

**‘FINDING OUT WHAT WORKS’  
AN IMPACT EVALUATION AT FOOTPRINT TRAVEL**

*by*

Koen Verkoijen

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requirements for the degree of

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Author's name: Koen Verkoijen

Student number: 4531868

Supervisor: Dr. Witsenburg

Second reader: Prof. dr. Ernste

Internship: MVO Nederland

Contact: [koen.verkoijen@gmail.com](mailto:koen.verkoijen@gmail.com)



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## List of abbreviations

CSR – Corporate Social Responsibility

FDI – Foreign Direct Investment

GDP – Gross Domestic Product

GRI – Global Reporting Initiative

MVO Nederland – Maatschappelijk Verantwoord Ondernemen Nederland

NGO – Non-Governmental Organization

SAP – Structural Adjustment Programmes

SME – Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises

UNEP – United Nations Environment Programme

UNWTO – World Tourism Organization

WTTC – World Travel and Tourism Council

# **‘FINDING OUT WHAT WORKS’ AN IMPACT EVALUATION AT FOOTPRINT TRAVEL**

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**KOEN VERKOIJEN**

## **Abstract**

Leading economist Milton Friedman once famously contended that the only social responsibility of corporations is to employ its resources and engage in exercises developed so as to increase profits as long as it takes part in an open and free competition without deceit. This contention is generally shared in the neoliberal discourse around Corporate Social Responsibility. However, in the last decades, there have been endeavors to broaden this confined focus by advocating that the preservation of economic sustainability of a corporation in isolation does not suffice; social and environmental sustainability should also play a pivotal role in order for corporations to be a responsible citizen in society. This scenario where corporations adopt a wider outlook and take responsibility for their impact upon society engenders the need to assess this impact. Notwithstanding, the research on the social and environmental dimensions of corporate performance is still in its infancy.

In anticipation of this deficiency of explicit theoretical and empirical evidence on the profits of Corporate Social Responsibility to society, the general objective of this research was to humbly tackle this gap in research. Footprint Travel, a Dutch corporation specialized in the provision of sustainable travels, was used as a case study in this thesis. The purpose of this case study was to (1) to explicate the policy of Footprint Travel concerning its business activities in Indonesia, to (2) scrutinize the impact of Footprint Travel’s business activities in Indonesia, and to (3) examine whether the impact is coherent with Footprint Travel’s policy regarding its business activities in Indonesia.

The theory of change approach was employed to elucidate the policy of Footprint Travel’s business activities in Indonesia (1). This research was able to articulate the assumptions underlying the strategic thinking of the design of Footprint Travel’s policy. The theory of change suggested, amongst others, that the business activities of Footprint Travel contribute to the empowerment of women, the increase of prosperity, the generation of employment, and the sustainable preservation of cultural heritage and nature at its destinations.

The literature study of this thesis was conducted so as to obtain a greater understanding of the nexus between tourism and development, and more importantly, to function as a groundwork for the

empirical research of this thesis. Based on this literature study it was inferred that sustainable tourism has partly come into being because of the negative impacts inherent to the conventional economic growth-driven approaches of tourism. Further, it was concluded that the assessment of impacts is an intrinsic part of the broader process of sustainable tourism.

The contribution analysis, a qualitative approach to assess impact, was utilized to investigate the impact (2) of Footprint Travel's business activities in Indonesia. Inextricably linked to the assessment of impact is the tackling of the question of attribution – 'to what degree are observed outcomes due to program action rather than other factors?' The contribution analysis attempts to tackle the question of attribution as it aims to diminish ambivalence about the contribution the program is making to the observed outcomes via a better understanding of why the observed outcomes have happened (or not have happened) and the part played by the program and other factors. Semi-structured interviews were held with various stakeholders of Footprint Travel in Indonesia so as to generate the appropriate data for the contribution analysis. The previously developed theory of change functioned, along with the literature study of this thesis, as the foundation of the interview guide that was used during the interviews.

The result of the contribution analysis demonstrated that Footprint Travel's main competency is its capacity to sell a considerable quantity of small-scale tourism travels and excursions in Indonesia that contribute to the preservation of small scale tourism activities in Indonesia. Other impacts are induced as a result of this. The contribution analysis showed that Footprint Travel's business activities contribute (in varying degrees) to the generation of employment, the engendering of a diversification strategy, the volatility of the supply of clients, the personal development of people, the promotion of local businesses, the bringing about of the demonstration effect and the empowerment of women at its destinations.

It was concluded (3) that the impact of Footprint Travel's business activities at its destinations in Indonesia is, as far as this research could rule, generally consistent with the policy that Footprint Travel desires to pursue concerning its business activities at its destinations in Indonesia. Finally, when juxtaposing this thesis with the previously postulated assertion of Milton Friedman, it was deduced by this research that the *main* social responsibility of Footprint Travel is to sell small-scale tourism travels and excursions in Indonesia, not its *only* social responsibility.







# **1. Introduction**

## **1.1 Problem statement**

Throughout history, the traditional paradigm takes the view that corporate bodies' first and preeminent responsibility involves maximizing profits and returns for shareholders under the conjecture that without this essential group a firm ceases to exist (Banerjee, 2001). Nobel Prize winner and leading economist Milton Friedman accentuates this by noting that the only social responsibility of business is to employ its resources and engage in exercises designed to augment profits as long as it takes part in an open and free competition without deceit (Friedman, 1970). This perception rendered by Milton Friedman is generally shared in the neoliberal discourse around Corporate Social Responsibility (Broomhill, 2007). In this neoliberal discourse, critics have contended that CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility) is a distraction for corporate bodies in complying with its foremost goal of profit making and businesses lack authority and competency to take on akin responsibilities outside its main area of expertise (Idemudia, 2007).

However, in the last decades, there have been endeavors to widen this limited emphasis on merely maximizing profits and returns for shareholders through the development of an approach which also takes the social and environmental impacts of business into account. This approach presumes that guaranteeing economic sustainability of a corporate body in isolation does not suffice; social and environmental sustainability should also play a more prominent role in order for corporations to be a responsible citizen in society (Banerjee, 2001). In the same vein, Amalric & Hauser (2005) claim that corporate bodies can apprise their value with corporate responsibility activities. Thus, in contrast with what Friedman (1970) argued, managers who get involved in such activities do not necessarily abuse financial resources that legitimately belong to shareholders. This renewal of the image that corporate bodies not only are responsible of making profit, but also to help deal with societal issues, has provided the podium for the debate that has formed the contemporary direction now assumed by corporate-society relationships, globally discussed under the caption of Corporate Social Responsibility (Idemudia, 2007).

This present-day direction assumed by corporate-society relationships has come into being caused by several factors. First, numerous social and environmental disasters and wrongdoings of big companies or particular industries became prominent international issues inducing activism. There are ample examples of corporate misdemeanors, amongst others, the Exxon Valdez oil spill in Alaska, the brutally repressing of the Ogoni people in Nigeria by Shell, the dreadful labor condition in Nike's sweatshops in Asia, and the dehydration of local communities in India by Coca-Cola. Civil society engagement has increased considerably since the 1980s. Countless NGOs, NGO networks, consumer groups and trade unions have surfaced to mobilize around concerns such as child labor, fair trade, sweatshops, toxic chemicals, the rights of indigenous peoples, tropical deforestation, oil pollution, and other types of environmental degradation (Utting, 2005). The growing attention around corporate misdemeanors has put the concept of responsibility in business on the corporate and political agenda.

Both industrial corporations and whole industries have felt intimidated by the potentially adverse effects of these scandals on consumer behavior (Horner & Swarbrooke, 2004). Second, as a consequence of the privatization of some forms of regulatory authority, NGOs acquired regulatory functions. Where NGOs formerly functioned as gatekeepers and watchdogs, they were now increasingly drawn into service-delivery functions and a growing number of NGOs became part of the expanding CSR industry (ibid.). Third, there was an increasing acceptance that globalization and economic liberalization were transforming the balance of rights and duties that organize the conduct of corporations (Chang, 2001). As a result of globalization and economic liberalization, corporations were experiencing new rights and liberties. Simultaneously however, the corresponding responsibilities that came along with these new freedoms were often neglected. More concretely, a rise in foreign direct investment (FDI), international trade, and other economic flows were seen to be favoring corporations whilst, in many countries, the number of people living in desperate poverty did not decline, labor and environmental circumstances worsened, and inequality even intensified. The awareness of the aforementioned imbalances and regulatory shortcomings were reinforced throughout the world through a series of United Nations summits and the 'anti-globalization' movement (Utting, 2005). This as well instigated CSR activism and the involvement of NGOs. In a similar vein, Lydenberg (2005) notes that during the last three decades assets and power throughout the world have shifted from governments to the private sector on a huge scale. Along with this shift has come the expectation of great benefits to society. Governments find it more and more challenging to regulate the social and environmental impacts of corporations and, as a result, corporations have become essential agenda setters in these domains (Banerjee, 2001).

Corporations have always had impact, at best by creating employment, livelihood and community services, at worst by neglecting labor standards and the communities in which they perform (Adams et al., 2000). In the same vein, Amalric & Hauser (2005) point out that corporate demeanors bear positive or negative externalities on society in ways that are not accurately regulated by statutory law or by the market competition. In the past, corporations were rarely called on to have specific social policies (Adams et al., 2000). A lot of this has changed. Nowadays, corporations find themselves entangled in many of the most distressed social issues. Almost any international development issue now has a corporate dimension (ibid.).

## **1.2 Relevance of this thesis**

This situation where corporations embrace a broader view and take responsibility for their impact upon the society in which they operate brings about the need to assess this impact (Maas, 2009). There is a shift towards social accountability which is not sector specific (Clark et al., 2004). Corporations are increasingly being asked to demonstrate, for instance, their impacts on the environment or on the local economy (Maas, 2009). In a similar fashion, Banerjee (2008) claims that whilst the primary connection between business and society was mostly an economic one, increasing public fear about the social and

environmental impacts of corporations and a rise in regulation in areas of environmental protection and social welfare have encouraged many businesses to examine the environmental and social impacts of their activities.

Yet, the research on the social and environmental dimensions of corporate performance is still in its infancy (Banerjee, 2001). This view is supported by a more recent study conducted by Salazar et al., (2012) who also maintain that the impact of Corporate Social Responsibility on social outcomes has been disturbingly understudied. The focus of research is put on the instrumental profits of Corporate Social Responsibility to corporations and shareholders (Margolis & Walsh, 2003), rather than emphasizing on the impact of the CSR activities on the beneficiaries (Salazar et al., 2012). As a result, the social impact of Corporate Social Responsibility is often lost in the conversation (Porter & Kramer, 2006). According to the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI), corporations must identify and include stakeholders and together they must collaborate in order to determine their potential positive and negative social impacts. Scrutinizing Corporate Social Responsibility in this fashion gives rise to the potential to not only uncover economic gains of a corporation, but also to reveal the social impact of a corporation.

In anticipation of this scarcity of explicit theoretical and empirical proof on the profits of Corporate Social Responsibility to society, this research attempts to modestly contribute in the tackling of this gap in research. Besides the above mentioned humble contribution to the addressing of this lack of theoretical and empirical proof, this research is also pertinent to two parties in particular *viz.* MVO Nederland – the commissioning party for this research, and Footprint Travel – the sustainable tourism organization that is utilized as a case study in this research. In the remainder of this paragraph it is expatiated as to why this research is specifically significant to the aforesaid parties. Furthermore, a concise background of these two parties is provided which can be of help when trying to grasp why this research is relevant to MVO Nederland and Footprint Travel.

### **1.2.1 MVO Nederland**

As pointed out in the previous paragraph, MVO Nederland (written out in full: Maatschappelijk Verantwoord Ondernemen Nederland) (in English: Corporate Social Responsibility Netherlands) is the commissioning party for this research. This Dutch foundation, situated in Utrecht, is committed to incentivizing Corporate Social Responsibility throughout the world. MVO Nederland believes in the ability of corporations to contribute to a more sustainable and fairer world (mvonederland.nl, 2015).

For quite some years, MVO Nederland has been disseminating the message that it is pivotal for enterprises to measure the impact of its business activities on society and environment. This in order to find out the positive and negative impacts of the business activities and consequently to capitalize on the positive impacts and to minimize the negative impacts. Moreover, enterprises may discover any unintended consequences inherent to their business activities when measuring impact. Yet, MVO Nederland has not much experience in this, regardless of the ostensibly evident benefits of measuring

impact (J. Reinhoudt, personal communication, May 26, 2016). Through the initiating of this research, MVO Nederland aims to acquire knowledge and to gain experience with the measurement of impact. This way, MVO Nederland hopes to improve its ability to inform and consult its partners with regard to the subject of measuring impact.

### **1.2.2 Footprint Travel B.V.**

Footprint Travel was founded in 2008 by the two travel aficionados Ferry Bounin and Paulien van der Geest. Nowadays, Footprint Travel offers travels to Indonesia, Thailand, Cambodia, Vietnam and South-Africa and they are on the verge of expanding their range of travels to Namibia and Myanmar. Footprint Travel's founder, Ferry Bounin, a cultural anthropologist, has traveled the world extensively. He has been closely engaged with the development of a community-based tourism project in Namibia. Paulien van der Geest, the other founder of Footprint Travel and travel enthusiast started traveling after she graduated as a communication scientist and has never stopped ever since (footprinttravel.nl, n.d.).

The name Footprint Travel is, as the majority of people might expect, not derived from the term ecological footprint. The concept ecological footprint has the premise that each one of us has real areas of Earth's surface dedicated to our depletion of food and wood goods, to our usage of land surface for infrastructure and construction, and the forest required to absorb the carbon dioxide generated by our burning of fossil fuels (Palmer, 1998). In other words, the ecological footprint is a tool designed in order to assess the impact of humans on the Earth's ecosystems. Contrary to the above, the name Footprint Travel was not chosen to express an ecological message. Initially, the name was adopted in order to convey the message that Footprint Travel provides travels that 'will follow the footsteps of our ancestors' (van der Geest, personal communication, July 22, 2016). Following the footsteps of our ancestors stems from the fascination of Footprint Travel's founder Mr. Bounin for everything that is related to Dutch colonial heritage overseas. Originally, Footprint Travel was founded to cater to those interested in Dutch colonial heritage overseas. However, when time passed by, Footprint Travel noticed that it would confine itself when the focus would be merely on the supply of heritage trips. During a trip in Indonesia, Mrs. van der Geest and Mr. Bounin became acquainted with the so-called 'go-local principle', which would become synonymous for Footprint Travel Corporate Social Responsibility policy (van der Geest, personal communication, July 22, 2016).

Footprint Travel's backbone of its Corporate Social Responsibility policy is its strong belief that traveling has the potential to make a 'positive contribution' to the inhabitants of the country of destination. This 'positive contribution' can be achieved through the genuine contact between travelers and locals. Firstly, this can create a profound understanding between different kinds of cultures which can be an enrichment for both parties. Secondly, travelers can make a contribution to the local economy and development by spending their money at local communities. Both Mr. Bounin and Mrs. van der Geest add to the equation that a 'positive contribution' to local communities can only be reached in case tourism is done righteously (ibid.).

For Footprint Travel it is paramount to detect its impact on the society since it proclaims to make a ‘positive contribution’ to local communities with its travels. With an impact study, Footprint Travel may obtain greater insights on whether their purpose of making a ‘positive contribution’ is achieved (Fedorciow, 2012). Streatfield and Markless (2009) support this by noting that one reason for collecting impact evidence is to demonstrate whether your activities are making a difference to people, groups and communities. Furthermore, measuring impact allows Footprint Travel to better manage its activities and helps to augment the efficacy of its activities (PWC, 2015). In addition to this, Footprint Travel may become aware of any unintended negative consequences of their activities and may be able to manage and diminish those unintended negative consequences in the future (ibid.). Ultimately, by using empirical data as evidence of its impacts and benefits, Footprint Travel may be better able to tell its story about making a ‘positive contribution’ to local communities and may be more credible in doing so.

Positive contribution is deliberately and consistently put between quotation marks in the previous subsections. This is done in order to denote the ambiguous implications around it. In other words, there is the need for clarification of what is exactly meant with positive contribution. This better understanding is obtained by conducting a theory of change. This is explained more extensively later in this research.

### **1.3 The research objective of this thesis**

The measurement of impact has the purpose to determine more significantly whether certain intended activities have had the desired outcomes on individuals, households, and communities and whether those outcomes are attributable to those activities (Baker, 2000). This definition reflects the more general objective of this research. More concrete, the research objective of this research is formulated as follows:

**The objective of this research is to determine whether Footprint Travel’s business activities have the desired outcomes on its stakeholders – being individuals, households, and communities at destinations in Indonesia where Footprint Travel is active – and whether those outcomes are attributable to Footprint Travel’s activities.**

The research question that needs to be answered in order to reach the previously proposed objective is amplified in the following paragraph.

### **1.4 The main research question of this thesis**

As discussed in the previous paragraph, the objective of this research is to determine more broadly whether Footprint Travel’s activities have the desired outcomes on individuals, households, and communities and whether those outcomes are attributable to Footprint Travel’s activities. In order to attain this objective, the following question is key in this study:

## **What is the impact of the business activities of Footprint Travel at its destinations in Indonesia and is this coherent with its policy?**

A short overview of the steps that are taken in order to arrive at an answer to the main research question is provided in the next paragraph.

### **1.5 The structure of this thesis**

In the previous paragraph, the main research question was described as follows:

## **What is the impact of the business activities of Footprint Travel at its destinations in Indonesia and is this coherent with its policy?**

The path that is taken in order to come to an answer to the previously postulated main research question is discussed in this paragraph. However, this research will not rigidly stay on this path and prefers to look at this research as an iterative process.

For the sake of clarity, the main research question is divided into two sub-questions. In order to be able to answer the main research question, the following sub-questions need to be elaborated upon:

- *What is the policy of Footprint Travel with regard to its business activities in Indonesia?*

Earlier in this thesis, it became abundantly clear that Footprint Travel aspires to make a positive contribution to local communities at its destination and that ‘making a positive contribution at destinations’ can be seen as the backbone of Footprint Travel’s Corporate Social Responsibility policy. It remains however, rather vague as to what this really implies. The theory of change approach is used as a tool to deal with this ambiguity of the Corporate Social Responsibility policy of Footprint Travel. The theory of change is an appropriate approach, since Vogel et al., (2015) argue that this approach has the ability to articulate the assumptions underlying the strategic thinking of the design of a programme, project or policy. In addition, ultimately, the theory of change may lead to a better understanding of the core values, strategic choices and organizational purpose of an organization (ibid.). In other words, the theory of change of Footprint travel may paint a better picture of the core values of Footprint Travel and the strategic decisions Footprint Travel makes for its business activities in Indonesia.

Chapter 2 of this thesis is dedicated to the development of the theory of change of Footprint Travel. This chapter starts off with a brief review of the literature of the theory of change. The acquired knowledge of the theory of change is applied in the latter part of this chapter when the theory of change of Footprint Travel is developed.

- *What is the impact of the business activities of Footprint Travel at its destinations in Indonesia?*

The second sub-question is answered by conducting desk and field research. In chapter 3, an extensive literature study on tourism and development is presented. An outline of the history of paradigmatic changes in tourism and development theories is written in this chapter. This is done with the purpose of acquiring a better understanding of the nexus between tourism and development and, more importantly, how this nexus has changed from the 1960s onwards. In addition, the academic literature on a multitude of relevant concepts for this thesis is elaborately discussed in this chapter with the aim to function as a groundwork for later. More concretely, this implies, amongst others, that the academic discourse about the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts of tourism at destinations is consulted. In turn, this research hopes to discuss all (as completely as possible) potential impacts of tourism at destinations. This is done so as to also identify the possible unintended outcomes as there is the lingering danger to only identify the intended outcomes whilst designing a theory of change model (Davidson, 2000). In other words, possible unintended outcomes of the business activities of Footprint Travel that have not come to surface in the theory of change model are discussed in chapter 3.

Subsequently, an interview guide is designed based on the theory of change and the literature study. The empirical data is generated through the conducting of semi-structured interviews with various stakeholders at destinations of Footprint Travel in Indonesia. The characteristics of the particular stakeholders are elaborately carried out in chapter 4 of this thesis. In addition, in the fourth chapter of this thesis (research methodology) it is explained, amongst others, how data is obtained and why the empirical data is obtained in this fashion.

The method that is utilized in order to assess the impact of Footprint Travel properly is named the contribution analysis. The rationale of opting for this method of analysis is the ability of this method to tackle the question of attribution (to some extent). With the aid of the contribution analysis, this research can detect to what extent impacts are attributable to Footprint Travel's activities. This research reckons that this is a suitable method, because Mayne (2011) claims that the contribution analysis can diminish ambivalence about the contribution a program is making to the observed outcomes via an increased understanding of why the observed outcomes have happened or not have happened and the part played by the program and other factors. The contribution analysis is discussed elaborately in chapter 4 (research methodology).

