in the future. However, less attention has been paid to international tourists' perceptions of the risks resulting from internal political crises. The purpose of the study is to provide a better understanding of risk dimensions from the tourist's perspective in the specific context of the political crisis.

Literature Review

Political Conflict and Tourism
Political instability usually takes places where a government has been plunged into, or controlled by, dissensions following riots, protests, coup d'état, or where essential functional pre-requisites for social-order control and maintenance are unstable and periodically interrupted. Williams (2012) says that 'political instability' refers to a situation in which the conditions and mechanisms of governance and rule are defined as to their legitimacy by uncontrol elements outside the regular political system.

There are different degrees of political instability. For example, from the history of Thai governments, the life spans of governments have been very short. Since 1932, the Thai military has seized power twelve times. Moreover, 6 months of prolonged protest in 2013 – 2014 resulted in a decrease in the number of international tourist arrivals and tourism expenditures. Political conflicts have dramatically affected the tourist flows, tourism industry development and policy decisions. According to Hall (2002), the issues of political disputes and political relations within and between states are greatly crucial in determining the tourist destination image and tourists' risk perceptions. Hence, if there is no safety and security at the destination, both business and leisure travel will be affected negatively.

Recent studies (Cohen and Neal, 2010) on the cumulative effects of Thailand's multiple economic and political crises on the Thai tourism industry from 2007 to 2009 point out that the occupation of Bangkok's main airport absolutely disrupted and provoked a sharp drop in the number of arrivals and in the economy of Thailand more generally. Moreover, Campiranon et., al. (2011) analysed how the Thai government responded very differently to the impact on the country's tourism industry of the 2004 tsunami and the 2008 Bangkok airport closure crisis. They noted that in the case of tsunami, the response benefited the tourism industry; while in the case of the airport closure, the response was damaging to the tourism industry.

Risk Perception
Slovic (2016) defined risk perception as interpretations and others subjective judgments about risks thereby risk perception refers to people's subjective judgments about probability of negative occurrences. Since 1960 theoretical inquiry and empirical research have paid significantly increased attention to the concept of risk perception. Bauer (1960) is one of the early scholars to have identified risk perception as a determinant of consumer behaviour within the context of marketing. Since that time, many researchers have broadly applied the notion of risk perception to various disciplines, including sociology, political science, geography and psychology (Mitchell 1999; Slovic 2016). Marketing literature concerning the concept of customer risk perception, also termed perceived risk, and has focused its attention on consumer decision making in the marketing context.

The significance of the concept of risk lies in its dominant operation in dealing with customers' decision-making process. When coping with a choice, the consumer perceives risk as part of the ambivalence about a decision's consequences and outcomes (Bauer 1960). Some researchers perceive it as a pivotal role of marketing consumer behaviour that might produce anxiety (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005) and noted that risk perception influences consumer choice during the pre-decision making process and is particularly influential in the information search stage (Conchar, et., al. 2004).

Moutinho (1987) is also the first researcher to relate the concept of risk perception to the travel decision making process. He argued that there are four main factors involved in determining the perceived level of risk i.e., past behaviour, information, personality, and level of risk awareness. In his conceptual work, he emphasised that risk perception plays a role in raising the tourist's awareness of the consequence of loss in the first stage of travel decision making.

Dimension of Risk Perception

Since the concept of risk perception was recognised as an integral part of consumer purchasing behaviour, many scholars have expressed concern about both its status as an unstandardized construct and the broad classification of its dimensions (Conchar, et., al. 2004; Simpson and Siguaw, 2008). Within risk perception studies, even the term dimension is used interchangeably with terms such as 'typicality' (Mitchell 1999; Ross 1975) or 'component' (Brooker 1984). Further, there is inconsistency in the labelling of the dimensions of risk perception. For example, Roselius (1971) used the term monetary loss, while Mitchell (1999) used financial risk.

Within the marketing context, scholars have attempted to classifying the dimensions of risk perception. Roselius (1971), one of the earlier scholars, proposed that there are 4 dimensions of perceived risk, which he called time loss, hazard loss, money loss, and ego loss. While Kaplan et., al (1974) argued that there are another 5 dimensions of perceived risk which i.e., performance, financial, psychological, physical, and social. In their study, Kaplan et., al. (1974) further demonstrated that these dimensions could explain 74% of the overall perceived risk for 12 consumer products, which included health, recreational, and hygiene items. Their research claimed that performance is the most powerful dimension and that this explains the variance among the other dimensions. Brooker (1984) combined the 5 dimensions of the Kaplan et., al. (1974) and the time loss dimension of Roselius's study, and found that the performance and financial dimensions are the strongest predictors of variance among brands of generic products (Roselius 1971). The literature indicates that risk perceptions are often influenced by the context. Therefore, this study attempts to deploy the notion of risk perception within the context of international tourism to destination in political crises.