The results of the empirical research are presented in the fifth chapter (Findings) of this research. More concretely, this implies that the data, generated through the conducting of semi-structured interviews with various stakeholders of Footprint Travel, is reported in this chapter. Several themes have come forward as a result of the analysis of the conducted interviews. The themes that most prominently emerged from the analysis of the empirical data are reported in this chapter with the objective to provide a lucid description of the various outlooks of the interviewees.

The in chapter five presented findings of the empirical research are analyzed in the sixth chapter (Analysis) of this research. More explicitly, this means that the impacts that emerged most prominently throughout the analysis of the empirical data are discussed in this chapter and it is determined whether contribution claims can be made (or not) (see chapter 4 for more information). That is to say, it is gauged whether the observed outcomes (chapter 5) are attributable to Footprint Travel's business activities and to what extent these observed outcomes are attributable to Footprint Travel's business activities. In addition, in this chapter it reflected upon the limitations of this research, and more importantly, what the consequences of these limitations are for the credibility, validity and reliability of the conclusions that are made in the empirical research of this thesis.

The main research question (as postulated in paragraph 1.4) is answered in the last chapter of this thesis (chapter 7). It is contemplated whether the policy (theory of change model Footprint Travel) that Footprint Travel aspires to pursue with regard to its business activities in Indonesia is consistent with the actual impact (determined by employing the contribution analysis) of Footprint Travel's business activities in Indonesia and vice versa. Lastly, some recommendations are proposed for MVO Nederland – the commissioning party for this research, and Footprint Travel – the case study of this research.



## **2. Developing the theory of change of Footprint Travel**

This chapter is devoted to the development of the theory of change of Footprint Travel. The rationale of this exercise is to explicate the policy of Footprint Travel with regard to its business activities in Indonesia. To add one minor clarification; this theory of change is not merely designed in order to elucidate Footprint Travel's policy with respect to its business activities in Indonesia, but is developed considering all destinations of Footprint Travel. To put it differently, this theory of change should not only explicate the policy of Footprint Travel with regard to its business activities in Indonesia, but should as well expound the policy of Footprint Travel's business activities at destinations in Thailand, Cambodia, Vietnam, South Africa and Namibia. The main reasons which underpins the decision to create a theory of change that explicates the policy of Footprint Travel at all destination is that this provides the opportunity to utilize this theory of change for future research purposes in different contexts.

### **2.1 Literature review on the theory of change**

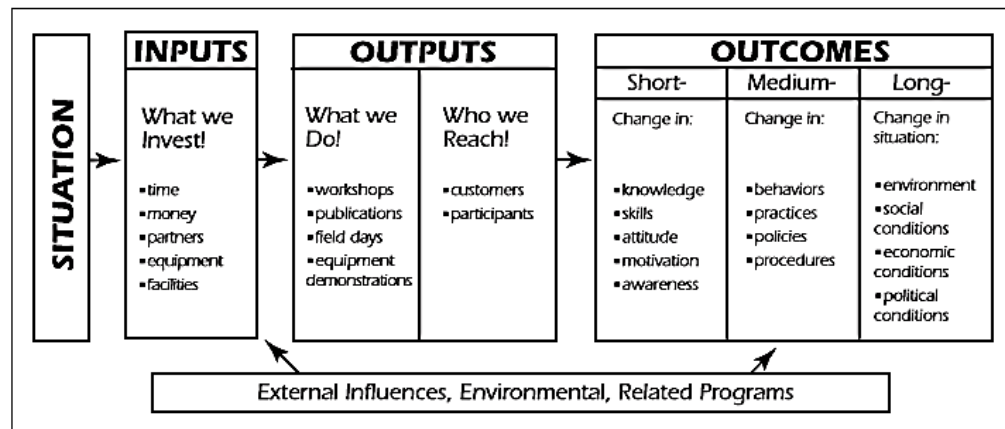
The literature of the theory of change is reviewed in this paragraph. This, so as to obtain a better understanding of the nature of this approach and how it is used. This knowledge is mandatory as a theory of change is developed for Footprint Travel in the latter part of this chapter.

In the 1990s, evaluators were more and more battling to deal with intricate projects as there was no clear-cut framework against which to appraise them. Oftentimes it was not clear what programs had set out to do and how. This made it an impossible task to determine whether and how they had accomplished it (James, 2011). The idea of the theory of change approach was formally developed by Carol Weiss in 1995, in the context of enhancing evaluation theory and practice in the field of community initiatives (Stein & Valters, 2012). Ever since its development, the theory of change approach has been applied in planning and evaluation programs ranging from small programs to multisite programs, multiyear programs and even whole government projects (Rogers, 2007).

In its early conceptualization in 1995, Weiss (1995) depicted the theory of change as a theory of why and how a program works. More fully articulated, the theory of change approach gives priority to the understanding by stakeholders of how exactly the corporation will induce social impacts. It accentuates the causal relationships between actions, short-term outcomes, and long-term impacts. Despite the fact that this approach does not produce the statistical certainty of an experimental or quasi-experimental research approach, it can create a convincing case for social impacts by detecting whether a coherent connection exists between the problems dealt with, the actions taken, and eventual changes in main outcomes (Rosenzweig, 2004). Stein and Valters (2012) point out that the key component of the theory of change process is the articulation of the connection between activities and outcomes. Programs are based on implicit or explicit theories about how and why the program will work. Formulating these theories generally involves analyzing a set of beliefs or assumptions about how particular change will

occur (ibid.). In a similar vein, Vogel et al., (2015) maintain that the theory of change approach is capable of articulating the assumptions underlying the strategic thinking of the design of a policy. In addition, ultimately, the theory of change will lead to a better understanding of the core values, strategic choices and organizational purpose of an organization (ibid.).

In figure 1, one can see a log frame which represents the theory of change in terms of a set of boxes.



**Figure 1: Log frame. Source: McCawley, 1997.**

Sometimes several boxes are displayed for each stage, depending on the magnitude of the program. The significant boxes are connected in order to demonstrate how particular activities cause particular outputs, and how particular outputs cause particular outcomes (Rogers, 2014). To amplify, carrying out a log frame (see figure 1) which represents a theory of change starts off with the explanation of the problem and its symptoms (McCawley, 1997). Inputs are those things that are invested in a program such as, amongst others, human and financial resources, knowledge, skills and expertise (ibid.). Subsequently, the outputs include those things that are done like the provision of goods, products, and services to program beneficiaries. In addition, the outputs contain those people who are reached such as customers and participants (ibid.). The program outcomes can be either short-term, intermediate-term, or long-term. Outcomes provide answers to the question ‘What happened as a result of the program’. The answer to this question is helpful in determining the impact of the investments. Ultimately, potential external factors such as physical, social, political and institutional factors that can influence program outcomes are discussed (ibid.). According to the founder of the theory of change, Carol Weiss (1997), the ‘if.....then connection’ or the causal relations between action and effects are crucial to the theory of change.

Advocates of the theory of change mention ample advantages of using this approach. Rogers (2014) suggests for instance that the theory of change can identify significant variables that should be included in data collection. Another supporter of this approach, Vogel (2012) argues that one can use the theory of change as a foundation from which to assess impact, to examine the assumptions, to prove

impact and to learn from it. Moreover, Rogers (2014) points out that it is critical to include relevant stakeholders for feedback.

All the above demonstrates the usefulness of the theory of change approach. However like all tools, the theory of change has its limits. For example, according to James (2011) there is the perpetual challenge, whilst developing a theory of change, to avoid presenting change as a simple chain of cause and effect. Moreover, it is appealing to over-simplify by not taking the unintended outcomes and other explanations for what has occurred into consideration. Davies (2012) adds to the equation that most theory of change representations have only restricted capacities for competently depicting complex projects. In the next paragraph of this chapter, it is attempted to develop the theory of change of Footprint Travel. Here it is important to acknowledge that the set of beliefs or assumptions which form the policy of Footprint Travel is not a flawless and a 100% accurate representation of reality. However, to guarantee a somewhat realistic theory of change of Footprint Travel the question ‘is this plausible?’ is consistently asked while developing the theory of change of Footprint Travel. This is done, because Connel and Kubisch (1998) argue that a theory of change must be plausible in order to tackle the hard challenge of balancing simplicity and validity.

## **2.2 The theory of change model of Footprint Travel**

In this part of the chapter, the acquired knowledge of the theory of change is applied whilst designing the theory of change of Footprint Travel. The number of three interview sessions/brainstorm sessions were held with Mrs. van der Geest, one of the founders, with the purpose of generating the desired data with which the theory of change of Footprint Travel is developed. The first meeting (11/07/2016) involves a rather short meeting to discuss the details and rationale of the theory of change with Mrs. van der Geest. The second meeting (22/07/2016) involves an intensive and lengthy brainstorm session with Mrs. van der Geest in order to collect the first raw data. This brainstorm session was recorded and subsequently transcribed which ensured no valuable information was lost. The draft version of Footprint Travel’s theory of change came into being between the second and the third brainstorm session and was reviewed during the third meeting (05/08/2016). This meeting was also recorded and transcribed. The feedback of the third meeting was processed which resulted in a second version. This second version was sent to *Avance- the impact engineers*, a SME specialized in measuring impact and partner of MVO Nederland, which provided feedback on it. The final outcome of the three brainstorm sessions and the processed feedback of *Avance* is displayed on page 14 (Figure 2). The line of thought is discussed elaborately in the next subparagraph with the purpose of elucidating the theory of change model of Footprint Travel. Ultimately, the theory of change model of Footprint Travel and the reasoning behind it should provide a more lucid image of the policy of Footprint Travel.

### 2.2.1 Elaboration of the theory of change model of Footprint Travel

The theory of change model of Footprint Travel, presented on page (page 14), is systematically explained in this subparagraph. This is done so as to clarify the text within the boxes and the arrows that connect the boxes.

The theory of change model starts with the **purpose**. In the previous chapter of this thesis it was mentioned that Footprint Travel aspires to make a positive contribution to local communities and that ‘making a positive contribution at destinations’ can be perceived as the foundation of Footprint Travel’s policy.

To achieve this purpose, Footprint Travel employs several resources (**inputs**). It injects time and money in the development of travels with the conscious choice for community-based tourism, local hotels, and local activities. A lot of money is spent by Footprint Travel on Research and Development. Both Mr. Bounin and Mrs. van der Geest spend a big part of the year abroad trying out new things. That is to say, a lot of time and money is being invested by Footprint Travel in order to conduct thorough research at potential destinations. The primary objective of these surveys is to generate knowledge of existing or future suppliers of tourism services appropriate for Footprint Travel. This way, the network of Footprint Travel expands.

All these resources and efforts by Footprint Travel are required to develop the following **activities**. Travels are developed. During the development of these travels, Footprint Travel specifically looks whether activities or excursions can be done which involves meeting locals and other community based activities. For example, it is investigated whether it is possible to visit a house in a small village to drink tea or have dinner. In addition, Footprint Travel seeks to develop excursions that can be combined with local and cultural activities (such as ‘a workshop making batik’ in Indonesia) or it looks to develop an excursion to a national park which can contribute to the conservation of the flora and fauna in this park. Furthermore, whilst developing travels and excursions, Footprint Travel explicitly looks for women to fill in positions (for example by seeking female guides). Footprint Travel also endeavors to bring demand and supply together. In case there is demand (in the Netherlands) for a particular activity, for instance cooking in Northern Sulawesi, it will investigate with its local agent on-site whether this activity already exists or whether there are possibilities to develop it. There are two dimensions to this equation. On the one hand, Footprint Travel is aware of the demand of its travelers. On the other hand, Footprint Travel is aware of the supply of tourism services at the destination and has the network to investigate potential new tourism activities. Either way, something comes into existence this way such as excursions, a local cooking class, a visit to a local village, an overnight stay in a local village, a workshop in traditional handicraft, a visit to a local food market, or a traditional dinner in a local house. After certain travels/activities have been developed, Footprint Travel continues to promote these less known activities with the purpose to sustain demand at its destinations. Moreover, Footprint Travel extensively educates its travelers about amongst others, culture, custom, animal welfare, religion,

and the do's and don'ts in particular destinations. This is done by distributing a comprehensive 'letter of departure' approximately two months before leaving.

There are ample **short-term effects** that stem from the activities deployed by Footprint Travel. The knowledge of Footprint Travel of the demand of travelers from the Netherlands can induce the development of tourism services or activities at destinations. Locals become aware of the possibilities to generate extra income from tourism caused by the demand of Footprint Travel and the knowledge of local partners and agents. For example, Footprint Travel has started, in collaboration with a local partner, to offer excursions to a local village in the Maros Regency in South Sulawesi. Tourism is still in its infancy here as Footprint Travel and its local partner are the only agencies active in this pristine local village. This village is predominantly dependent on agriculture. However, more and more inhabitants of this community have noticed the opportunities tourism can offer them. This is illustrated by the community dwellers who anticipate on the potential upcoming influx of visitors by manufacturing wooden boats which should function as a means of transportation in the future. In addition, locals become aware of the prerequisite of improved amenities in order to cater to the needs of their visitors. In a local village in Changmai (Thailand) for instance, a gathering was held with the purpose of discussing the construction of new sanitary facilities. In addition, locals become aware of the importance of preserving surrounding culture and nature as Footprint Travel emphasizes on the significance of the preservation of culture and nature while developing new travels or excursions. Locals learn from visitors and the other way around. Visitors are better prepared for their encounter with locals as they have been extensively briefed by Footprint Travel on the etiquettes at the destination. As stated earlier, Footprint Travel seek explicitly for women to carry out tourism services. This way, women become aware of the opportunity to become employed in tourism. It is important to add however, that employment of women in tourism is not self-evident everywhere. In some areas in which Footprint Travel operates, there is still a stigma around women working in general. In Indonesia for instance, in many places it is not common for women to work, let alone being employed in tourism which entails encounters with other men. Nevertheless, Mrs. van der Geest points out that gradually more and more women become employed as a guide in Lombok (Indonesia). Footprint Travel prefers to make use of female guides when visiting a traditional village in Senaru or when hiking the Rinjani-volcano.

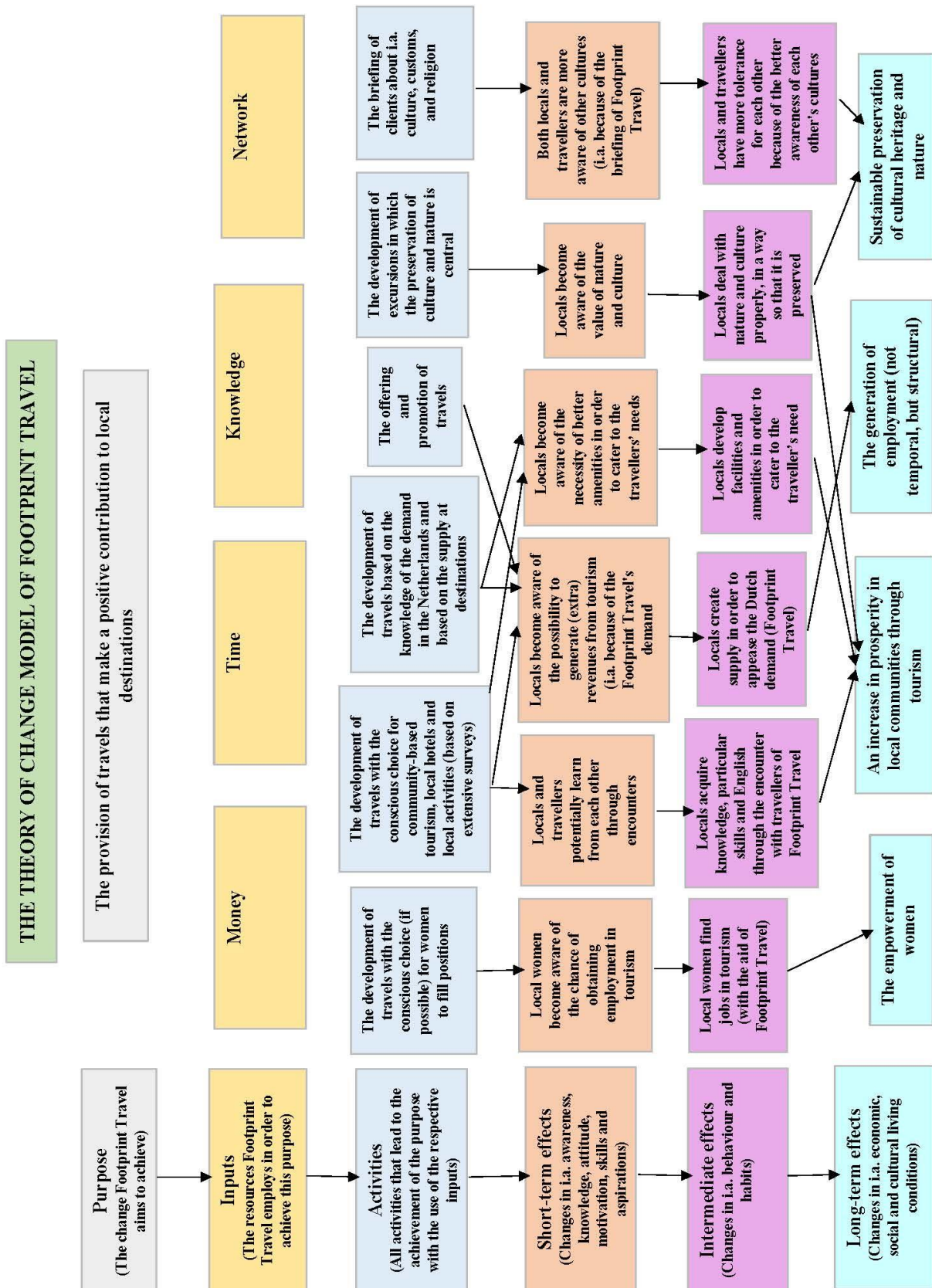


Figure 2: Theory of Change model Footprint Travel. Source: own.

Consequently, the following **intermediate effects** emerge as a result of the previously proposed short-term effects. Locals respond to the demand of Footprint Travel which in turn generates supply at destinations. For example, the provision of a cooking course in Northern Sulawesi. In other words, the demand creates jobs and extra income for local men and women. Moreover, other locals anticipate on the influx of visitors into their village by for instance starting a shop where they can sell their embroidered products. This way, other locals as well can get a piece of the pie. Furthermore, facilities and amenities are developed in order to cater to the needs of the visitors (this happened in the case of a small village nearby Chiangmai in Thailand, where improved sanitary facilities were built). Locals can also benefit from these improvements as they can make use of these facilities in case they are vacant. Additionally, locals behave properly with regard to their culture and nature as they are aware of the fact that in almost all cases nature, culture, or both is an intrinsic component of the excursion. After all, Footprint Travel will most likely stop offering or promoting travels or excursions to a particular place where the authenticity of culture has diminished or where nature is not maintained properly. Because of this, locals take care of their adjacent nature or culture in order to retain the influx of visitors. Further, through the encounters with visitors, locals learn amongst others English and get acquainted with customs and habits of other cultures which possibly enriches them. The relationship between locals and travelers remains a pleasant one, due to the comprehensive 'letter of departure' distributed by Footprint Travel. On the one hand, locals are less likely offended by tourists. This way their experience is a more pleasant one. On the other hand, tourists are appropriately dressed and are better aware of the customs and habits of their host. This creates a better atmosphere in which clashes between cultures are less likely to occur.

Lastly, the following **long-term effects** arise from the earlier discussed intermediate effects. Footprint Travel generates jobs in communities and places where, in the past, no tourism activities took place. In addition, these destinations are promoted by Footprint Travel which induces a steady influx of tourists to these untouched places. To put it differently, people that acquire a job in tourism (e.g. as a tour guide or driver) structurally have work. As previously noted, this persisting demand caused by Footprint Travel provides also chances to other locals who anticipate on the inflow of visitors into their village. Locals expand activities in the tourism sector which diversifies the local economy. Locals are, in many cases, subsistence farmers or fishermen. The involvement of these farmers and fishermen in tourism can potentially reduce this dependency which in turn results in a rise of household incomes. Mrs. van der Geest adds however, that all of this highly depends on the stability of the influx of tourists. For example, travelers of Footprint Travel can opt to visit a local village in the region of Nam Cang in Vietnam. Footprint Travel deliberately has chosen to include a remotely located village in their program, because of the unspoiled character of the particular village. This pristine village still gives a good indication of how people in this region of Vietnam live. The question remains however, whether the inflow of tourism is stable in such remote places. Be that as it may, villagers can generate extra income from the tourists that do reach this remote village. Besides the creation of employment and the chances

of extra income, tourism may result in an increase in prosperity in local communities. The rise of household income or the generation of extra income possibly has spillover effects. For example, children of locals may be sent to school, locals can get better healthcare, and locals can better deal with setbacks (such as a broken vehicle). Furthermore, the rise in local prosperity is reflected in the development of facilities and amenities in order to facilitate better to the visitors of Footprint Travel. Locals can benefit themselves from these better facilities and amenities in case they are available. Furthermore, locals cultivate knowledge, skills and English through the confrontation with visitors of Footprint Travel. To put differently, the encounters with tourists may be beneficial to the personal development of local people. Part of this personal development is the greater awareness of local people of the importance of culture and nature. As a consequence, locals behave accordingly. In addition, locals act appropriately with respect to culture and nature because they are aware of the crucial role nature and culture play. Because without either of those, Footprint Travel will not continue to offer or promote excursions to a particular place. Further, the elaborate briefing of Footprint Travel in advance makes visitors behave properly which enhances the relationship between locals and travelers. As a result, local people will continue to serve their guests with a positive attitude. All the above guarantees the sustainable preservation of cultural heritage, nature, and destinations in general. At last, women may become empowered as they also engage in activities in the tourism sector. Footprint Travel's philosophy is to positively discriminate women when seeking for people to fill positions. However, as stated previously in this paragraph, at many places there is still a stigma around women who work in tourism that needs to be overcome. Women who do overcome this boundary and obtain employment in tourism can make their own living and become less dependent on the income of their husbands.

### **2.2.2 Some reflections on the theory of change of Footprint Travel**

In the previous subparagraph, the theory of change of Footprint Travel was developed. The rationale of this was to elucidate the policy of Footprint Travel's business activities at its destinations. The development of the theory of change has yielded ample information on the policy of Footprint Travel at its destinations. In accordance with Vogel et al., (2015), this study reckons that the theory of change is an appropriate method to explicate the policy of an organization, as it has painted a better picture of the core values, strategic choices and organizational purpose of Footprint Travel. Nonetheless, some minor remarks have to be added.

First, it is wise to note that the person in charge of this research is rather inexperienced when it comes to developing a theory of change model. The three brainstorm sessions that were held with Mrs. van der Geest (for more information see the introductory subsection of paragraph 2.2), one of the founders of Footprint Travel, generated an overabundance of information. It turned out to be quite an ordeal to process all the data into a coherent theory of change model. The process from inputs to eventually long-term effects was carried out iteratively. After each repeating round the reasoning became more logical. However, the end-result (depicted in figure 2) is not flawless, due to the



inexperience of the executor. This inexperience was tackled to some extent when feedback was provided by *Avance- the impact engineers*, a SME which in fact has plenty of experience developing theory of change models.

Second, a weakness of the theory of change model of Footprint Travel, is the lack of people that gave input from which the theory of change model was derived. To amplify, only Mrs. van der Geest collaborated by providing input and subsequently by cooperating with the development of the theory of change model. The participation of other people affiliated with and with knowledge of the working method of Footprint Travel would have, most likely, yielded new or other insights which would have been beneficial to the quality of the model.

Third, when reflecting on the theory of change model of Footprint Travel, one can easily notice that the model claims to have no unintended negative impact at all. Earlier, in subparagraph 1.2.2 (Footprint Travel B.V.), it was maintained that Footprint Travel may become aware of any unintended negative consequences of their business activities when conducting an impact study. However, the development of the theory of change model of Footprint Travel has not yielded any negative consequences since it has merely focused on the intended positive consequences. This is normal as far as Davidson (2000) is concerned, because a program model that is created from program goals inevitably puts the emphasis mainly on the intended outcomes. Therefore, there is the substantial danger of failing to encompass important potential unintended outcomes as variables in the model (*ibid.*). This lack of emphasis on the negative impacts of the business activities of Footprint Travel at its destinations can also be considered as a deficiency of the theory of change model (depicted in figure 2). In other words, the theory of change method has proven to be an appropriate method to identify the impacts Footprint Travel *desires* to have at its destinations. Nevertheless, it also appeared that the theory of change model does not provide a complete representation of all the potential impacts Footprint Travel *may* have at its destinations. During the empirical study, the intermediate and long-term effects (as discussed in the previous subparagraph 2.2.1) are taken under scrutiny. In chapter 4 (Methodology), it is thoroughly explained how this is operationalized. In addition, in the next chapter it is endeavored to identify all impacts (as completely as possible) of tourism at destinations, also the ones which possibly were left out in the theory of change.

### **3. A literature study on tourism and development**

The structure of the third chapter of this thesis is as follows. First, a synopsis of the history of paradigmatic changes in tourism and development theories is written. The rationale of composing this synopsis is to obtain a better understanding of the nexus between tourism and development and, more importantly, to grasp how the discourse around tourism as a tool for development has changed from the 1960s onwards. This is done by examining the four most prominent theories on tourism and development (according to amongst others Sharpley, 2000 and Telfer, 2002). Second, these examined theories on tourism and development are reflected upon in light of the theory of change model of Footprint Travel. In other words, the policy Footprint Travel adopts at its destination is discussed by taking the expatiated theories on development and tourism into consideration. This way the position of Footprint Travel with regard to the discussed paradigms is clarified. Third, the academic discourse around tourism impacts is reviewed. This so as to distinguish all tourism impacts, also the ones not mentioned in the theory of change model. Simply put, the academic literature is consulted in order to learn what potential economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts Footprint Travel *may* have at its destinations, rather than the only examining the impacts it *desires* to have. At the end of this chapter, it is reflected upon how the phenomenon of sustainable tourism development has come into being and the relation between tourism impacts and sustainable tourism development is elaborately discussed. Eventually, the academic literature on sustainable tourism development is consulted in order to acquire more knowledge of what sustainable tourism development exactly entails. Taking sustainable tourism development under scrutiny is imperative, since Footprint Travel perceives itself as a sustainable tourism organization.

#### **3.1 The history of paradigmatic changes in tourism and development theories**

##### **3.1.1 Tourism**

Tourism is not a new phenomenon. Tourism and travel have been an element of human practice for millennia. However over the last decades, most likely due to the emergence of the jet aircraft, it has increased in significance and has evolved into a global phenomenon (Smith, 2004). Furthermore, Bhatia (2006) proposes that the tremendous growth in tourism has been induced as the result of industrial and technological development which has led to the upsurge in economy and per capita income. Consequently, there is a more disposable income available to a great number of people which in turn precipitates tourism. According to the UNWTO (2016), international tourist arrivals have experienced extraordinary growth from 25 million globally in 1950 to 1133 million in 2014. Likewise, international tourism receipts generated by destinations worldwide have leaped from 2 billion US Dollar in 1950 to 1260 billion US Dollars in 2015 (ibid.). The above figures evidently indicate the complexity and magnitude of the tourism sector. This is underlined by Gyr (2010) who states that nowadays tourism is often perceived as a global phenomenon with an unprecedented infrastructure which is almost impossible to comprehend. Its significance is obvious from the fact that its influence intensively

permeates society, culture, politics and the economy. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) goes even further by demonstrating the extent of tourism by maintaining that the largest industry of the world is in fact tourism (Page & Connell, 2006). Figures published by the WTTC (2016) emphasize the enormity of the tourism industry as it reveals that the contribution of travel and tourism to the world's GDP in 2015 compromised a total of 9.8%, which is roughly 7.2 trillion US Dollar. Furthermore, the industry supports an estimate of 284 million people in employment which accounts for 1 in 11 jobs on the planet (ibid.).

There is consensus among social scientist that is difficult to define the tourism industry. Defining this industry remains an ordeal because it is an abstraction of a broad spectrum of consumption activities which requires products and services from a wide range of industries in the economy (Zaei & Zaei, 2013). Faber and Gaubert (2015) describe tourism as a peculiar type of market integration. Rather than shipping commodities across space, tourism entails the export of non-traded local amenities, such as mountains, beaches or cultural amenities, and local amenities, like hotels, restaurants and local transportation, by momentary moving consumers across space. Another perspective has been adopted by the World Tourism Organization (2002) who illustrates tourism as 'the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for no more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes.' Sharpley and Telfer (2002) emphasize on the interpersonal and intercultural aspects of tourism by stating that tourism is a social phenomenon which includes the movement of people to different destinations and their temporary residence there. In turn, tourism involves individuals who travel within their own nation or globally, and who interact with other people or places. Sharpley and Telfer (2002) continue by arguing that tourism is also an activity which entails individuals who are affected and motivated by the norms and transformations in their own society and who bear with them their own 'cultural baggage' of perceptions, expectations, experiences and standards (ibid.).

The preceding definition (of Sharpley and Telfer, 2002) might display features with which Footprint Travel might identify itself since it accentuates that tourism is a social phenomenon. When looking at the theory of change of Footprint Travel, one facet that lucidly came forward is that the encounters between locals and visitors are an intrinsic component of their travels and excursions. Be that as it may, this definition is not impeccable, especially when taking the essay of Leiper (1979) into account. Legion of definitions of tourism which exhibit a multitude of different facets of tourism are discussed in this essay and many of these facets are connected. When reading this essay, it seems as though there is no perfect definition of this intricate concept. It is therefore, that this research will not further attempt to clarify the opaqueness around the definition of tourism, since it simply lacks time and the competence to do this. The rather generic definition of tourism of Page and Connell (2006) will be borne in mind in the context of this research. They contend that tourism is part of a worldwide process of development and change. In the next subparagraph of this paragraph, it is endeavored to provide a more elaborate description of this tourism-development nexus.

### **3.1.2 Tourism and development**

In spite of unprecedented advancements in overall prosperity, the present-day world denies basic freedoms to a tremendous number - possibly to the lion's share - of people. Perpetual poverty and unfulfilled basic needs, widespread hunger, infringements of political freedoms and elementary freedoms, the negligence of the significance and agency of women, and growing hazards to the environment and the sustainability of economic and social wellbeing maintains to confront both wealthy and poor nations (Sen, 1999). The way in which these problems have been dealt with have diverged over time. Preston (1996) accentuates this by noting that the study of social change concerning development embodies a broad range of perspectives resulting in a variety of theories and views of change. More particular to this research, Sharpley (2000) contends that it is pivotal to address the following question: 'how is development achieved, in particular through the medium of tourism?' The answer to this question lies in the brief review of development theory (*ibid.*). In this subparagraph, an attempt is made to give a brief overview of the most important development paradigms from the 1960s and onwards. This is done, in order to obtain a better understanding of how the discourse around tourism as a tool for development has changed over time. In the end of this subparagraph, the theory of change model of Footprint Travel is reflected in light of the discussed paradigms. This way, the position of Footprint Travel within the broader framework of development and tourism is clarified.

#### **3.1.2.1 Modernization theory**

In the 1960s, tourism was intrinsically associated with development, which was part of the modernization paradigm (Telfer, 2002). The profits of tourism were presupposed. Research presumed that tourism was a labor intensive growth industry, favorable to both developing countries and the hinterlands of metropolitan areas (Graburn, 1991). In addition, there was the conviction that tourism generated a rise in foreign exchange and that the expenditures of tourists produced a huge multiplier effect boosting the local economy and raising the standard of living (Telfer, 2002). In the late 1960s, in line with the modernization theory, the World Bank started to finance tourism projects and stimulated indebted developing countries to open up to tourism-based foreign investment (Palomino-Schalscha, 2012).

#### **3.1.2.2 Dependency theory**

The dependency theory gained prominence in the 1960s, as a critique on the modernization theory. The profits of tourism were questioned as the multiplier effects were lower and leakages were higher than formerly assumed (Awang et al., 2009). In same vein, Palmino-Schalscha (2012) states that radical approaches to development became more influential when it became clear that the benefits posed by the modernization approach did not trickle down and disparities in fact increased. Proponents of the dependency school claim that Third World countries have both internal and external economic, political and institutional structures which retain them in a dependent position relative to developed countries

(Telfer, 2002). Similarly Britton (1982) argues that the extent of developing countries' incorporation into the global capitalist economy is the greatest cause of structural distortions. A form of economic growth is stimulated which, through trickledown effects, only marginally enhance the absolute standards of living per capita. The major proportion of the accumulated capital and welfare benefits is transferred to the local ruling classes and foreign interests (ibid.). Applied to tourism, Oppermann (1993) states that the dependency approach perceives tourism as an industry, just like any other, which is used by Western countries to sustain the dependency of the developing countries. Likewise, Palomino-Schalscha (2012) points out that writers of the dependency school see tourism as a neo-colonial and exploitative activity that augments the dependency and vulnerability of developing countries, through which they are pulled into the globalized economy and inferior to the interests and domination of Western tourists and corporations. Dependency theorists argue that development can only be reached by the stimulation of domestic industrialization and protectionism measures in order to reinforce domestic economies and diminish external dependence (Palomino-Schalscha, 2012).

The dependency theory is often criticized of being fixated on the global level and the world system and it consequently neglects the likelihood that what occurs within a nation or region may be just as significant as those influences that come into being outside its boundaries. There is a failure to recognize the possibility that local governments, industries and individuals can exert some degree of control over their own fate (Milne & Ateljevic, 2001).

### **3.1.2.3 Neoliberalism**

Neoliberalism acquired widespread prominence during the late 1970s and early 1980s. The development of neoliberalism was a response towards the policies of strong state intervention, including those proposed by dependency theorists (Telfer, 2002). Advocates of this school of thought maintain that problems of Third World countries are not caused by the inherent flaws of the market mechanism but to irrational government involvement, of which industrial licensing, foreign trade controls, and different types of price control are one of the most substantial (Lal, 2000). Likewise, Brenner and Theodore (2002) claim that the cornerstone of the neoliberal ideology is the premise that open, unregulated, and competitive markets, free from all sorts of state intrusion, are the optimal mechanism for economic development. These beliefs were stimulated by influential global players such as governments, financial institutions, including the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, and private enterprises which diversely provided grants, structural adjustment lending programmes (SALPs) and donor assistance to recipient countries with the arrangement that regulatory procedures would be scaled down or even withdrawn (Johnston, 2015). State influence became less prevalent in tourism as well during the late 1970s and early 1980s. This simultaneously increased the role and significance of the private sector in the tourism industry (Awang et al., 2009). The terrific growth figures associated with tourism during this period made it an appealing development alternative for governments in the Global South. It could be suggested that the guarantee of tourism to mitigate poverty and resource concerns appeared in this

period. Consequently, in this period, many countries adopt tourism into national growth strategies (Johnston, 2015). The international tourism sector has indeed experienced continued, fast growth in many areas of the Third World. Be that as it may, along with this rapid growth there are also a number of common difficulties that have been associated with Third World tourism which raises doubts about the usefulness of tourism as a constituent of development strategies (Brohman, 1996). These common problems encompass, amongst others, foreign domination and dependency, environmental destruction, cultural alienation, socioeconomic and spatial polarization and the loss of social control and identity among host communities (ibid.).

#### **3.1.2.4 Alternative development paradigm**

Disappointment with mass tourism and the multitude of problems involved with it prompted analysts to turn away from former approaches to tourism development. The apparent fiasco of conventional economic growth-driven approaches brought about the pursuit for a new development paradigm. Alternative models of development were presented in the late 1980s which departed from Western directed approaches towards community-based or bottom-up approaches (Johnston, 2015). Supporters of alternative development are critical of the mainstream development agenda. They contend that international capital transfers do not necessarily turn into fertile investment in the recipient country (McLennan, 2012). The ideals of the alternative development movement eventually became the equivalent to sustainable development, given its environmental morals, its propagation of decentralization and its incorporation of matters such as empowerment, poverty alleviation, gender equity, environmental protection and conflict resolution (Johnston, 2015). More concrete to tourism, Sharpley and Telfer (2002) assert that, within the alternative development paradigm, tourism writers have written on a plethora of issues in Third World countries including indigenous development tourism, empowerment of local communities, local entrepreneurial response, the role of women in tourism and sustainable tourism development. Similarly, Johnston (2015) notes that in tourism the concern was transferred from the economy towards the environment, humanity and society. Butler (1990) however, emphasizes the difficulty in defining alternative tourism by stating that alternative tourism can mean almost anything to anyone. Brohman (1996) identifies a number of reappearing topics in the alternative tourism literature, in order to tackle this definitional confusion. First, alternative tourism is believed to compromise smaller-scale, scattered, low-density developments. Frequently, these developments are situated in and coordinated by small towns or communities, with the expectation that it will encourage more significant synergy between locals and tourists. Moreover it aims to be less socially and culturally disturbing than enclave type of resorts (ibid.). Second, in alternative tourism it is stimulated that ownership lies with locals, rather than with foreign owned transnational corporations or other external capital (ibid.). Third, alternative tourism encourages community involvement in local planning related to tourism. By establishing democratic institutions to permit locals to take part in decision making, it is assumed that more suitable types of tourism will be created that will be perceived positively by local

residents (ibid.). Moreover, alternative tourism highlights sustainability, in both an environmental, cultural and a social sense. Alternative tourism should be ecologically sound and should prevent the kinds of environmental destruction and friction over resource use that was frequently caused by mass tourism developments. Finally, alternative tourism should not harm or denigrate the host culture; rather, it should attempt to stimulate empathy and respect for cultural traditions by producing opportunities for training and cultural exchange through interpersonal communication and encounters (ibid.). This view of Brohman (1996) is supported by Awang et al., (2009) who write that the alternative approach emphasizes the concept of sustainability. Alternative tourism covers a wide variety of tourism strategies that include ‘responsible’, ‘soft’, ‘appropriate’, ‘green’, ‘controlled’, ‘people friendly’ and ‘small scale’ traits. These strategies consequently ought to minimize tourism’s negative impacts while enabling the advantages of tourism to flow to communities. At the center of such strategies has been sustainable tourism development (Awang et al., 2009). Similarly, Leksakundilok (2004) contends that sustainable tourism development was proposed, when it became evident that past tourism development was unsustainable. As a result, numerous forms of alternative tourism have been put forward, not only as alternatives to the failing conventional tourism, but also as new commercial tourism products. In his research, Leksakundilok (2004) provides an extensive list of different forms of alternative tourism such as, amongst others, indigenous tourism, pro-poor tourism, community-based tourism, ecotourism, rural tourism and fair-trade tourism.

### **3.1.2.5 Footprint Travel in light of the tourism and development paradigms**

The previous subparagraph (3.1.2 Tourism and development) has provided a synopsis of the juxtaposed history of tourism and development. The review of the four most notable school of thoughts on tourism in conjunction with development has addressed the pivotal question (according to Sharpley, 2000): ‘how is development achieved, in particular through the medium of tourism?’ Moreover, the synopsis has already gained some insights into how the concept of sustainable tourism development has come into being. In this latter part of this paragraph, this research contemplates on the in the previous subparagraph discussed paradigms in connection with the theory of change of Footprint Travel (chapter 2). This way, the position of Footprint Travel within the broader framework of development and tourism is clarified.

When putting the theory of change model of Footprint Travel in light of the previous subparagraph, this research can firmly state that Footprint Travel fits best in the alternative development paradigm. In short, the modernization theory takes a positive stance towards tourism. Both developing countries and the hinterlands of metropolitan areas can benefit from the labor intensive growth industry as far as proponents of the modernization school are concerned. Footprint Travel also reckons that destinations can economically profit from tourism. However, the modernization theory does not give a decent representation where Footprint Travel stands for as it merely accentuates the economic benefits with no regards to the social and environmental aspects. The dependency school of thought basically is directly at odds with Footprint Travel’s policy, as it argues that tourism is used by Western countries to

sustain the dependency of the developing countries. With respect to the neoliberal paradigm, this research is not sure whether Footprint Travel is for or against the main premise of the neoliberal school of thought which maintains that open, unregulated, and competitive markets, free from all sorts of state intrusion, is the optimal mechanism for economic development. Be that as it may, Footprint Travel can't, most likely, identify itself with the unprecedented growth associated with tourism in the Global South that came forth out of this premise. In addition, the problems that came along with this unprecedented growth such as, inter alia, cultural alienation, environmental destruction and socioeconomic and spatial polarization are incompatible with Footprint travel's policy.

The ostensible fiasco of conventional economic growth-driven and Western directed approaches brought about a shift towards community-based or bottom-up approaches. As earlier noted, this research reckons that Footprint Travel closely corresponds with the alternative development paradigm. This is not only because the three earlier reflected paradigms are rejected, but because of the plethora of aspects of the alternative development paradigm that match with the philosophy of Footprint Travel.

For example, Footprint Travel can relate to proponents of alternative development who claim that matters such as empowerment, poverty alleviation, gender equity and environmental protection ought to be incorporated. One crucial component in the policy of Footprint Travel, as became clear from the theory of change model, is that Footprint Travel attaches much value to gender equity as it explicitly looks for women to fill positions. In addition, the theory of change model made clear that Footprint Travel assumes that locals are empowered through the encounter with visitors of Footprint Travel. In other words, locals acquire knowledge, particular skills and English through the confrontation with visitors of Footprint Travel. In terms of poverty alleviation, Footprint Travel generates employment as it promotes and offers travels to places where, in the past, no tourism activities took place. This in turn may diversify the local economy and may lead to an increase in household income of people. One significant remark has to be added here; it remains rather vague in the academic literature as to how poverty alleviation is reached. For now, this research presupposes that a rise in household income has a positive effect on the alleviation of poverty. Another important element of Footprint Travel's policy at its destinations is the positive role it claims to have with regard to the preservation of both nature and culture. For example, when local people endeavor to maintain nature and culture in order to retain the influx of visitors of Footprint Travel.