Methodology

The semi-structured interview technique was deployed with 64 respondents comprising both potential international tourists and tourists who had previously visited Bangkok. Some respondents had experienced political crisis incidents, others had not. Targeting this sample population allowed the risk perceptions of both groups to be identified. Each respondent could mention about risks or fears that they have been concerned more than 1 risk. The semi-structured interview technique was selected because some of the questions used in this study were sensitive and personal, questions related to personal political crisis experience. As suggested by Smithson (2000), the semi-structured interview is more appropriate than the use of focus groups if the topic of research is sensitive and personal. This study used purposive sampling, particularly snowball sampling.

Data Analysis

This study employed thematic analysis to identify, analyse, and report patterns (themes) within the semi-structured interview data. Regarding the accuracy of the data, each transcript and note taken was coded to ensure the anonymity of each respondent. This process allowed the researcher to identify themes in the data such as uncertainty, consequence, and concerns about travelling to Bangkok during a political crisis. The researcher generated the initial codes and listed them by their frequency. The 46 themes that resulted were reduced to 32 by eliminating

themes and words that were not relevant in a political crisis context. Themes that were infrequent were rejected.

Findings

Thematic analysis led to 32 perceptions of political risk being identified as listed in Table 1. Each of these 32 risk perceptions constituted a minor theme. These themes were identified by keywords that were relevant in a political crisis context. Where it was apparent that minor themes could logically be grouped, they became a major theme, such as political turmoil anxiety, feeling lost and feeling detained. Therefore, each major theme is comprised of several minor themes. For example, for the major theme of government trust, there are 5 minor themes. The outcome was that the 32 risk perceptions (minor themes) were grouped into 6 major themes. The major themes were then ranked according to the number of respondents who identified with each theme.

Table 1 Themes of risk perception in a political crisis context

Major Themes	Minor Themes
1. Political turmoil anxiety (88 mentions)	1. Feel anxious to hear a free speech from the protest 2. Afraid to encounter corpses 3. Afraid that no one will help 4. Depression from seeing political violence 5. Chaotic situation 6. Feel anxious to see the demonstration
2. Feeling lost (72 mentions)	1. Difficulties in finding the hotel and transportation 2. Sudden emergence of a political violence 3. Worried about family 4. Physical loss 5. Time loss 6. Financial loss 7. Separated from family members
3. Feeling detained (69 mentions)	1. The main airport will be closed 2. Get trapped in the congested road 3. Language barrier 4. Disconnected telecommunication network 5. Unavailability of basic transportations 6. Get trapped in the hotel
4. Government trust (26 mentions)	1. Obscure information from government 2. Distrust government's crisis planning 3. Government role in safety procedure 4. Unclear mitigation information 5. Government travel warning
5. Hospitality distorted (18 mentions)	1. Failure of service quality standard 2. Uncooperative action of the local people 3. Unfriendly local people 4. Unfriendly/unkind government officer
6. Lack of political crisis knowledge (14 mentions)	1. Lack of knowledge in political crisis 2. Inadequate information on political crisis 3. Lack of personal knowledge on political crisis mitigation 4. Lack of political background

Major theme 1: Political turmoil anxiety

Within the major theme of political turmoil anxiety are 6 minor themes, which were summarised from the 88 comments that respondents made relating to this theme. As becomes evident from an explanation of the 6 minor themes, political turmoil anxiety is mainly a psychological risk. This finding supports the work of Kaplan et., al. (1974) and Mitchell (1999). Moreover, this theme also relates to negative emotions that might affect risk perceptions (Tronvoll 2011).

Major theme 2: Feeling lost

Feeling lost was the second most cited concern by respondents with 72 mentions. The results of this study found 7 minor themes within this theme. This theme includes physical risk i.e., the possibility that a trip to a particular destination will result in physical danger, injury or sickness (Roehl and Fesenmaier 1992) and family-related anxiety such as a fear of losing, being separated from, or worried about a family member during a turmoil. The physical risk and the financial risk are well documented in the tourism literature (Floyd and Pennington-Gray 2004; Reisinger and Mavondo 2005). The possibility of losing belongings or having to pay extra money is supported by Fuchs and Reichel (2006) in the context of political instability in Israel.

Major theme 3: Feeling detained

The risk of the inconvenience and discomfort of travelling was mentioned 69 times. These comments were then grouped into 6 minor themes within the major theme of feeling detained. This risk included the unavailability of communication networks and basic transportation. Respondents often referred to the closure of Bangkok airport in 2008, indicating the potential for a previous crisis to influence a tourist's assessment of potential risk.