In addition, within the alternative development paradigm, tourism scholars have written on a range of topics such as, among other things, ecotourism, pro-poor tourism, community-based tourism and rural tourism, globally discussed under the caption of alternative tourism. Although alternative tourism is often reproached by tourism scholars as an ambiguous concept, one can affirm that alternative tourism comprises smaller-scale, scattered, low-density developments. Generally, these developments are located in and coordinated by small towns or communities, with the expectation that it induces a more significant synergy between locals and tourists. This research can firmly assert that the activities Footprint Travel employs fall within alternative tourism as it is described here. To amplify,



Footprint Travel specifically looks whether activities or excursions can be done which involves meeting locals and other community based activities. As for the more significant synergy between locals and tourists, the theory of change elucidated that encounters between locals and visitors are an intrinsic part of the travels of Footprint Travel. Consequently, Footprint Travel believes that locals can learn from visitors and vice versa. Moreover, by distributing a comprehensive 'letter of departure' to its clients, Footprint Travel hopes to prepare its clients which ultimately should enhance the encounter between locals and Footprint Travel clients.

Another feature of alternative tourism is that ownership lies with locals, rather than with foreign owned transnational corporations. At first sight, one can argue that Footprint Travel is a Dutch company and hence Footprint Travel can't comply with this point. However, it is more complex than this. Footprint Travel collaborates intensively with local partners and it is hard to determine where exactly ownership lies.

At last, to conclude this reflection, it was stated that alternative tourism covers a multitude of tourism strategies which entail, inter alia, 'responsible', 'soft', 'appropriate', 'green', 'controlled', 'people friendly' and 'small scale' traits. Accordingly, these strategies have to diminish tourism's negative impacts while enabling the advantages of tourism to flow to communities. Undoubtedly, Footprint Travel can empathize with the above listed tourism strategies and the statement that tourism can have the ability to bring positive impacts to communities. With respect to the diminishing of negative impacts, it was already discussed (in subparagraph 2.2.2) that the theory of change model claimed to have no negative impacts at all. This does not correspond with regard to the function of alternative tourism strategies to reduce negative tourism impacts.

Therefore, the next paragraph of this chapter is dedicated to identify the potential negative impact of tourism that were neglected by the theory of change model. In addition, other impacts of tourism that can be found in the academic literature are discussed in order to paint a broader picture on the tourism impacts that potentially exist. In other words, the academic literature is consulted in order to learn what potential impacts Footprint Travel *may* have at its destinations, rather than only examining the impacts it *desires* to have.

### **3.2 The impacts of tourism on destinations**

Like any other social activity, tourism creates both positive and negative consequences (Dogan, 1989). More elaborate, Lovelock and Lovelock (2013) maintain that tourism is a social operation or phenomenon that permeates almost everything; it affects many people's lives, communities, economies, and it occurs across an extraordinary diverse range of settings. It is almost omnipresent. According to Archer et al., (2005), the practice of tourism brings about impacts on destinations which are impossible to prevent. These impacts however, can be managed with the aim of reducing negative impacts and highlighting positive impacts. A prerequisite to maximizing positive impacts and minimizing negative

impacts is the identification of the potential impacts (Kreag, 2001). Determining possible impacts in tourism in destinations remains a challenge as impacts of tourism have become more and more obscure and inconsistent and impacts are revealed in sophisticated and often unpredictable ways (Mbugua & Cornwell, 2008). This view is supported by Bâc (2012) who asserts that tourism practices happen in a natural and manmade setting, which is tremendously complicated. The natural environment encompasses the natural landscape, climate, flora and fauna present in a particular place. The manmade environment is made up of economic, social and cultural components. Further, Dogan (1989) states that one has to take the level of positive and negative impacts into consideration when determining impacts in tourism on destinations. The level of impact depends on the number and the kind of tourists, the degree of institutionalization, and the socioeconomic and cultural state of the host society. Consequently, the responses of local residents to the impacts of tourism take different forms.

The following paragraph of this research is aimed at developing an overview, as completely as possible, of the academic discourse around tourism impacts. This is done in order to gain more knowledge of the impacts that exist in tourism destinations. Please note that, given the sheer complexity of impacts and tourism, it is not possible to discuss all impacts in tourism destinations. In short, the following overview is **not** a fulsome account of the existing impacts in tourism destinations.

Principally, tourism impacts are categorized in three groups; namely economic, socio-cultural and environmental (Vehbi, 2012). It is hence, that the discourse around tourism impacts is divided accordingly by this research.

### **3.2.1 Economic impacts of tourism on destinations**

The economic impacts of tourism on a region can be comprehended at two different levels *viz.* the national level and the local level. At the national level, the most cited economic impact of tourism is its potential to produce foreign exchange which in turn positively contributes to country's balance of payment. At the local level, the most publicized economic impact in tourism is the formation of jobs (Vehbi, 2012). Besides the most publicized economic impact on a national and local level, this subparagraph is aimed at providing a more detailed description of the other both positive and negative economic impacts that exist in the tourism industry.

Tourism expands employment opportunities. Additional jobs, varying from low-income to high-income positions, generate revenue and increase standards of living (Kreag, 2001). Even more confident is the view of Archer et al., (2005) who state that it seems as though tourism is more efficient than other industries in creating jobs and income and it appears that tourism is particularly effective in this in less developed regions of a country. Here alternative opportunities for development are more constrained and hence tourism can make a more significant impact in these areas. In aforesaid peripheral regions many of the local people are subsistence fisherman or farmers. Their household incomes rises by a very large amount, in case they become involved in the tourism industry (*ibid.*). Further, tourism can function as a diversification strategy for communities reliant on only one industry (Kreag, 2001), especially when

this industry is in a downward spiral (Sharpley, 2002). However, Vehbi (2012) in turn asserts that there is the danger that communities become overly dependent on the tourism industry. According to Stynes (1997), the tourism industry has a broad range of economic impacts; it contributes to a destination's profits, sales, jobs, tax revenue, and income. Primary tourism sectors, such as restaurants, lodging, transportation, retail trade, and amusement are directly influenced. However, the generation process does not end here. A part of money earned by individuals, businesses and government agencies is re-spent in the economy of the destination, through which another round of economic activity is created. These so-called secondary effects potentially can surpass in volume the initial direct effects (Archer et al., 2005). Besides the aforementioned benefits in spending, tourism creates additional opportunities for investment, development and infrastructure spending (Kreag, 2001). Oftentimes it occurs that tourism brings about improvements in public utilities like water, sewage, sidewalks, lighting, litter control, parking and public restrooms. These enhancements favor both tourists and residents (ibid.). Furthermore, tourism often induces advancements in transport infrastructure resulting in amongst others better roads, public transportations and airports which can be utilized by both tourists and residents (ibid.). Conversely, Bâc (2012) asserts that local populations experience little advantages from the for tourism designed new or improved infrastructure. Essentially this is a problem of distribution, both economic and physical.

At a superficial level, the economic profits of tourism seem apparent. Nevertheless, a growing number of authors have articulated skepticism about the nature and degree of the profits of tourism and have expressed reservations about the capacity of tourism as an impetus to growth and development by means of boosting the welfare of local people (Bâc, 2012). For instance, Vehdi (2012) adds to the equation that most jobs accessible to local people in the tourism sector, such as waiters, servants, housemaids and other low-status jobs potentially make people feel inferior. In a similar fashion, Bâc (2012) claims that most jobs provided by tourism offer low wages and little opportunities for promotion. When juxtaposing with other industries, tourism employees do not require high levels of specialization, which in turn determines their relatively low compensation. In addition, seasonality causes volatility in the number of tourists and visitors to a destination. At certain times destinations have more visitors than they can accommodate, whilst at other times there are not enough tourists to a destination (Lee et al., 2008). As a result, locals may lose their jobs due to the seasonality of work in tourism (Vehdi, 2012). Moreover, the necessary labor for tourism to function may be imported instead of hired locally. This happens in case the particular expertise is required or when local labor is not available (Kreag, 2001). Some researchers even assert that tourism has raised the dependency of developing countries on Western countries and has led to a new kind of colonialism (Dogan, 1989). Further, already previously discussed in this subparagraph, tourism potentially generates a larger demand for goods and services which consequently may cause a rise in the cost of living (Andereck et al., 2005). The prices of land and houses may elevate as well, as a result of tourism business (Kreag, 2001). In addition to the increased cost of living, communities may face higher taxes imposed on them. These taxes are necessary in order to

finance the maintenance of transport infrastructure which have become more intensively used due to tourism. Likewise, taxes are increased, when supplementary infrastructure such as water, sewage and lighting is needed (Kreag, 2001).

This subparagraph has endeavored to provide an overview of the possible economic impacts in tourism destinations. As one can easily discern there are plenty economic impacts which one has to take into consideration. Nevertheless, it remains extremely hard to collect economic data due to the lack of availability of this data. This regardless whether the focus is on mass tourism, small-scale tourism or community-based tourism (Harrison & Schipani, 2007). In sharp contrast to Harrison and Schipani (2007), Archer et al., (2005) claim that there is an overrepresentation of economic impacts in academic discourse because these impacts are easily measurable and quantifiable. Another reason for this overrepresentation, also claimed by proponents of the modernization theory, was the pervading spirit of optimism that these analyses would demonstrate that tourism was of net economic advantage to host destinations. In many situations, this was absolutely the case. However, it became obvious that in some instances the economic profits of tourism are neutralized by negative and formerly unmeasured social and environmental impacts (ibid.). These impacts are reviewed in the following subparagraph.

### **3.2.2 Socio-cultural impacts of tourism on destinations**

Tourism may have numerous different consequences on the social and cultural facets of life in a specific area. This impact can be either positive or negative on the host community (Zaei & Zaei, 2013). As there is no lucid distinction between cultural and social phenomena, researchers have tried to categorize the socio-cultural impact of tourism in a wider context (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996). Researchers which have worked in this area mainly have focused on the impact of tourists from Western countries on the people in developing countries (Dogan, 1989). The majority of these social scientists seem to accentuate the negative impacts of tourism. However, a more realistic view appears to be that tourism has generated both positive and negative consequences in developing countries. The respective levels of impacts differ depending on the socio-cultural fabric of the country and the degree of touristic development (ibid.). The socio-cultural impact of tourism development describe the alterations in the quality of life of inhabitants of tourist destinations. Tourism induces interplay between tourists and residents which consequently instigates social transformation (Dar, 2015). As noted by Glasson et al., (1995 as cited in Mbaiwa, 2005), socio-cultural impacts are the ‘people impacts’ of tourism. More elaborate, the socio-cultural impacts of tourism is the process in which tourism is contributing to transformations in, amongst others, individual behavior, life style, family relationship, value system, safety level and language at the destination (Dar, 2015).

As far as Bâc (2012) is concerned, the socio-cultural impacts of tourism can’t be isolated from globalization. Globalization is often accused of overpowering the socio-cultural identity of local communities as well as indigenous values, customs and habits (ibid.). There is a constant friction in countries hoping to be part of the global tourism movement but also wanting to preserve their cultural

authenticity (Archer et al., 2005). Farming and fishing communities are changed into resorts, replacing farms and forest with apartments and malls. All the resources that formerly appealed to tourists, such as the beauty, peace and tranquility of a landscape, are constantly degenerated by developments in tourism and the quickly increasing pace of life. Because of this, the essence of local culture might diminish and even disappear (Bâc, 2012).

In contrast, Mathieson and Wall (2006) maintain that the indictment that tourism degenerates local culture is an exaggeration. Arts, crafts and local culture have been rejuvenated as a direct consequence of tourism. Similarly, Higgins-Desboilles (2006) notes that tourism is praised for its contribution to the conservation of cultures despite globalization – a force of cultural homogenization. A more nuanced view is posited by Archer et al., (2005) who claim that tourism has the ability to provide a stimulus for the revitalization and conservation of ancient cultures, but all too often the local way of life deteriorates into a commercially organized representation of what it was formerly. The historical dances and skillful craftwork make way for despicable replicas to fulfill the demands of the visitor and to earn money the easiest and fastest way as possible. Even more radical, Hannam and Diekmann (2011) state that tourism does not necessarily ensure the rejuvenation of cultures. They amplify on this by discussing the form of tourism called ‘slum tourism’. Some journalist and researchers see this form of tourism as the only option to experience the ‘authentic’ side of a specific country. Others however, accentuate the negative aspects of this kind of tourism by referring to it as ‘poverty tourism’ or even ‘poverty porn’, depicting the tourists as voyeurs humiliating impoverished people (ibid.).

Vehbi (2012) on the other hand, emphasizes on the positive impact tourism can have on the built environment by contending that traditional buildings and cultural heritage are preserved in order to meet the requirements of contemporary life. Additionally, also discussed in the subparagraph on economic impacts, an increase in the number of tourists may prompt the development of transport infrastructure and local facilities (ibid.). In turn, these improvements may have positive spillover effects. There can be an improvement in local life because of the better infrastructure and amenities which can expedite better education, employment opportunities, income and health care (Zaei & Zaei, 2013).

However, despite the alleged improvements of local life through better infrastructure and facilities, Dogan (1989) argues that locals do not necessarily establish a positive attitude towards tourism. Excessive crowding and cacophony as a result of the clustering of tourists demolishes the serenity and tranquility in small towns. Consequently, locals become agitated and develop a negative attitude towards tourism. Such developments have expedited a decline in attractiveness of these places. A specific index as developed by Doxey (1975), the so-called Index of Tourist Irritation, which suggest that, when the destination cycle develops, particular alterations in attitude take place within the host community towards tourism. This sequence of reactions degenerates from euphoria, through apathy and irritation, to eventually antagonism towards tourism.

Be that as it may, some scholars hold the view that the interaction between locals and tourists can be beneficial to locals. For instance, Zaei and Zaei (2013) state that local communities can mingle

with people from different backgrounds and diverse lifestyles. This mixing potentially may lead to the development of enhanced lifestyles and customs through the so-called demonstration effect. Tourism is regarded as a framework where locals and tourists can learn from each other through direct interaction (Bâc, 2012). Moreover, in line with the demonstration effects, tourism demands local communities to be more sensitive and cultivated in order to supply quality service to tourists (Bâc, 2012). To achieve the provision of quality service, locals are encouraged to acquire certain skills. Hence, tourism can be an instigator of structural transformation in the form of the transfer of new ideas and the dissemination of human capital such as bilingual and skilled workers (Skerritt & Huybers, 2005). Another perspective is applied by Buckley (2012) who shows that the interaction between locals and tourists may create a greater tolerance towards social differences. Experiencing diverse cultural customs expands horizons and enhances the understanding and admiration for different ways of living. This way differences between hosts and tourists become less threatening and more appealing (ibid.). The demonstration effect does not merely yield positive effects and spillover effects. Tourism can, through the demonstration effect, trigger a shift in local consumption patterns towards Western products which may imply locals wearing different clothes, eating different food and assuming different general lifestyles and attitudes (Sandeep & Vinod, 2014). Mbaiwa (2005) exemplifies that this does not always have to be positive by stating that young women in the Okavango Delta in Botswana have been heavily influenced by tourists with regards to the style of clothing. Now some local young females wear clothes (e.g. miniskirts) that reveal particular parts of the body like their belly and parts of their breasts. Publicly exposing the body in such manner is not acceptable in rural communities in Botswana, especially as far as elderly people are concerned.

Some authors accentuate the extremely negative aspects of the emergence of tourism in local communities. Kreag (2001) for instance, asserts that it often happens that shady activities unfold in communities after tourism has appeared. The presence of tourists can for instance induce illegal drug use and excessive drinking in communities (ibid.). Similarly, Cooper et al., (1998) note that tourism accommodates a beacon of criminal activities such as robbery, drugs trafficking and violence. In addition, tourism has in many communities played a pivotal role in the growth of prostitution (Mbaiwa, 2005).

Already mentioned at the beginning of this subparagraph, socio-cultural impacts can be labeled as the 'people impacts'. Remarkably, in the discourse about people impacts there is hardly any distinction made between men and women. As noted by the UNWTO (2004), it is essential to investigate how impacts of tourism differ on the lives of men and women in destinations. Tucker and Boonabaana (2012) contend that the relative profits of tourism development echo the already existing disparities meaning that elite groups generally have control in the tourism sector and they monopolize the benefits that derive from tourism. Important to note here is that the aforementioned elite group mostly comprise men. Women are often excluded from tourism jobs and in turn miss out on the corresponding benefits. This exclusion mechanism exists caused by culturally determined, normative beliefs of gender roles and

relations (Scheyvens, 2000). In many cultural contexts, the collaboration of women in tourism production is not approved. This is the case, mostly because women's involvement in some jobs in tourism is considered to be culturally inappropriate (Tucker & Boonabaana, 2012). The reluctance in some cultures to approve of women's involvement in certain tourism activities is elucidated by Wilkinson and Pratiwi (1995). In their essay, they take the influence of tourism in a traditional small fishing village in West Java under scrutiny. When talking about the perception of villagers on the involvement of women in tourism as local guides they note: 'women being involved in guiding is not regarded favorably by villagers, the connotation being that such women are "prostitutes" interested in contacting foreign tourists' (Wilkinson & Pratiwi, 1995, pp. 293). Further, Tucker and Boobabaana (2012) argue that when women do get involved in tourism production there is a clear distinction between what jobs are for men and what jobs are for women. Women's work is predominantly centered in part-time, low paid and seasonal sections such as cleaning, hospitality and retail work. This clear distinction between men's and women's work is most apparent when large-scale tourism is concerned. In contrast to large-scale tourism, smaller-scaled forms of tourism seem to make less of a distinction based on gender (ibid.). This is reinforced by Scheyvens (2000), who points out that tourism initiatives with the focus on the small scale and communities provide the best potential to improve the lives of women.

This subparagraph has tried to paint a better picture of the possible socio-cultural impacts in tourism. As already mentioned, this is not a flawless representation of all impacts. This would be simply too presumptuous as social impacts are often very hard to identify (Milman & Pizam, 1988). To a large degree, social impacts are indirect which makes it plausible that there are impact out there who are yet to be discovered (ibid.). In a similar fashion, Dar (2015) notes that while tourism commonly serves those directly involved in it, it may create trouble for the rest of the society.

### **3.2.3 Environmental impacts of tourism on destinations**

The environment, whether natural or built, is the most fundamental component of tourism development (Vehbi, 2012). Quite often the distinction is made between the natural and built environment whilst talking about the environment. To clarify, the natural environment consists of everything that can be considered nature which include for instance the landscape and its topography, the climate, and ecological systems. As for the built environment, this comprises the physical aspects such as all kinds of buildings, historical and archeological scenes, and infrastructural development (ibid.). Tourism may have both positive and negative impacts on the environment. On balance however, the negative impacts exceed the positive impacts on the environment (Swarbrooke, 1999). One has to bear in mind that the size and kind of environmental harm rendered by tourists is related to the extent of development, the quantity of visitors, the concentration of consumption both in a spatial and temporal sense, the character of the environment in question, and the nature of the management and planning methods followed before and after development occurs (Archer et al., 2005).

Already mentioned earlier in this subparagraph, the negative impacts transcend the positive impacts on the environment. On the positive side of the equation, Swarbrooke (1999) stresses the fact that tourism can be favorable to the natural environment as it provides a motivation for environmental preservation. Tourism produces a financial incentive which makes sure that certain natural sites are maintained properly. There is a high likelihood that the public sector pays less attention to the conservation of the natural environment without this financial incentive (*ibid.*). Moreover, Mathieson and Wall (1982, as cited in Swarbrooke, 1999) suggest that tourism has the ability to increase the appreciation of the environment. Both the local population and tourists may get a more profound admiration of nature. Furthermore, tourism can raise awareness of environmental issues as it has the power to bring people in closer contact with the environment. This encounter may increase awareness of the importance of nature and may result in more environmentally responsible behavior and actions to maintain the environment (Sunlu, 2003). Already touched upon in the previous subparagraph on socio-cultural impacts, tourism may have a positive impact on the built environment because traditional buildings and cultural heritage are preserved in order to comply with the requirements of contemporary life. Besides this, tourist income can bring about improvements in an area's appearance via repairs, cleanups and an increase in public art like water fountains and monuments which can benefit both locals and tourists (Kreag, 2001).

At the other side of the equation however, tourism can have devastating consequences on (untouched) environments in case it is not planned rightly. As a result, tourism can induce the exploitation of natural resources. At numerous sites, tourism development has engendered serious shortages in water, the depletion of forests and the destruction of coral reefs which all can have serious repercussions on both local communities and business (GhulamRabbany et al., 2013). In a similar vein, Bâc (2012) contends that the development of tourism activities can reduce resources, produce waste and requires a certain degree of infrastructure development which can harm and even destroy the environment. Archer et al., (2005) put it more bluntly by stating that tourists themselves are often responsible of helping to ruin the nearby environment. The more visitors are attracted to an area, the more this area will be degraded as a result of this intensified visitation. More thoroughly, Vehbi (2012) describes that natural areas shape the very basis of tourism attractions by illuminating the picturesque value or extraordinary confrontations with flora and fauna. In turn, tourism activities have the potential to impact the natural environment in plethora of ways and can have extreme adverse effects to ecological fragile areas. For example, it can induce the deterioration of habitats, the decline of green fields, noise nuisance and the pollution of water and air (*ibid.*). In addition, the appearance of landscapes can change as space is needed for the provision of certain tourist services. The demand for land rises and prices increase while tourism develops. Particularly the landscapes of prime locations such as mountains, special views and beachfront tend to alter when tourism develops (Kreag, 2001).

Diverting from the natural environment to the built environment, Archer et al., (2005) maintain that immoderate and poorly planned tourism development influences the physical environment of



destinations. In many places tourism has produced repulsive hotels that interfere with the adjacent cultural and scenic environment. Oftentimes it occurs that the focus of architectural designs has been on meeting the desires of the tourists, rather than adapting to the local environment. At last, besides the direct impacts on the natural and built environment, tourism generates also indirect impact from the manufacturing and transportation of material goods. Such impacts can be aerial emissions, the generation of both liquid and solid waste, and the consumption of energy, water and materials (Buckley, 2012).

### **3.3 Sustainable tourism**

The potential economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts were discussed extensively in the previous paragraph. This research argues that sustainable tourism development has come into existence, partly because of the negative impacts that were reviewed in the previous paragraph. This view is supported by Bâc (2013) who maintains that sustainable tourism has emerged as a reaction against the increasingly negative impacts of tourism at destinations. So, sustainable tourism has come into being as a reactive concept, which endeavors to take out the negative impacts (economic, social, cultural and environmental) that might outclass the advantages tourism brings to host-communities (ibid.). In a similar vein, Berry & Ladkin (1997) point out that the importance of addressing tourism impacts has been acknowledged since the late 1980s. This acknowledgement of the importance of the assessment of impact in tourism has been incited by the growing awareness of the existence of adverse impacts of tourism at destinations and by the upsurge of environmentalism and green consciousness. Awang et al., (2009) state that around the late 1980s, alternative tourism strategies were developed with the main objective to minimize tourism's negative impacts and to enable positive impacts to flow to communities. At the center of these alternative tourism strategies was sustainable tourism development.

The concept of sustainable tourism remains the subject of intense debate and is variously interpreted (Sharpley, 2000). Kuhn (2007) argues that in applying the caption of sustainability to tourism it is pivotal to illuminate what it is that is to be sustained. Illuminating what sustainability really implies is a challenging task. This is amplified by Butler (1999) who states that the single word sustainable has been applied to a wide range of activities based on the assumption that it bears the ideological and philosophical implications of the concept. In tourism discourse, the result has been the widespread adoption and emergence of the concept 'sustainable tourism', quite often without any effort to define it (ibid.). Likewise, Ko (2001) asserts that numerous individuals, communities and other organizations have been trying to convert plans of sustainable development into practice. In tourism, hardly any practical methodology has been produced and some tourism academics actually claim that sustainability in tourism is mostly an ambition or aim, rather than a distinct or attainable objective (ibid.). In the same vein, McMinin (1997) points out that sustainable tourism along with ecotourism have come to be jargon of tour companies, travel agents and developers in the field of tourism. The concept sustainable tourism

provides a philosophical base and a positive public image upon which to stimulate development, especially in newly uncovered regions of the world, where conventional tourism might be perceived as having negative impacts. According to Sharpley (2000), the definition of sustainable tourism should be consistent with the principles of sustainable development, proposing that the discourse about sustainable tourism should rely on a strong theoretical basis and comprehension of the term from which it has been originated.

The term sustainable development came into common parlance with the publication of the Brundtland report in 1987 (McMinn, 1997). In the Brundtland report, sustainable development was defined as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). As noted by Butler (1999), the concept of 'sustainable development' had the potential to alter the nature of tourism when it was introduced in the late 1980s. It was not long after the appearance of sustainable development that term 'sustainable tourism' was coined with its many derivatives such as, amongst others, alternative tourism, ecotourism, responsible tourism and green tourism (McMinn, 1997).

Sustainable tourism has been praised by Bramwell and Lane (1993) as an optimistic approach proposed to mitigate friction generated by the complex synergies of the tourism industry, of both human and natural resources. More detailed, Zolfani et al., (2015) argue that the objective of sustainable tourism is to create an equilibrium between safeguarding the environment, preserving cultural integrity, creating social justice and advertising economic benefits, in compliance with the needs of host population with regard to enhanced living standards in the short and long term in both developed and emerging countries and in a form that can sustain its viability for an indefinite period of time. In his extensive research on sustainable development in tourism, Cater (1993) distinguishes three main objectives of sustainable tourism *viz.* fulfilling the needs of the host populations with regard to enhanced living standards both in the short and long term, meeting the demands of an increasing number of tourists, and protecting the natural environment in order to realize both of the aforementioned objectives. More affiliated with the definition of sustainable development in the Brundtland report is the definition of sustainable tourism formulated by the World Tourism Organization (2001) which states that sustainable tourism should meet the needs of present-day tourists and host regions and simultaneously it should protect and improve opportunities for the future. Sustainable tourism is visualized as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and esthetics desires can be satisfied while preserving cultural integrity, critical ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems. Another approach of interpreting sustainable tourism is proposed by Coccossis (1996 as cited in Butler, 1999) who identifies four ways with which sustainable tourism can be explained. Firstly, one can take a sectoral perspective, for example, the economic sustainability of tourism. Secondly, one can assume an ecological perspective highlighting the demand for ecologically sustainable tourism. Thirdly, one can adopt a perspective emphasizing the long-term viability of tourism in which one recognizes the competitiveness of destinations. Lastly, one can take a perspective in which there is acceptance of

tourism as part of a strategy for sustainable development throughout the physical and human environments. Another effective way of establishing the areas of significance with regard to sustainable tourism would be to distinguish the tourist (the visitor), the visited (including the natural/biophysical and social), and the mediator (the tourism industry) (Kuhn, 2007). More elaborate, for tourism to be sustainable, there needs to be continuously people who want to visit another place. There needs to be continuously other places that provide access to visitors. Finally, there needs to be continuously people who are recompensed for bringing the previous two domains together (ibid.).

As one can notice above, there are big deviations in the ways in which sustainable tourism can be defined and interpreted. This, despite the fact that only a miniscule part of the definitions and interpretations are taken into account in this paragraph. In the context of this research and when looking at the genesis of sustainable tourism development, this research reckons that the following definition of the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) is most applicable to this study:

‘tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities.’ (UNWTO, 2013. P. 17)

When taking all the above discourse about and definitions on sustainable tourism development into account, this research can firmly conclude that **the measurement of impacts is an intrinsic part of the broader process of sustainable tourism development.**

Apart from the evident presence of the economic, social and environmental impacts in the definition of the World Tourism Organization, the definition also consists of other elements. That is to say, other aspects that are of importance in sustainable tourism development. The UNWTO (2013) elaborates on its definition of sustainable tourism development by making reference to two figures. In the first figure (see figure 3), the twelve aims for sustainable tourism are discussed. In the second figure (see figure 4), the relating pillars and sub-pillars to the 12 aims for sustainable tourism are described. In the latter part of this paragraph, these two figures, which together constitute the principles of sustainable tourism are briefly explained.

As one can see, the twelve aims for sustainable tourism (depicted in figure 3) are rather broad. It starts by emphasizing the need for long-term, viable economic operations which should provide socio-economic advantages to all stakeholders (a fair distribution).

This should entail secure employment, income-earning opportunities, the provision of social services to host communities, and the contribution to the alleviation of poverty (UNWTO, 2013). Further, when contemplating on the twelve aims for sustainable tourism, it becomes clear that in order for tourism to be sustainable, it must take the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities into consideration. In addition, it should preserve the traditional values, the built and living cultural heritage of host communities and it should make a contribution to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance. As for the

environment, it should make optimal use of environmental resources that comprise a preeminent component in tourism development. Further, it should maintain critical ecological processes and should assist in the preservation of natural heritage and biodiversity (ibid.).

#### 12 Aims for Sustainable Tourism

- 1 ECONOMIC VIABILITY:** To ensure the viability and competitiveness of tourism destinations and enterprises, so that they are able to continue to prosper and deliver benefits in the long term.
- 2 LOCAL PROSPERITY:** To maximize the contribution of tourism to the prosperity of the host destination, including the proportion of visitor spending that is retained locally.
- 3 EMPLOYMENT QUALITY:** To strengthen the number and quality of local jobs created and supported by tourism, including the level of pay, conditions of service and availability to all without discrimination by gender, race, disability or in other ways.
- 4 SOCIAL EQUITY:** To seek a widespread distribution of economic and social benefits from tourism throughout the recipient community, including improving opportunities, income and services available to the poor.
- 5 VISITOR FULFILMENT:** To provide a safe, satisfying and fulfilling experience for visitors, available to all without discrimination by gender, race, disability or in other ways.
- 6 LOCAL CONTROL:** To engage and empower local communities in planning and decision making about the management and future development of tourism in their area, in consultation with other stakeholders.
- 7 COMMUNITY WELLBEING:** To maintain and strengthen the quality of life in local communities, including social structures and access to resources, amenities and life support systems, avoiding any form of social degradation or exploitation.
- 8 CULTURAL RICHNESS:** To respect and enhance the historic heritage, authentic culture, traditions and distinctiveness of host communities.
- 9 PHYSICAL INTEGRITY:** To maintain and enhance the quality of landscapes, both urban and rural, and avoid the physical and visual degradation of the environment
- 10 BIOLOGICAL DIVERSITY:** To support the conservation of natural areas, habitats and wildlife, and minimize damage to them.
- 11 RESOURCE EFFICIENCY:** To minimize the use of scarce and non-renewable resources in the development and operation of tourism facilities and services.
- 12 ENVIRONMENTAL PURITY:** To minimize the pollution of air, water and land and the generation of waste by tourism enterprises and visitors.

**Figure 3: Twelve Aims for Sustainable Tourism. Source: UNWTO, 2005.**

Sustainable Tourism Pillars and Sub-Pillars	Aims for Sustainable Tourism
<b>1. Tourism policy and governance</b> 1.1 The position of tourism in development policies and programmes 1.2 Tourism policy and regulatory framework 1.3 Tourism governance and institutional setup	All the 12 Aims
<b>2. Economic performance, investment and competitiveness</b> 2.1 Measuring tourism and its contribution to the economy 2.2 Trade, investment and the business environment 2.3 Brand, marketing and product positioning 2.4 Resilience, security and risk management	1. Economic Viability 2. Local Prosperity 5. Visitor Fulfilment
<b>3. Employment, decent work and human capital</b> 3.1 Human Resources planning and working conditions 3.2 Skills assessment and the provision of training	3. Employment Quality
<b>4. Poverty reduction and social inclusion</b> 4.1 An integrated approach to poverty reduction through tourism 4.2 Strengthening pro-poor tourism initiatives 4.3 The inclusion of disadvantaged groups in the tourism sector 4.4 The prevention of negative social impact	2. Local Prosperity 4. Social Equity 6. Local Control 7. Community Wellbeing
<b>5. Sustainability of the natural and cultural environment</b> 5.1 Relating tourism to natural and cultural heritage 5.2 Focussing on climate change 5.3 Enhancing sustainability of tourism development and operations 5.4 Measuring and monitoring tourism impacts	8. Cultural Richness 9. Physical Integrity 10. Biological Diversity 11. Resource Efficiency 12. Environmental Purity

**Figure 4: Sustainable Tourism Pillars and Sub-Pillars. Source: UNWTO, 2013.**

With regard to the sustainable tourism pillars and sub-pillars, each of these pillars is heavily related to the formerly elaborated upon twelve aims for sustainable tourism. Hence, it is pivotal to discuss the two figures consecutively. As one can see (in figure 4), there are five sustainable tourism pillars. The first pillar highlights the importance of the presence and implementation of a distinct tourism strategy that embraces sustainability standards. In addition, this pillar looks at the structure of tourism governance and, more importantly, how tourism ministries and institutions empathize with other areas of government that alter its performance and sustainability. The first pillar elucidates the policy and regulatory framework which is required to deal with the complete set of twelve aims for sustainable tourism (ibid.). The second pillar scrutinizes the business and investment environment in the tourism sector, particularly the repercussions on the local economy, small businesses and sustainability in general. Moreover, it particularly looks at matters such as product quality, market access and the resilience of the sector. Pillar two relates to the aim Economic Viability, the aim Local Prosperity, and the aim Visitor Fulfilment (ibid.). The third pillar recognizes that the role of tourism as a creator of employment is a leading element of its contribution to sustainable development. This pillar looks at the planning of human resources to meet the needs of the sector and partially with the quality of the employment that is provided. This pillar immediately refers to the aim Employment Quality (ibid.). The fourth pillar concentrates on the contribution of tourism in the reduction of poverty. It reflects on particular initiatives to acquire more advantages for the poor. These specific initiatives are based on the by the UNWTO identified mechanisms which include amongst others, working with the informal sector, developing community-based initiatives, strengthening local supply chains, and securing collateral benefits from tourism. Pillar 4 specifically focusses on the aim Local Prosperity, the aim Social Equity, the aim Local Control, and the aim Community Wellbeing (ibid.). The fifth pillar emphasizes on the crucial connection between tourism and natural and cultural heritage as it looks at policies and actions that preserve resources, manage tourism in vulnerable areas and guarantee the benefits from it. Ultimately, the mechanisms that are used to improve the sustainability of tourism development and operations and to monitor tourism impacts is considered. Pillar five specifically addresses the aim Cultural Richness, the aim Physical Integrity, the aim Biological Diversity, the aim Resource Efficiency, and the aim Environmental Purity.

### **3.3.1 Some reflections on sustainable tourism development**

The concept of sustainable tourism development was illuminated in the preceding paragraph. This clarification of the notion of sustainable tourism development has enabled this research to conclude how sustainable tourism development has come into being and it has empowered this research to posit the premise that the measurement of impacts is an intrinsic part of the broader process of sustainable tourism development. This premise was underscored in the latter part of the last paragraph, where the principles of sustainable tourism (as derived from the UNWTO, 2013) were briefly discussed. It became clear that many of the by the *World Tourism Organization* (UNWTO) proposed principles show strong interface

with the academic discourse about the impacts of tourism on destinations (paragraph 3.2). To name a few; the principles of sustainable tourism of the UNWTO disseminates secure employment, income-earning opportunities, the preservation of the socio-cultural authenticity, the promotion of natural heritage and biodiversity, et cetera. In addition, many of the by the theory of change model of Footprint Travel (chapter 2) presented intermediate and long-term effects correspond with the principles of sustainable tourism (UNWTO, 2013) such as, inter alia, the thoughts on social equity and employment quality, local prosperity, and cultural richness. As a result, many facets of the principles of sustainable tourism are used, together with the outcomes of the theory of change model of Footprint Travel and the impacts as discussed in paragraph 3.2, as indicators for the analysis of impacts in the empirical part of this research. This is discussed more extensively in the next chapter of this thesis.

One minor comment has to be made with regard to the last paragraph of this chapter. As probably noticed, sustainable tourism and sustainable tourism development were used interchangeably in this chapter. This was done, since no clear distinction is made between sustainable tourism and sustainable tourism development in the academic literature either.

## **4. Methodological framework**

### **4.1 Introduction**

In the second chapter of this research, the first sub question was answered which was concerned with the policy that Footprint Travel adopts with regard to its business activities at its destinations. With the development of the theory of change model of Footprint Travel, this research gained a better understanding on the philosophy behind its business activities as well as the impacts it *desires* to have at its destinations. In the third chapter of this research, the details and history of relevant concepts and theories to this research were conferred. In addition, the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts that potentially exist in tourism destinations were discussed in an elaborate fashion. Conclusively, the concept of sustainable tourism development was scrutinized, where it was determined how the concept came into existence and it was deliberated what the relation of the impacts of tourism on destinations (as discussed in paragraph 3.2) is to the concept of sustainable tourism development. Now, this overview can function as the groundwork from which this research can make a start to answer the second sub question (as postulated in paragraph 1.5 The structure of this thesis):

#### **What is the impact of the business activities of Footprint Travel at its destinations in Indonesia?**

In this chapter insights are provided into the approach with which this research has endeavored to answer the above formulated research question. In other words, in this chapter of research it is described how the empirical research is operationalized. This is done in the following order. First, the decision of what methodological approach to use is explained and justified in paragraph 4.2 (named Methodological approach). Second, the particular evaluation design that is employed in this research is amplified in paragraph 4.3 (named the contribution analysis). Third, in paragraph 4.4 (called Method of data collection) it is elaborately considered how the data is gathered for the empirical study of this research and why it is collected in this fashion. This paragraph consists of several subparagraphs. In the first subparagraph (4.4.1 Verifying the theory of change of Footprint Travel), it is discussed what the main objective is of the fieldwork. In the second subparagraph, the technique which this research employs to gather the appropriate data is elaborated (4.4.2 Qualitative interviewing). In the third subparagraph, it is deliberated what sampling technique is utilized in order to find interviewees relevant to this research (4.4.3 Sampling procedure). An in-depth explanation is provided about how this research uses the research method participant observation in the fourth subparagraph (4.4.4 Participant observation). In fifth subparagraph, it is described as to where exactly the field work has taken place and the rationale of this decision (4.4.5 Research location). The strategy that is adopted during the interviews is delineated in the sixth subparagraph (4.4.6 Interview strategy). In the seventh subparagraph, it is discussed how the generated data is analyzed rigorously and properly (4.4.7 Data analysis). Ultimately, in paragraph 4.5

(Other key influencing factors), it is explained as to how this research plans to account for other key influencing factors.

## **4.2 Methodological approach**

In this paragraph, the decision of what methodological approach to use is made and, more importantly, justified. Here, the question is answered whether the empirical section of this research is quantitative or qualitative in nature or a combination of both. According to Labaree (2009), it is crucial to explain that the chosen method has a clear connection with the research problem. So, it is pivotal to ensure that the method actually addresses the problem. More concretely, since this research involves the assessment of impact, it is absolutely crucial to explicitly state that impact analysis deals with causation (Mohr, 1999). The essential question in the analysis of impact of programs is the question of attribution – ‘to what degree are observed outcomes due to program actions rather than other internal or external factors?’ (Mayne, 2008). The attribution of causality to a program is ambitious because of the inherent intricacy and the many kind of factors that potentially are at play (Hind, 2010). In this paragraph, the discussion with regard to which method to choose is made in light of this question of attribution. Moreover, it is also pivotal to emphasize that each impact analysis is distinct, given the diversity in, amongst others, types of projects, data availability, time constraints, costs and country circumstances. It is therefore extremely important to carefully examine the methodological alternatives in tailoring the research, with the purpose of generating the most robust outcomes possible (Baker, 2000).

In general, the concepts ‘quantitative’ and ‘qualitative’ refer to the kind of data produced in the research process (Garbarino & Holland, 2009). Quantitative research tends to generate data in form of numbers whereas qualitative research tends to create data in textual forms. In order to create different kinds of data, quantitative and qualitative research tend to apply different methods (ibid.).

The experimental design, also known as randomization, is considered to be the best approach among the quantitative approaches in impact evaluation research (Baker, 2000). In short, this approach guarantees that a robust estimate of the counterfactual is generated (Gertler et al., 2011). To amplify, a lottery is employed so as to determine who among the equally eligible population gets the program and who does not. Each eligible unit of treatment (for instance, an individual, household, or community) has an even likelihood of selection for treatment (ibid.). The matched comparisons approach is regarded as being the second-best alternative (Baker, 2000). This approach seeks a comparison group that is as comparable as possible with the treatment group with regard to baseline traits. Eventually, the comparison group demonstrates what would have been the result in case the programme or policy had not been carried out (the counterfactual) (White & Sabarwal, 2014). Advocates of quantitative methods for project evaluation argue that in order to secure methodological rigor, an impact evaluation ought to calculate the counterfactual – that is what would have occurred in case the project never took place or what otherwise would have been true (Baker, 2000). According to Yüksel (2010), the advantages of



using quantitative methods can't be denied. Unlike qualitative methods, which have the tendency to be anecdotal, non-comparative, a-theoretical, and too descriptive, quantitative approaches are comparable, theory-based, explanatory and generalizable.

In contrast to these claims of quantitative methods enthusiasts, qualitative methods are also employed in order to carry out impact evaluation with the purpose to determine impact depending on something other than the counterfactual in order to make causal presumptions (Mohr, 1999). The emphasis instead is on gaining a better understanding of behaviors, processes, and conditions as they are perceived by people that are studied (Baker, 2000). This view has also caused a great deal of controversy, whereas both the quantitative and qualitative camps find its own method to be undoubtedly better and the other to be dreadfully incompetent. Be that as it may, qualitative designs for project evaluation have come to be widely acknowledged and practiced (Mohr, 1999). According to Baker (2000), qualitative methods have the ability to provide insight into the manners in which families and local communities perceive a program and how they are influenced by it. In the same vein, Yüksel (2010) argues that matters such as perceptions and beliefs can be explicated, because qualitative approaches accentuate the significance of looking at matters in their original context and to gather comprehensive data through methods including, participant observation, case studies, descriptive narratives, focus groups, and in-depth interviews (*ibid.*). However, Baker (2000) adds to the equation that qualitative designs to measure impact are generally used in conjunction with quantitative design. This, because of the fact that the calculation is at the core of impact analysis methods (*ibid.*).