Major theme 4: Government trust

Government trust relates to proactive planning for managing a disaster or crisis. Ritchie (2009) argues that with proactive disaster or crisis plan management, the role of each institution should be integrated. There were 26 mentions relating to government trust, and these were grouped into 5 minor themes.

Major theme 5: Hospitality distorted

These risks were mentioned 18 times and were categorised in 4 minor themes. The image of Thailand is of a land of smile and excellent of hospitality. Most tourists are always expecting excellent service from tourism industry staff and friendly local people. In case of political crisis, tourists are afraid of the service being unstandardized. These were social and satisfactions risks. Mitchell (1999) suggested that this kind of risk perception should be considered a performance risk.

Major theme 6: Lack of political crisis knowledge/background

A total of 14 mentions were received regarding the lack of political crisis knowledge/ background awareness. These were grouped into 4 minor themes. A perceived risk that has not been discussed in the previous literature is political crisis knowledge and background awareness. For this aspect of natural disasters literature, mitigation awareness is important in reducing the risk perception level, particularly for people who have previously stayed in a disaster area. This knowledge should be sourced from school, family, community, and self-

education (Shaw et., al. 2004). However, in the case of political crisis destination, knowledge of the political and historical situation in the destination is very important and can help assess levels of risk, unlike the situation in the case of natural disaster destination.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study expands the knowledge of risk perceptions such as negative emotions, uncertainty situation, negative perception of psychological risks, distrust, and cooperation in performance risks, fatality and injury in physical risks. Despite its complexity, this study provides a more nuanced direction for further research compared to that which adopts the general risk dimensions found in the marketing literature and provides access to a deeper understanding of risks from the tourist's perspective. There are several concerns arising from this study.

Firstly, travel risk is context-specific, which suggests that the general risk types in the literature are not always validated, as found in the political crisis context in this study. Clearly, the three most important risks that dominate tourists' concerns include political turmoil anxiety, feeling lost and feeling detained. It is interesting to note that there is a difference in the level of fear between human-made crises and natural disasters regarding tourist travel concerns, and between different types of tourists (domestic tourists and international tourists). Some of these risks are considered important in other risk contexts and destinations. For example, in the context of crises such as terrorism, bird flu, and epidemic in Thailand Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty (2009) found that the great risk was the money loss. While in the context of political conflict in Israel, financial and social risk play an important role in the tourist's risk perception (Fuchs and Reichel 2006; Reichel et., al. 2007). In the context of domestic tourists, financial and time risks should be of less concern due to different travel distances and different types of travel decision making. International tourism involves complex buying behaviour that requires high involvement in travel purchase, significant differences between destinations and where it is more likely to impact on financial loss (Mitchell 1999). This finding is supported by Ritchie (2009) and Sharifpour et al. (2014), who suggest that different contexts or different destinations have different tourist risk perceptions, making it clear that the general risk types vary in validity from context to contexts.

Secondly, this study found that different risk categories exist under a single risk dimension, such as those found in political turmoil anxiety, feeling lost, or feeling detained. Although they seem to be inconsistent, the finding is formulated from fundamental explorations determined by tourists. For example, the dimension of feeling lost consists of the physical risk, financial risk and time risk. Fuchs & Reichel (2006) also noticed this in the case of tourist visiting Israel, where they found that food safety and weather were incorporated under a single dimension, thus showing that risk perception is a broad and blurred concept. This is reinforced by Dolnicar (2005) who argued that risk categories are highly multifaceted and cannot be subsumed under a single heading or measured by a single item.

Lastly, the knowledge and background risk dimension of the political crisis context relates to a predictable crisis. This suggests that political crisis knowledge and awareness can be obtained from information provided in terms of information content and types of media should be concerned about reducing the risk. The media management strategy is considered by this finding. This will help the destination manager develop more effective crisis management strategies and preparedness to deal with potential political crises in their countries.

To conclude, this study explored 6 dimensions of travel risk in the context of political crises. They consist of political turmoil anxiety, feeling lost, feeling detained, government trust, hospitality distorted, and lack of political crisis knowledge/background. Many of these risks are

consistent with risks found in other contexts. However, the new finding of risk dimension in the context of political crisis is the level of concern relating to lack of knowledge/background regarding the crisis political crisis knowledge/background. As a political crisis is a predictable event, some international tourists who lack the political knowledge/background of the destination can receive news and information from many types of media to reduce their fear of risk. By understanding the risk perceptions regarding the political crises, destination managers and tourism authorities can select the information sources by which to communicate with tourists through effective crisis management strategies. To advance the findings of this study, it is proposed to investigate travel intentions and the factors that influence international tourists' risk perception in the context of political crisis.

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