The brief overview of the quantitative vs. qualitative debate in impact evaluation methods provides insights into the various designs that can be employed in order to assess impact. Based on the above discussion, one may argue that a quantitative design to measure impact may offer greater methodological rigor than designs which are qualitative of nature. One may also assert that a mixed method approach would be the most appropriate, as one can triangulate its findings which in turn enhances the validity and credibility of the research findings (Bamberger, 2012). Nevertheless, this research opts to utilize a qualitative approach in order to generate empirical data. In the next subsection it is explained why the decision for a qualitative design to assess impact is made. It is important to elaborate on this in order to justify the decision of this research for a methodological approach which is qualitative in nature.

In the first place, this research reckons that it is impractical to calculate the counterfactual as this research is subject to a limited amount of time and money. Counterfactual experimental designs are, in many cases, time consuming and costly, especially when it involves the collection of new data (Baker, 2000). This view is supported by Vaessen (2010) who points out that early experiences with experimental designs, as well as with quasi-experimental designs, have turned out to be rather costly. Further, Hind (2010) maintains that traditional counterfactual approaches are not easy to apply and in reality are not practical or possible to implement in all cases. When reflecting on this, this research argues that it might be presumptuous and risky to attempt to develop an experimental design as the

person conducting this research is inexperienced. Another obstacle can be the collection of baseline data, which is a prerequisite when designing an experimental research. This is underlined by Bamberger et al., (2006), who claim that it often occurs that the program is already underway some time and in many cases that no baseline data is gathered and no comparison group is identified. This is also the case in this research. As discussed earlier in this research (subparagraph 1.2.2 Footprint Travel B.V.), Footprint Travel was founded in 2008 and started its business operations in Indonesia around that time. At the start of its business activities, Footprint Travel did not collect any baseline data at its destinations in Indonesia.

Myriad of qualitative methods for the assessment of impact have come to surface as a response to situations when it is impractical to use traditional experimental methods. Using a qualitative method has several advantages which are briefly explained here. However, it is also imperative to be transparent with the potential weaknesses and flaws that are inherent to making use of a qualitative method for the assessment of impact. Hence, at the end of this chapter, a critical reflection is carried out that sheds light on the limitations of the used method.

According to Baker (2000), a benefit of employing a qualitative method is the flexibility and the ability to be uniquely modified to the needs of the assessment since it applies open-ended approaches. Besides, qualitative designs can be executed quickly using rapid techniques. Maybe the main benefit of using a qualitative method, and already previously touched upon in this paragraph, is its capacity to provide a better understanding of stakeholders' perceptions and the processes and conditions that may have influenced the impact of the program (*ibid.*). In addition, Burdge & Vanclay (1996) stress the importance of gaining an improved understanding of the perceptions of stakeholders by noting that impacts are subject to the value of conviction of individuals. For example, changes to the nature of a community may be perceived as positive by some members of the community, and as negative by other members. Consequently, impacts are not utterly positive or negative in themselves – such as an increase in employment is positive and a decrease in employment is negative. As far as this research is concerned, the arguments posited by Baker (2000) and Burdge & Vanclay (1996) justify the choice of a qualitative method as it perfectly represents what this research aims to accomplish namely - to determine whether Footprint Travel's business activities have the desired outcomes on individuals, households, and communities at destinations in Indonesia.

In the next paragraph it is described which particular qualitative method for the assessment of impact is chosen for this research. In addition, further details are provided in order to get a better grasp of what this method really entails.

### **4.3 The contribution analysis**

The particular qualitative evaluation design which is utilized in this research is called the contribution analysis. The contribution analysis was developed by John Mayne and aims to diminish ambivalence

about the contribution the program is making to the observed outcomes via an increased understanding of why the observed outcomes have happened (or not have happened) and the part played by the program and other factors (Mayne, 2011). The contribution analysis can provide a plausible and credible analysis on cause and effect in case it is not practical to devise an experiment to evaluate performance (Mayne, 2008). As already amplified in the previous paragraph, attribution cannot be ignored when assessing impact of a program. This, despite the demanding and challenging task of proving attribution. This is underlined by Rosenzweig (2004) who accentuates the importance of attributability by stating that impact can be defined as ‘the portion of the total outcome that happened as a result of the activity of the enterprise, above and beyond what would have happened anyway. Little can be said about the value of the program without an answer to the attribution question. Maybe the observed alterations in outcomes would possibly have occurred without the program? Commonly, other factors are at play along with the impact of the programs’ activities (Mayne, 2001). Quite frequently, the attribution problem is ignored. In these cases, the outcome is either directly attributed to the program or attributed by suggestion without any reference to other potential factors at play. For anyone with only a limited understanding of the program and its context, this sort of information will have no credibility whatsoever (Mayne, 2001). As far as Lemire (2010) is concerned, the strength of the contribution analysis is its competence to build a case which can reasonably conclude causality without applying a counterfactual. However, it is crucial to acknowledge that the contribution analysis opts for compelling evidence of contribution rather than direct attribution or causality. The emphasis of the contribution analysis should be shifted towards obtaining a better understanding of ‘what works’. In turn, it seldom provides hard evidence or proves things in a definite sense (Mayne, 2001). This research reckons that, by applying the contribution analysis, it can obtain a better understanding about the second part of the research objective of this thesis *viz.* ‘whether those outcomes are attributable to Footprint Travel’s activities.’

The foundation of the contribution analysis is a presupposed theory of change. As elaborated upon previously (Chapter 2), the theory of change examines the causal relationships between actions, short-term outcomes, and long-term outcomes. Subsequently, the contribution analysis tests the theory of change against logic and the data available on the observed outcomes and the miscellaneous assumptions behind the theory of change, and scrutinizes other influencing components. The contribution analysis either validates the assumed theory of change or it recommends amendments in the theory where the reality appears differently (Mayne, 2011). In her paper on qualitative methods to assess impact, Ellis (2015) lucidly clarifies the steps that are required in order to conduct a contribution analysis properly and the factors that are important to bear in mind whilst perpetrating a contribution analysis. She describes the contribution analysis as an extension to the theory of change methodology. This way, existing evidence can be substantiated or challenged and other potential factors can be dismissed (or not). The contribution analysis, when performed accurately, elucidates several issues. First, it sheds light on which links in the theory of change story are strong and which are not. Second, it provides an indication of how credible the presupposed theory of change really is. Third, it becomes

clearer to what extent stakeholders agree with the theory of change story (ibid.). Mayne (2011) argues that in the end of a contribution analysis a contribution claim can be made. This contribution claim tells you something about whether the program made the difference as predicted. Mayne (2011) summarizes the above by providing the following equation:

Contribution claim= a verified theory of change + other key influencing factors accounted for (Mayne, 2011: 273)

Eventually, the overall objective is to obtain the so-called ‘plausible association’: whether a reasonable person would agree from the evidence and argument that the program has made an important contribution to the observed result’ (Mayne, 2011: 62). Following on from this, Patton (2012) contends that the evaluator needs to interpret the evidence that is gathered. Eventually, the evaluator must determine the degree to which this evidence backs a conclusion of contribution: great, substantial, some, little, or none.

In paragraph 4.4, it is clarified how this research plans to come to a contribution claim. In other words, in what way is data gathered in order to verify the theory of change. In addition, in paragraph 4.5 it is explained what actions are undertaken in order to deal with the potential other key influencing factors.

#### **4.4 Method of data collection**

In the former paragraph the following equation was provided:

Contribution claim= a verified theory of change + other key influencing factors accounted for (Mayne, 2011: 273)

The above equation is basically dissected in this paragraph with the objective to lucidly illustrate how different parts of the equation are addressed. In the next subparagraph of this paragraph it is elaborately described how the theory of change is verified in this research. To put it differently, it is considered how, and what data, are gathered in order to be able to verify the theory of change.

##### **4.4.1 Verifying the theory of change of Footprint Travel**

The theory of change model of Footprint Travel was developed and extensively reflected upon in the second chapter of this research. The development of the theory of change model of Footprint Travel was carried out in order to get an answer to first sub-question of this research which is: ‘what is the policy of Footprint Travel with regard to its business activities in Indonesia’? Earlier in this thesis (subparagraph 2.2.2), it was argued that the development of the theory of change model has yielded a

great deal of insights into the policy Footprint Travel adopts at its destinations in Indonesia. In other words, the theory of change turned out to be a suitable method to identify the impacts Footprint Travel *desires* to have. Further, it was asserted that this model can't be considered flawless as it does not provide a full representation of all the potential impacts. Hence, this research elaborated upon the other potential impacts. That is, the impacts Footprint Travel *may* have. Now, in the empirical part of this research, the previously postulated theory of change of Footprint Travel is tested. This way, this research hopes to verify the extent to which inferences made in the theory of change are accurate and well-founded. In the next subparagraph, it is expounded how this research aims to accomplish this.

#### **4.4.2 Qualitative interviewing**

According to Yüksel (2010), the data for qualitative evaluation commonly is derived from fieldwork. The evaluator spends time in the context which is under scrutiny – an organization, a program, or a community where people can be interviewed, change observed, and documents examined. Similarly, Garbarino & Holland (2009) claim that akin contextual research includes participant observation, interviews and participatory tools that are frequently visual and group-based. By employing open-ended questions, these techniques are created in order to interpret perceptions and judgements and allow researchers to conduct sophisticated inquiries of oftentimes non-quantifiable cause-and-effect procedures. Even more concrete to the contribution analysis, Ellis (2015) asserts that the method of qualitative interviewing is suitable to collect data to verify the theory of change. Hence, this research makes use of qualitative interviewing as a method to collect the necessary data.

The qualitative interview is eloquently described by Gorden (n.d.) as a conversation between two persons in which one person attempts to guide the conversation to acquire information for some particular reason. Translating Gorden's description of a qualitative interview to this particular research, this research endeavors, with the help of qualitative interviews, to generate data that can give insight into what impacts the business activities of Footprint Travel have on individuals, households, and communities at destinations in Indonesia. In the opinion of Gorden (n.d.), it is quite a challenge for the interviewer to obtain data from the participant as directly as possible. There are several types of interviews and the nature of the interview should be coherent with your research question and research objective (Saunders et al., 2009). It is plausible that a research incorporates a non-standardized research interview in its design in case the research is exploratory in nature or in case a research endeavors to infer causal relationships between variables. Semi-structured and unstructured interviews are 'non-standardized' and are typically referred to as qualitative research interviews (ibid.). Unstructured interviews are generally informal in character and are conducted in conjunction with the gathering of observational information (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). There is no predetermined list of questions with which one can give direction to the interview. Instead, the interviewee's perceptions lead the conduct of the interview (Saunders et al., 2009). The semi-structured interview is opted as the technique in this research. Semi-structured interviews are frequently the only source of data and are

normally planned in advance at a specific time and location (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). Commonly, the interview is ordered around a set of predetermined open-ended question with the possibility that other questions emerge whilst conducting the interview (ibid.). In addition, Saunders et al., (2009) note that the list of questions and themes may diverge from interview to interview depending on the specific context of the research topic. For instance, the researcher may omit some questions in some particular interviews or may add questions in another interview. Moreover, the sequence of questions may deviate depending on the course of the interview (ibid.). The semi-structured interview is the most broadly used interviewing technique for qualitative research and can take place either with an individual or in groups. Commonly, a semi-structured interview is carried out once for an individual or group and lasts between 30 minutes to several hours. The individual in-depth interview enables the interviewer to thoroughly explore social and private matters, whereas a group interview permits the interviewer to acquire a better understanding of a broader range of experiences. However, due to the public character of the procedure, it is not an appropriate technique to employ in case the interviewer wants to delve deeply into the social and personal matters of the interviewee (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006).

In this research, a total of twenty-one in-depth individual interviews were conducted. In addition, two interviews were conducted by email. The reason for this was that in one case the participant called Lia was not able to show up at the arranged time and location due to unfortunate circumstances. The participant named Rendy in the other case lived in the US for his PhD-degree and the most convenient way for him was to answer the questions by email. Furthermore, one informal conversation was held with Rodi, the owner of a small coffee factory which is also a stop during the excursion of Footprint Travel in Tetebatu in Lombok. This informal conversation was unfortunately not recorded. However, field notes were made of this conversation which can be found in the document in which the field notes of the participatory observations are drawn up. The process of how this research has selected its interviewees is described in the next subparagraph.

#### **4.4.3 Sampling procedure**

In the previous subparagraph it was said that this research endeavors, with the aid of qualitative interviews, to obtain data that can provide insights into what impact the business activities of Footprint Travel have on individuals, households, and communities at destinations in Indonesia. Because of the qualitative nature of this research, it is not appropriate to use probability sampling techniques (Marshall, 1996). Rather, this research believes that purposeful sampling is a suitable technique in order to find interviewees relevant to this research. In the view of Patton (2002 as cited in Benoot et al., 2016), the philosophy of purposeful sampling is that information-rich cases are chosen to examine in-depth. These information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a lot about matters of central significance to the purpose of the research, hence the term purposeful sampling.

In the case of this research, information-rich cases are those persons involved with or influenced by the business activities of Footprint Travel. In other words, those persons who are impacted by the business activities of Footprint Travel. As one can already derive from the main research question, the location in which the field work for this research took place is Indonesia. In the subparagraph (4.4.5 Research location) more details on the exact location are provided. The significance of addressing the attribution question has been previously (see 4.2 Methodological approach) discussed in this chapter. Apart from applying the contribution analysis, this research supposes that it is imperative to talk to those people who are influenced, in one way or another, by Footprint Travel. Talking to people outside this area of Footprint Travel's activities would be redundant and would not address the question of attribution. That is why, in the planning stage of the field work, this research has intended to set up interviews with people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia. In addition, this was the most convenient way to get in touch with the relevant people in Indonesia, since this research had to rely on the contacts of Mrs. van der Geest. This approach yielded the number of seventeen interviews all planned at a specific location and time in Indonesia. This number was reached through an intensive email correspondence with several local partners of Footprint Travel. In addition, a total of nine participatory observations were arranged during this intensive email correspondence. This is discussed in detail in the next subparagraph (4.4.4 Participant observation). The seventeen interviewees consist of tour guides, drivers and travel agents affiliated with Footprint Travel. As far as this research is concerned, these specific persons were appropriate to talk to since these people carry out work on behalf of Footprint Travel and in turn are influenced, in one way or another, by Footprint Travel. Moreover, this research believes that these people are knowledgeable about what the impact is of Footprint Travel in the community in which they are active and they can provide an indication of the extent to which the impacts are attributable to Footprint Travel.

Besides the technique of purposeful sampling, the technique of snowball sampling was employed. Snowball sampling implies that the interviewer searches for information from informants about details of other information-rich cases in the field (Suri, 2011). Frequently, this sampling technique is utilized to find potential interviewees which are tough to reach (Katz, 2006). In case of this research, snowball sampling meant consulting the seventeen interviewees whether they were aware of information-rich cases. More concrete, this implied asking interviewees whether they were aware of other people influenced by Footprint Travel. This way, this research endeavored to find other suitable interviewees on-site from which other data could be generated. The rationale of employing this sampling technique was to obtain a more diverse sample population. This research hoped to reach other people that are influenced by Footprint Travel, apart from tour guides, travel agents and drivers as interviewees. This approach yielded an extra number of four interviews from which three interviews had different characteristics than the seventeen interviews which were arranged prior to traveling to Indonesia. For the sake of convenience, this research makes here the distinction between interviewees who are directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel and interviewees who are indirectly involved

with the business activities of Footprint Travel. The interviewees directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel occupy positions like that of tour guide and driver. The interviewees indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel are the interviewees that unfold activities in tourism, but for whom tourism is not their core business. For example, an interviewee indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel is the owner of the family business specialized in the production of prawn crackers from rice and simultaneously a stop during the go-local tour (in the program of Footprint Travel) in Surakarta. The characteristics of all the interviewees are more elaborately discussed in subparagraph 4.4.5 (Research location).

#### **4.4.3.1 Practical limitations in the sampling procedure**

When reflecting on the sampling process, it is important to denote that the snowball sampling did not yield as many interviewees as desired. The process of seeking other interviewees on-site turned out to be rather difficult. The main cause of the limited number of interviewees yielded via snowball sampling is, as far as this research is concerned, a lack of time. The field work only lasted three weeks, which was too short to find other potential interviewees which are tough to reach. One should take more time conducting field work in order to obtain better results whilst employing this sampling method. This would have greatly enhanced the sample size of this empirical research.

The sample size influences the external validity of the conclusions of this research. In other words, the extent to which the inferences made in this research would be representative for other individuals in other places at other times. The sample size in qualitative research is a seldom-written-about-but-much-questioned issue (Boddy, 2016). As a result, Mason (2010 as cited in Malterud et al., 2016) argues that the majority of researchers appear to follow their own rules of thumb about the numbers of units that are required in order to arrive at an amenable analysis. This research does not delve any deeper into the discussion around the sample size. However, it takes the statement of Malterud et al., (2016) into account who claim that a frequently stated standard for determining sample size in a qualitative research is that the sample size should be adequately big and varied to explicate the objective of the research. In terms of size, the number of twenty-one interviews (the interviews via email not included) exceeds the number of fifteen interviews which is considered to be the smallest acceptable sample (Mason, 2010). This research does believe however, that it is **not** able to generalize its claims, given the lack of diversity of the sample size. The above has implications for the contribution claims (see chapter 6) as these contribution claims can't, in many cases, be extrapolated to a broader public than the people who are directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel.

#### **4.4.4 Participant observation**

This research used participant observation as a supplementary qualitative research method. Please note that this method is supplementary to the semi-structured interviews and is by no means the main method



of research. This research method was employed with the objective to increase the validity of this research, as observations may improve the understanding of the context and phenomenon which is under scrutiny (Kawulich, 2005). This view is supported by Mack et al., (2011) who contend that participant observation is helpful for acquiring knowledge of the physical, social, and economic contexts in which research's participants live. This improved understanding and familiarity with the cultural milieu has proven to be valuable throughout the research project (ibid.).

This research had the privilege to conduct a total of nine participatory observations in Indonesia in which draft field notes were made. These notes were subsequently drawn up in Microsoft Word as soon as possible in order to make use of the freshness of memory. The elaborated notes are included in the primary data.

First of all, it is prudent to stress that the participatory observations of this research were conducted from the perspective of 'the traveler of Footprint Travel'. To elaborate, the researcher in charge of this study participated in a number of nine excursions which are provided by Footprint Travel. The rationale of conducting akin participatory observations was to obtain a better understanding of what excursions and other business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia really entail, to gain more insights into the setting in which they occur, and to learn more about the synergy between travelers and locals that arise during excursions of Footprint Travel. The decision was made to conduct participatory observations from this perspective since this research reckoned that this approach would be the most fruitful and practical method to generate knowledge of the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia. Alternatively, this research could have opted to conduct participatory observations from the perspective of individuals (e.g. tour guides, drivers, hosts, etc.) who are impacted by the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia. For instance, the researcher in charge of this research could have stayed at a family in a local village in South Sulawesi to observe how they host and cook for Footprint Travel guests. Most likely, this would have yielded also great insights into the impacts of Footprint Travel at its destinations in Indonesia. However, this research surmised that these kinds of participant observations would be hard to arrange. In addition, it would be impractical to plan such participatory observations given the limited extent of time of only three weeks of field work and the tight schedule with respect to the planned interviews (more on this in subparagraph 4.4.5 Research location). The participatory observations are elaborated in the remainder of this subparagraph.

The first participatory observation was led by Kevin, a local tour guide who is employed by Tari Travel – a local partner of Footprint Travel situated in South Sulawesi. This participatory observation involved the taking part in a community-based excursion in the Maros regency situated in South Sulawesi in which two local families in two different local communities were visited. One family provided coffee and baked bananas and another family prepared a local specialty during this excursion. The second participatory observation was managed by Dimas, a local tour guide active on behalf of Tari Travel in and around Makassar, South Sulawesi. This participatory observation entailed a cycling trip through a local village on the outskirts of Makassar, South Sulawesi. During this trip stops were made

at local schools, a local wedding and a lunch was provided by a local family at the end of the cycling trip. The third participatory observation was operated by Jonathan, a local tour guide who leads multiple community-based excursions for Tari Travel in the Toraja Region, in the northern part of South Sulawesi. This participatory observation was conducted in the village of Rantepao in the Toraja region and included visits to several different ancestral houses, a local market, a local ‘house-warming party’, and a Toraja lunch in an ancestral house prepared by a local family. The fourth participatory observation was done close to Tetebatu, located in the east of Lombok. This excursion began with a short hike through the rice fields. Subsequently, Rodi was visited. Rodi is the owner of a very (!) small coffee factory which is a stop during the excursion of Footprint Travel in Tetebatu. Here, it was demonstrated how coffee in Lombok tends to be manufactured and the opportunity was given to participate in the production process. After having brewed our own coffee, the trip continued to Pringgasela, a village where most inhabitants earn a living with weaving. A local sales man of ikats (patterned textile) named David provided a small tour through Pringgasela in which several ‘weaving houses’ were visited. Ultimately, the visit was concluded with an extensive and typically Lombok lunch prepared by David’s wife. All aforementioned activities are part of the program of Footprint Travel in the east of Lombok. The fifth participatory observation was led by Putri, a local tour guide who is employed by Khiri Travel – a local partner of Footprint Travel in Lombok. Putri functions as a guide who manages community-based excursions in Senaru, situated in the north of Lombok. In addition, Putri trains local girls who also aspire to become a tour guide. This participatory observation involved a community-based hiking trip in Senaru, in the north of Lombok. Some local snacks and drinks were tried in a traditional village, situated at the foot of the Rinjani volcano. The sixth participatory observation was managed by Satria, a local tour guide active on behalf of Khiri Travel in and around Senggigi, located in the west of Lombok. This excursion concerned participating in a cycling trip through multiple local villages around Senggigi. Several family businesses such as a family specialized in the production of chips and a family specialized in the manufacturing of nuts were visited throughout this cycling trip. Ultimately, a local family was visited which served their local delicacies. The seventh participatory observation was operated by Hana, who functions as a guide for the cultural heritage walk in city of Bandung, Java. This walk included visiting the main cultural heritage sites on Jalan Asia-Africa and Jalan Braga. Eventually, the trip was finished with a visit to the local underground market and a stop at a Bandung coffee house. The eighth participatory observation was managed by Nadia, active as a local tour guide on behalf of ViaVia – a local partner of Footprint Travel in Yogyakarta, Java. This participatory observation involved a culinary tour in city of Yogyakarta. Throughout this trip, several *warungs* (small family-owned business) were visited where local specialties were served and tasted. In addition, stops were made at a local cookie factory, a local fair, and a local market. The ninth participatory observation was led by Robby, operative as a local tour guide who provides several excursions on the outskirts of Surakarta (also known as Solo), Java. This participatory observation entailed an excursion to multiple communities, all situated in the periphery of Surakarta, Java. Throughout this trip, multiple stops were made at a family business

specialized in the manufacturing of prawn crackers and a family business specialized in the manufacturing of alcohol for medical purposes.

#### **4.4.4.1 Practical limitations of the participant observations**

All the above carried out participatory observations certainly painted a better picture of the context in which this research takes place *viz.* the business activities of Footprint Travel. However, one must remain critical. In her review on participant observation, Kawulich (2005) argues that many researchers take more than a year to carry out a participatory observation. Given this fact, this research acknowledges that it is impossible to perfectly develop a great familiarity with the context in which this research occurs. It is simply not possible, due to the extremely limited amount of time that the researcher of this research is 'out in the field'. Be that as it may, this research believes that these participatory observations have at least yielded a better understanding of how the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia are like and how concepts (e.g. community-based tourism) discussed in chapter 3 (A literature study on tourism and development) are in reality. Moreover, by conducting participatory observations this research has become acquainted with several actors involved in the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia.

It is also essential to denote that the field notes which have come forth from these participatory observations are subject to a high degree of subjectivity. This is underlined by Mack et al., (2011) who assert that a constraint of participant observation is that it is an inherently subjective activity and that the removal of personal bias is a challenging task. This fact is important to bear in mind when making use of the field notes generated through these participant observations.

#### **4.4.5 Research location**

In the previous subparagraph it already became clear that the empirical research took place in Indonesia. In this subparagraph, the exact location of the research is amplified and the rationale as to why this research has chosen for this location. In addition, a list is provided with some characteristics of the interviewees at the end of the subparagraph (see table 2).

To start rather broad, the decision to conduct field work in Indonesia was made based on the very simple reasoning that it is plausible to think that Footprint Travel has generated the most impact in this country. This, due to the fact that Footprint Travel started its business activities here when it was incepted in 2008. It therefore seemed logical to conduct field research in a place where Footprint Travel has been present for quite some time, rather than doing it in a place where the company has been active only since recently. In addition, Footprint Travel has sold a considerable number of travels to Indonesia (see table 1).

Sales figures Footprint Travel Indonesia	
2013	528 travellers
2014	777 travellers
2015	852 travellers
2016	818 travellers

**Table 1: Sales figures Footprint Travel. Source: Footprint Travel.**

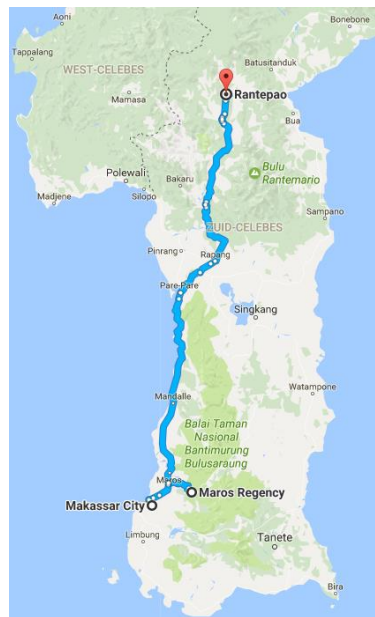
The empirical research took place from the 7<sup>th</sup> of November until the 27<sup>th</sup> of November in 2016 comprising approximately three weeks. The field work started in South Sulawesi, the area which was visited by the researcher is circled red on the map (see figure 5) in which Indonesia is depicted. A total of six interviews were conducted in South Sulawesi from the 9<sup>th</sup> of November until the 13<sup>th</sup> of November in 2016. The exact places visited in South Sulawesi are illustrated in figure 6. The first interview was held with Kevin, a local tour guide in the Maros Regency. The second and the third interview were held with respectively Dimas who is a local tour guide in and around Makassar and Irene, the owner of Tari Travel – local partner of Footprint Travel located in South Sulawesi. One motive of this research to opt for South Sulawesi has been the presence of Irene in Makassar. A great deal of travels and excursions of Footprint Travel in Indonesia are provided in collaboration with Tari Travel. Therefore, Irene seemed very knowledgeable about the tourism activities in which Footprint Travel is involved in South Sulawesi and, more importantly, she can tell something about the role that Footprint Travel plays in this.



**Figure 5: Map of Indonesia. Source: Dive the Word**

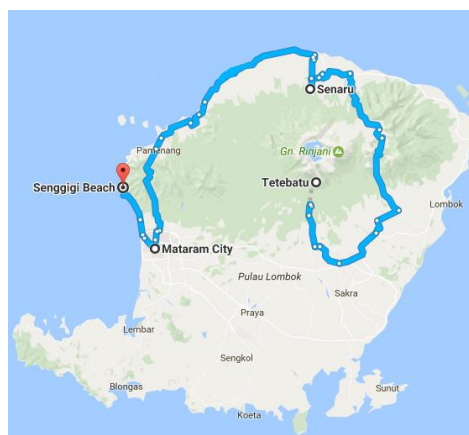
Another reason to choose for South Sulawesi was one of logistics. Relatively many relevant interviews could be arranged in a short period of time without having to travel a lot. Only the bus trip from Makassar to Rantepao was an exception as it turned out to be quite an ordeal. This journey was done overnight in order to save time. The fourth interview was conducted with Jonathan, a local tour guide who leads multiple community-based excursions in the Toraja region in South Sulawesi. The fifth interview was held with Fajar, a local tour guide who performs activities on behalf of Tari Travel in South Sulawesi in, amongst others, Toraja, Makassar, and Bira. The sixth interview was conducted with Pandu who is

also a local tour guide employed by Tari Travel and who performs community-based excursion in South Sulawesi.



**Figure 6: Places visited in South Sulawesi. Source: own.**

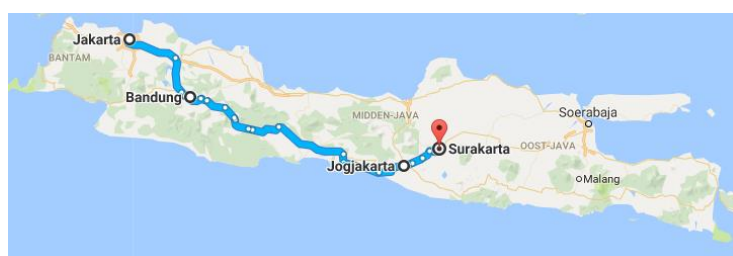
This research opted for Lombok on the same grounds. The number of five interviews could be held in a rather limited extent of time (from the 15<sup>th</sup> until the 18<sup>th</sup> of November). This was possible because of the small size of the island which is circled orange on the map (figure 5). In addition, the infrastructure of the island is in good shape which makes traveling efficient and easy. The precise locations visited on Lombok are portrayed in figure 7. The seventh interview was held with David, an inhabitant and a host of Footprint Travel guests in Pringgasela – a small village located in Tetebatu. The eighth interview was done with Putri, a local tour guide who also educates local girls to become a tour guide in Senaru situated in the north of Lombok.



**Figure 7: Places visited in Lombok. Source: own.**

The ninth interview was carried out in Mataram, the capital city of Lombok. This interview was conducted with Dina, employed at Khiri travel – the local partner of Footprint Travel in Lombok. Dina is the branch manager at the office with which Footprint Travel closely collaborates and is knowledgeable about the tourism activities in which Footprint Travel is involved in Lombok and can also provide insight into the role Footprint Travel plays. The tenth and eleventh interview were held in a small village adjacent to Senggigi, in the west of Lombok. The tenth interview was conducted with Satria who is active as a local tour guide and who, amongst others, carries out a cycling trip through several local villages around Senggigi. The eleventh interview was held with Adrian, an English speaking driver of, inter alia, Footprint Travel guests in Lombok.

The last number of ten interviews were conducted on Java circled pink on the map (figure 5). The rationale of the choice for Java lies in the fact that quite a lot of appropriate interviewees could be found on Java. In addition, many travelers of Footprint Travel went to Java (based on data of the sales of the year 2014 and 2015 provided by Footprint Travel). A larger amount of time was dedicated to conduct field research here considering the magnitude of the island. The last eight days of the visit to Indonesia were spent on Java (from the 19<sup>th</sup> until the 27<sup>th</sup> of November 2016). The exact locations of the places visited on Java are depicted in figure 8.



**Figure 8. Places visited in Java. Source: own.**

Jakarta, the capital city of the Republic of Indonesia merely functioned as a place of transit. The twelfth and thirteenth interviews were conducted in the city of Bandung. Initially, a number of five interviews were planned in Bandung. Unfortunately, due to various circumstances, this number decreased to two interviews. Both Hana (12<sup>th</sup> interview) and Farah (13<sup>th</sup> interview) had the position of a local guide for the heritage walk in Bandung. Subsequently, the fourteenth, fifteenth, sixteenth and seventeenth interview were held in the city of Yogyakarta. The fourteenth interview was conducted with Nadia, a local tour guide in Yogyakarta of amongst others, the culinary tour. The fifteenth interview was held with Anas, the owner of a *warung* which is part of the culinary tour in Yogyakarta. The sixteenth and seventeenth interview were held with respectively Reza and Hardi, both drivers of, amongst others, Footprint Travel clients on Java and Bali. The eighteenth, nineteenth, twentieth and twenty-first interviews were carried out in and around Surakarta. The eighteenth interview was conducted with Fariz, an employee at a family business specialized in the brewing of alcohol (for medical intents), and more importantly, a stop during the excursions of Footprint Travel. The nineteenth interview was held with

Daniel who is active as a tour guide for, amongst others, the cycling trip through multiple local villages on the periphery of Surakarta. The twentieth interview was done with Stella, the owner of a family business specialized in the manufacturing of prawn crackers and also a stop during the cycling tour. The last interview was held with Robby, a local tour guide who provides the cycling trip on the fringes of Surakarta. Below, a list (table 2) is provided with more characteristics of the conducted interviews.

#### **4.4.5.1 Ethical considerations**

Previously in this paragraph, in the subparagraph on the process of sampling (4.4.3), it was stated that interviews with people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia were arranged in the planning stage of this empirical research. This was done through an intensive email correspondence with local contacts of Footprint Travel. Having said that, this research had the opportunity to extensively inform local contacts on the objective of the interviews and the nature of the interviews. In turn, this research politely asked whether permission could be granted to conduct interviews. In some instances, consent was provided via email in an informal fashion. However, the obtaining of consent required a more formal approach in other cases. For example, one contact asked for a formal letter of the university in which the interviewer is enrolled. This formal letter can be found in appendix 2 of this thesis. According to Corti et al., (2000), research should, as far as feasible, be based on the voluntary and informed consent of the participant. This research has endeavored to comply with this by carrying out the efforts explained above.

A list containing more details of the interviewees is provided in table 1. This research has opted to use pseudonyms rather than real names for the sake of the protection of the privacy of the interviewees. This is purposely done, in order to maintain the anonymity of the interviewee in respect to the information shared. This is paramount, as the interviewee may share information that can threaten his or her place in a system (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). One must remark though, that it was sometimes hard to maintain the anonymity of the interviewees in case of this research. This, because Footprint Travel provided the initial contacts with whom interviews were arranged. This implies that Footprint Travel is aware of some of the identities of the interviewees. However, the lion's share of interviewees came forth from the local contacts and therefore not directly from Footprint Travel.

Interviewee	Gender	Date	Place	Function
Kevin	Male	November 10 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Maros Regency, South Sulawesi	Local tour guide
Dimas	Male	November 11 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Makassar, South Sulawesi	Local tour guide
Irene	Female	November 11 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Makassar, South Sulawesi	Owner local travel agency Tari Travel, partner of Footprint Travel
Jonathan	Male	November 12 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Rantepao, South Sulawesi	Local tour guide
Fajar	Male	November 13 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Rantepao, South Sulawesi	Local tour guide
Pandu	Male	November 13 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Rantepao, South Sulawesi	Local tour guide
David	Male	November 15 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Pringgasela, Lombok	Host of Footprint Travel guests (go local tour) and salesman of ikats
Putri	Female	November 16 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Senaru, Lombok	Local tour guide and teacher of girls who want to become a guide
Dina	Female	November 17 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Mataram, Lombok	Branch manager of Khiri travel, local partner Footprint Travel
Satria	Male	November 17 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Senggigi, Lombok	Local tour guide
Adrian	Male	November 18 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Senggigi, Lombok	Driver of Footprint Travel guests on Lombok
Hana	Female	November 20 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Bandung, Java	Guide heritage walk
Farah	Female	November 20 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Bandung, Java	Guide heritage walk
Nadia	Female	November 22 <sup>nd</sup> , 2016	Yogyakarta, Java	Guide culinary tour and manager local office (ViaVia)
Anas	Male	November 22 <sup>nd</sup> , 2016	Yogyakarta, Java	Host of one of the stops culinary tour
Reza	Male	November 23 <sup>rd</sup> , 2016	Yogyakarta, Java	Driver of Footprint Travel guests Java and Bali
Hardi	Male	November 23 <sup>rd</sup> , 2016	Yogyakarta, Java	Driver of Footprint Travel guests Java and Bali
Fariz	Male	November 24 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Surakarta, Java	Producer of alcohol for pharmaceutical use. Stop in go-local tour
Daniel	Male	November 24 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Surakarta, Java	Local tour guide
Stella	Female	November 24 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Surakarta, Java	Local producer of prawn cracker. Stop in go-local tour
Robby	Male	November 24 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Surakarta, Java	Local tour guide
Lia (interview via email)	Female	N/A	N/A	Guide heritage walk in Bandung
Rendy (interview via email)	Male	August 29 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	N/A	PhD candidate in heritage tourism and community-based tourism and founder of the heritage walk in Bandung
Rodi	Male	November 15 <sup>th</sup> , 2016	Tetebatu, Lombok	Producer of Lombok coffee. Stop in go-local tour

**Table 2: List of interviewees. Source: own.**



#### 4.4.6 Interview strategy

An interview guide was developed for the interviews. The theory of change, developed in chapter 2 of this thesis, played a prominent role in the process of designing the interview guide. This was done in order to embed all impacts Footprint Travel desires to have at its destinations in the interview guide. Further, already discussed in the reflection on the theory of change model, the model merely took the positive impacts into account which is not credible as far as this research is concerned. Hence, it seemed appropriate to review the academic discourse about the impacts of tourism on destinations (see paragraph 3.2). These impacts were also considered whilst designing the interview guide. Lastly, the principles of sustainable tourism (see paragraph 3.3) were also taken into account whilst designing the interview guide. The principles of sustainable tourism were also considered since this research previously concluded that the measurement of impacts is an intrinsic part of the broader process of sustainable tourism development. Especially the twelve aims for sustainable tourism as formulated by the UNWTO (see figure 3) turned out to be a handy tool whilst developing the interview guide. An example of the interview guide can be found in appendix 1 of this thesis.

First and foremost, it is crucial to point out that the questions formulated in the interview guide were generic in nature meaning that the interviewees were asked about the impacts of tourism *in general* on them and on the community in which they are active. This, instead of asking more specifically what impacts Footprint Travel has on them and on the community in which they are active. Unfortunately, this research was forced to ask questions that were general in nature, due to the fact that a significant part of the sample population was not familiar with Footprint Travel. These particular interviewees did not know of the existence of Footprint Travel, even though these interviewees conduct business activities in one way or another for Footprint Travel in Indonesia. This is because Footprint Travel collaborates with local partners which in turn implies that the interviewees are not employed by Footprint Travel but are employed by a local partner of Footprint Travel. Hence, this research reckoned that asking specific questions about Footprint Travel would not yield, in many cases, any or sufficient data. Some interviewees however, were aware of the existence of Footprint Travel. These interviewees were asked more specific questions as to what the impact of Footprint Travel is. All interviewees, whether familiar with Footprint Travel or not, were asked some general background questions at the beginning of the interview. These questions were asked in order to gauge to what extent the interviewee is affiliated with Footprint Travel. This is further described later in this subparagraph.

The main objective of conducting the interviews was to extract as much relevant information from the interviewees as possible. According to this research, two things are important in order to achieve this. First, it is important that the interview guide consists of open-ended questions which potentially can yield long, information-rich answers. Second, it is essential to create a setting in which the interviewee feels comfortable. The interviewer attempted to achieve this by making ‘small talk’ with the interviewee prior to starting the interview. In addition, in some instances the researcher already became acquainted with the interviewee when carrying out the participatory observation.

In practice, the interview guide only functioned as a tool which provided some kind of guidance throughout the interviews. Already covered earlier in this chapter, the interviews held were semi-structured in nature which allowed deviation from the interview guide. In reality, the list of question diverged from interview to interview depending on the circumstances. Some questions were not applicable in some instances and were, of course, omitted. For example, certain questions about environmental impacts (e.g. question about preservation of natural environment) were left out in case of the interviews with tour guides of the heritage walk in Bandung. The interview guide was fine-tuned after a couple of interviews as it became clear that some questions were not as relevant or too difficult and questions which were missing were added. In addition, the semi-structured nature of the interviews also allowed probing questions. This yielded a great deal of information. However, sometimes it was required to intervene in case the interviewee deviated too much.

From a practical point of view, it was attempted to keep the questions as simple as possible in order to increase the likelihood that the interviewees understand the questions. Nevertheless, several times it occurred that the interviewee did not grasp the questions. This demanded the rephrasing of questions which was oftentimes rather challenging. In some interviews, especially with interviewees with only an elementary level of English this happened a lot. As described in the previous subparagraph, a few interviews were held in collaboration with a translator. This research found out rather quickly that the use of a translator made it difficult to ask more complex questions. Therefore, this research has opted to keep these kind of interviews on a superficial level, rather than delving deep into subjects.

Generally, the interviews started off with a brief introduction of the interviewer and an explanation of the research topic. Subsequently, the interviewees were asked whether it was possible to record the interviews. All interviewees gave consent to this question.

Next, some questions with respect to the general background of the interviewee were asked. These included amongst others, questions about the position of the interviewee, the number of years working in tourism, the period of time working at the current job, the amount of time carrying out work on behalf of Footprint Travel, and whether the employee also works for other tourism organizations. These questions were raised in order to gauge the extent to which the interviewee is affiliated with Footprint Travel. Here, this research wants to shortly return to chapter 3 of this thesis. In the reflection of the first paragraph (Subparagraph 3.1.2.5), it was concluded that Footprint Travel fits best in the alternative development paradigm. Based on the literature, this would imply that the activities employed by Footprint Travel generally would compromise smaller-scale, scattered, and low-density developments (Brohman, 1996). Moreover, it would mean that strategies of Footprint Travel mainly would include ‘responsible’, ‘soft’, ‘appropriate’, ‘green’, ‘controlled’, ‘people friendly’ and ‘small scale’ traits (Awang et al., 2009). When taking the participatory observations into account, this research can firmly state that Footprint Travel falls within the alternative development paradigm as all the conducted participatory observations comply with the above traits. Considering this, this research makes the assumption that there is most likely not a lot of competition of other corporations that provide tourism

activities in the locations in which Footprint Travel is active. However, it would be dangerous to leave out other tourism parties that might be at play and to just simply attribute particular impacts to Footprint Travel. It is hence that in the first part of the interview questions are asked in order to gauge the extent to which the interviewee is affiliated with Footprint Travel. In turn, this affiliation with Footprint Travel gives already an indication to what extent the economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts which are discussed in the remainder of the interview are attributable to Footprint Travel's business activities.

The general background was followed by some general questions about the general experience and perception of the interviewees towards tourism. These involved, amongst others, questions about the general influence of being employed in tourism, the main advantages and disadvantages of being employed in tourism. The answers to akin questions painted a better picture of the attitude of the interviewees towards being employed in tourism and what they experienced as pros and cons of working in tourism.

After the general questions, a few questions were raised with the main objective to provide insights into the economic impacts. Questions like, amongst others, whether working in tourism has brought about changes in income, changes in standard of living, changes in cost of living and whether tourism has created jobs in their community were asked. These questions were raised with the aim to, *inter alia*, verify the long-term outcomes postulated in theory of change of Footprint Travel such as the generation of employment and the increase in local prosperity. In addition, questions were raised in order to deal with the potential negative impacts which came to surface in the academic discourse about impacts of tourism on destinations such as the seasonality of the interviewee's job and whether there has been an increase in the cost of living caused by the emergence of tourism. In addition, aim 1, 2, and 3 of the twelve aims for sustainable tourism (see paragraph 3.3) was taken into consideration while formulating the questions on the economic impacts of tourism.

After the economic impacts, questions were raised with concern to the socio-cultural impacts. These question were formulated in order to test some outcomes that emerged in the theory of change of Footprint Travel. For example, in this part of the interview it was asked what the influence is of tourism on the quality of life of the interviewee, what the influence is of tourism to the personal development of the interviewee, and whether tourism also provides opportunities for women. Furthermore, questions about other socio-cultural impacts were raised which came forth from the discussion on the impacts of tourism in chapter 3 such as questions about changes in lifestyle and whether the emergence of tourism has induced any criminal activities in the community.

The environmental impacts were discussed during the last part of the interview. The assumption that Footprint Travel makes a positive contribution towards the preservation of cultural heritage and nature was tested here. Questions such as what the effect is of tourism on the preservation of the built environment and the natural environment were raised. Furthermore, aim 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12 of the twelve aims for sustainable tourism (figure 3) were also taken into account when formulating the

questions on the environmental impacts of tourism. Complementary to this, potential environmental impacts derived from the review on the academic discourse about the impacts of tourism on destinations were used to prepare questions on the environmental impacts of tourism.

It is also pivotal to emphasize that this research has tried to ask so-called traditional causality questions (see Patton, 2012). For example, in case the interviewee talked about a certain impact he or she experienced, the interviewer would ask whether Footprint Travel had caused this impact or to what extent Footprint Travel caused this impact. This was done so that the interviewee could provide an indication of the extent in which the impact is attributable to Footprint Travel. However, one comment ought to be made with regard to this; in some instances it occurred that the interviewee was not working directly on behalf of Footprint Travel (e.g. the owner of the *warung*) which consequently meant that the interviewee was not familiar with Footprint Travel.

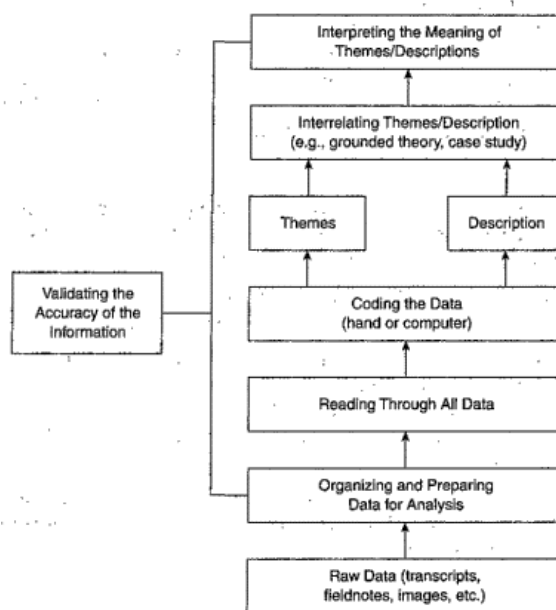
The last question which concluded the interview was whether the interviewees had any comments or remarks. This gave them the chance to make any additions. Ultimately, the interviewee was thanked for his or her kind collaboration.

#### **4.4.7 Data analysis**

Already shortly discussed in the preceding subparagraph, the interviewees were inquired whether it was possible to record the interviews. Fortunately, all interviewees gave consent to this request. The recorded materials stemming from the conducted interviews were converted into textual materials. The process of transcribing the recorded materials proved to be quite an ordeal and some practical limitations came into play. All interviews were exactly transcribed which implies that also all stutters or ‘uh’ was included in the transcripts. This was done in order to obtain an as accurate as possible reproduction of the recordings. This research agrees with Saunders et al., (2009) who remark that this way of transcribing an interview recording is extremely time consuming. Investing a great amount of time however seems justifiable as this research reckons that transcribing the interviews more broadly does not suffice and possibly jeopardizes the accuracy of the representation. There is the lingering danger of omitting something relevant. The transcription process was also time consuming in some instances, because of excessive background noises which compelled the research to listen to certain data several times. In addition, and important to mention, some interviewees did have a limited level in English. DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree (2006) argue that transcribers are often forced to make judgement calls. Unfortunately, in some instances this research had to make judgement calls during the process of transcribing.

Basically, the first step of the analysis involved reading through all the data. This, in order to get a general sense of the information and to contemplate on its overall meaning (Creswell, 2009).

The second step goes deeper into details, whereas the first step of the analysis remained at a general level. This detailed analysis entails a coding process.



**Figure 9: Data analysis in qualitative research. Creswell, 2009**

Coding is the procedure in which the material is broken down into more manageable chunks (Welsh, 2002). Saunders et al., (2009) call this process ‘categorizing data’. In this process, categories are derived from the data or from the theoretical framework and are utilized in order to arrange the data and provide structure which is all the more necessary in the further analysis of the data (ibid.). This research has used the software program ATLAS.ti as a tool to do this. The codes used in this research were mainly based on issues of recurrence of particular words or topics, similarities and contrasts, and comments related to the literature study on tourism and development carried out in chapter 3. Codes used in this research are, amongst others, economic impacts, socio-cultural impacts and environmental impacts.

Some researchers criticize the process of coding qualitative data as it seems to neglect the context (Maxwell & Miller, 2008). As a response to this, Creswell (2009) proposes an extra coding round with the aim of generating a description of the setting or people. This research has also endeavored, where possible, to add an explanation about people, places, or events in a setting. The relationship between the interviewee and Footprint Travel are described here. Furthermore, it is explained what the position of the interviewee is and where he or she is involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia.

Deviating from the sequence of steps proposed by Creswell (2009), another round of coding is conducted in which it is merely focused on the impact of Footprint Travel. In other words, all the segments of texts that may provide an indication of the extent to which changes are attributable to Footprint Travel are coded in this round. Moreover, in the last paragraph of this chapter (4.5 Other key influencing factors) it is discussed that the interviewees were specifically asked during the interviews to identify other potential explanations that may cause a particular change (Ellis, 2015). These other explanations that were considered throughout the interviews are coded in this round as well.

After the three rounds of coding, the codes that have been generated are reflected upon. Subsequently, it is determined which codes are the most significant to this research. In addition, the number of codes is reduced through the assemblance of several codes. In this research, the following themes are considered to be the most important: income, promotion, the volatility of the supply of clients, diversification strategy, demonstration effect, personal development, influence on cultural authenticity, empowerment of women, local prosperity, the natural environment, and infrastructure and amenities.

Ultimately, Creswell (2007) states that is important to indicate how the researcher plans to convey the findings. According to him, the narrative passage is the most popular technique to use to convey findings. This approach is also used by this research. In chapter 5 (Findings), a detailed presentation of the various themes, including subthemes, numerous perspectives from individuals, and quotations, is perpetrated.

With concern to the field notes generated through the participant observations it is crucial to denote that the data generated by the participant observations is deliberately kept apart from the data produced through the conducting of the interviews. This is done considering the inherently subjective nature of participant observations (as discussed by Mack et al., 2011). To put it differently, the data produced by the participant observations is incorporated in the analysis, but this research puts less weight to these findings.

## **4.5 Other key influencing factors**

The following equation was formulated in the paragraph on the contribution analysis:

Contribution claim= a verified theory of change + other key influencing factors accounted for (Mayne, 2011: 273)

Mayne (2011) contends that it is reasonable to conclude that a program in question has made a difference in case the researcher can verify a theory of change with empirical evidence, and account for the major influencing factors. In the previous paragraph it is extensively outlined how this research intends to verify the theory of change. Logically, this paragraph is devoted to provide an explanation as to how this research plans to account for other key influencing factors.

According to Delahais & Toulemonde (2012), it is crucial to briefly acknowledge the contextual factors that may surround the observed change in order to be able to make a contribution claim and to give an indication of the strength of the contribution claim. Further, Dybdal et al., (2012) note that influencing factors are contextual factors that either drive or hinder the process driving the intended change, and they accordingly either reinforce or diminish this process. Furthermore, Mayne (2001) point out that it is pivotal to explore and discuss plausible alternative explanations. This, in order to remain credible and to deal with those who are skeptical of the extent to which certain changes are attributable

to the program. He advances by noting that explicitly dealing with alternative explanations is oftentimes the best way of supporting an argument backing the program's impact. This encompasses recognizing the most probable alternative explanation, to account for whatever argument or evidence you have and, if appropriate, to discount these alternative explanations. By all means, one may have to conclude that the exact contribution of the program remains unknown in case there is little proof that counters alternative plausible explanations (ibid.).

#### **4.5.1 Methodological limitations**

In spite of the ostensibly importance of dealing with alternative explanations in the contribution analysis, only little attention has been allocated to the question of how to scrutinize alternative explanations and influencing factors (Dybdal et al., 2012). Hence, the contribution analysis methodology is in great need to be improved to achieve its potential, especially when the distinguishing of influencing factors is concerned (ibid.). In the same vein, Lemire (2010) contends that there is no operational framework or discussion that addresses what it really implies to account for other influencing factors. Consequently, it frequently occurs that contribution claims are easily challenged as minimal attention is paid by evaluators to the investigation of alternative explanations. In turn, a more careful consideration of potential alternative explanation would reinforce the credibility of the developed contribution claims (Lemire et al., 2011). This view is supported by Stocks-Rankin (2014), who asserts that the elaboration of influencing factors as well as alternative explanations which endorse causal claims turn out to be challenging in practice. Accordingly, evaluators are left in the dark as to how to make credible contribution claims (Dybdal et al., 2012).

In the absence of an operational framework or discussion, this research makes use of an article written by Ellis (2015) who proposes a few means in which to address the issue of accounting for other influencing factors. She describes as a way to deal with other influencing factors is to consult key informants to identify alternative possible explanations. This technique is also employed in this research. During interviews, interviewees were asked whether they could think of other factors at play which might have influence on the corresponding impact. In the subparagraph on the data analysis (4.4.7), it was already mentioned that an extra coding rounded was held specifically for the identification of other influential factors. This way, this research hopes to gain better insights into other influential factors which in turn should lead to a better ruling of whether 'plausible association' is obtained or not.

## 5. Findings

In this chapter the results of the empirical study of this research are presented. It is important to denote that the facts discovered in the empirical research are merely reported in this chapter. Consequently, these findings are not yet discussed as it is generally not appropriate to begin to offer opinions on the facts in the chapter on the results (Saunders et al., 2009). More concrete to this research, this implies that the themes that emerged most prominently throughout the empirical research are discussed in chapter 6 (analysis) and it is determined here whether contribution claims can be made (or not).

As earlier stated (see subparagraph 4.4.7 Data analysis), the transcripts of the interviews were analyzed by employing the software tool *ATLAS.ti*. This analysis yielded several themes that were most pervasive throughout the interviews conducted with persons associated with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia. Creswell (2009) contends that the basic process of reporting the results of a qualitative research is to create themes and descriptions from the data and to exhibit these themes and descriptions in a way which convey various outlooks from interviewees and comprehensive descriptions of the setting. The key themes are reported in the following sequence. First, the policy of the local partners of Footprint Travel in Indonesia is explained. Second, the key themes pertaining to the economic impacts are presented. Third, the most prominent themes with regard to the socio-cultural impacts are delineated. Fourth, the most distinguished themes with respect to the environmental impacts are portrayed. At last, in the theme ‘Role of Footprint Travel’ it is presented what the interviewees have said in particular about the role that Footprint Travel plays in the impacts that are discussed during the interviews. In addition, a description of the context of the interviewee is made by making use of the field notes that have been generated in the participant observations.

### 5.1 Philosophy local partners

A total of three interviews were conducted with owners and managers of offices of local partners of Footprint Travel. During these interviews, this research acquired a better understanding of the adopted policies of these local partners. It is important to briefly touch upon these policies as Footprint Travel tightly collaborates with these local partners. Consequently, Footprint Travel is dependent upon (to some extent) the *modus operandi* of their local partners and their policies should de facto correspond with the policy of Footprint Travel (as carried out in chapter 2).

The owner of Tari Travel, Irene, was interviewed in Makassar, South Sulawesi. Footprint Travel has multiple excursions of Tari Travel incorporated in its program for Indonesia and is a local partner since 2011. Ever since its inception in 2002, Tari Travel has always had the intention to keep its excursions small-scaled. Irene accentuated this by stating

‘At the core of Tari Travel’s policy lies the belief that excursions must be appealing for the clients and simultaneously must bring benefits to local communities. As a result, Tari Travel is always in search of ‘small tools’ that can enrich the traveler’s experience and that can benefit the locals that take part in it. For example, we contemplate about whether it is feasible to incorporate a ride in a pedicab in a certain excursion or whether



it is possible to integrate a local meal at a local family's house in another excursion. We have, from the outset, put the emphasis on community-based tourism, because we like the synergy that comes into being between locals and travelers. In addition, we aspire to provide eco-friendly excursions' (Personal communication, November 11, 2016)

A small remark was added by Irene. It is rather hard to sell travels with merely excursions that comply with the above. According to the interviewee, two reasons underlie this. First, akin excursions turn out to be costly. For example, travelers can't get a local lunch at a local family for only 2 or 3 euro. Such excursions are more expensive as locals make an extensive dish especially for you and they have to make a profit on it. Second, in many cases travelers want to visit the big and more famous attractions. For instance, if you are travelling Java, you are going to want to see the Borobudur and Prambanan temples. In many cases a balance has to be found between incorporating community-based tourism excursions and the more commercial excursions in order to sell travels. After all, it is not sustainable either in case no excursions are sold at all. As a response to this, Irene maintained

'In those situations Tari Travel endeavors to add a 'sustainable component' to the excursion. Take the Prambanan temple. This has not much to do with community based tourism. Be that as it may, people most likely have this on their to-do list. Instead of rushing the Prambanan temple and surroundings by car, we have chosen to do this excursion in a more adventurous and personal fashion; by bicycle.' (Personal communication, November 11, 2016)

It is evidently clear that the focus of Tari Travel is on small-scale and community-based tourism. At the end of the interview, Irene was asked what happens in case a certain destination of an excursion changes and becomes more popular and crowded. In other words, what does Tari Travel do in case a certain excursion does not comply with its policy (as carried out above)? The interviewee elaborated on this question by making reference to a community-based excursion of Tari Travel in the Maros regency in South Sulawesi. This excursion is also included in the program of Footprint Travel (see subparagraph 4.4.4 for more details).

'For quite some time we offer excursions to a small, local village situated just outside the Bantimurung national park of the Maros Regency. The national park is poised to be on the UNESCO list of World Heritage Sites. The village also harbors a great number of prehistoric limestone and has a lot to offer in terms of nature. The excursion we provide here involves a hike along the limestone and through the rice fields, a lunch at a local house, and a short expedition with a rowing boat down the river. For a long time this village remained undiscovered. However, nowadays it seems as though more tourism organizations have discovered this place. As a result, locals expand a variety of activities in order to take advantage of this greater influx of visitors. Consequently, this brings about changes in the destinations. For example, whereas locals used rowing boats in the past to transport tourists down the river, nowadays locals have built wooden motorboats to do the same. We have said from the beginning; we don't want motorboats, we just want to paddle. We will consider scrapping the excursion from our program or look for another place, in case akin developments persist.' (Personal communication, November 11, 2016)

A similar response was given by Nadia, manager at ViaVia, a local partner of Footprint Travel in Yogyakarta. Nadia argued

‘Our policy is to stop going to places that are subject to changes which potentially jeopardize the authenticity of the place. Initially, we make clear in case we don’t like certain changes to places which are part of our program. For example, the owner of a homestay on a hill close to Borobudur texted me about the developments of the house and I had to tell her we didn’t like it.’ (Personal communication, November 22, 2016)

A vivid illustration of an excursion organized by ViaVia is the so-called culinary tour. This excursion is included in the program of Footprint Travel for Yogyakarta. The culinary tour entails a ride on the back of a motorcycle with a local guide which takes you to, inter alia, a warung (small family-owned business) , a local cookie factory, a local ‘snack market’, and to several other spots where local specialties are tried (Observation, November 22, 2016). The aforementioned culinary tour perfectly portrays the general concept that ViaVia has as argued by the interviewee. This general concept places high value on the encounter between its clients and the local people and is committed to visiting the most authentic places. Moreover, ViaVia has applied, right from its inception, affirmative action of women. The interviewee commented that, at the moment, approximately 70% of the employees of ViaVia are female.

Dina, the branch manager of Khiri travel, local partner of Footprint Travel in Lombok, was also interviewed. Khiri travel coordinates various excursions in Lombok which are incorporated in Footprint Travel’s program. Such excursions encompass for example, a visit to a traditional Sasak village in Tetebatu including a ‘Sasak lunch’ at a local family, a visit to the weaving village Pringgasela, and a panoramic walk close to the Rinjani volcano (Observations, November 15 and 16, 2016). Dina briefly touched upon the philosophy of Khiri Travel by contending

‘Khiri Travel attempts to involve locals in its business activities and tries to keep its excursions and such small scaled. To illustrate, we deliberately choose for local people with a car as drivers, rather than making use of a big touring bus. This approach makes excursions more personal and better service can be provided this way. In addition, this way local people can generate income and also benefit from our activities.’ (Personal communication, November 17, 2016)

## **5.2 Economic impacts**

The economic impacts of tourism on the destinations of Footprint Travel are elucidated in this paragraph of the chapter. The themes that emerged most prominently during the conducted interviews are explicated here.

### **5.2.1 Income**

In the theory on the economic impacts in tourism (subparagraph 3.2.1) it was proposed that tourism has the competency to expand employment opportunities (Kreag, 2001). Archer et al., (2005) contended

even more bluntly that it seems as though tourism is more effective than other industries in generating employment and revenue and it appears that tourism is particularly efficient in this in less developed regions of a country. Other opportunities for development are more confined and therefore tourism can make a significant impact in these areas.

When the interviewees were asked what the main benefit is of being employed in tourism, the majority commented that it gives them the chance to work and consequently to generate income. Kevin, a interviewee who exclusively works for Tari Travel (and thus also for Footprint Travel) and who operates, amongst others, as a local guide for the community-based excursions in the Maros Regency in South Sulawesi noted

‘Those people who are involved in this business....well get a better income. Yeah...I think the most important for here is the income...that is good. We have the chance to make money and from here we can support our family.’ (Personal communication, November 10, 2016)

Similarly, Putri, a female interviewee who works as a local tour guide in Senaru and who handles the excursion to a traditional Sasak village, asserted

‘The change in income is really important. Before we had less income when we were farmer because the harvest was only five months per year...but now it is more income.’ (Personal communication, November 16, 2016)

The vision of Putri is complemented by Jonathan, a local tour guide who carries out multiple community-based excursions for Tari Travel in the Toraja region in South Sulawesi. He contented

‘Working in tourism is not as hard as working as a farmer....And the income is better’ (Personal communication, November 12, 2016)

In addition, a small number of those interviewed suggested that being employed in tourism offers the chance to get extra income in the form of tips next to their fixed income. Reza, a driver of, amongst others, Footprint Travel clients on Java and Bali expatiated on this by arguing

‘Nowadays we drive clients around Java and also Bali without a guide. This means that we can get in closer contact with our clients. I try to provide the best service I can during trips that sometimes last eight days. So usually they give more if they are satisfied with our service.’ (Personal communication, November 23, 2016)

In general, the above citations are a representative display of what the majority of interviewees think is the most important advantage of being employed in tourism. However, it is important to keep in mind that the perceptions of the interviewees with respect to the opportunity of employment and the generation of income are not quite as clear-cut as shown above. This became evidently clear when the problem of seasonality in tourism (the volatility of the supply of clients) came to light. The volatility of the supply of clients is elucidated later in this paragraph.

A variety of perspectives were expressed when the interviewees were asked to what extent communities generate income from community based tourism activities. Some interviewees argued that it is crystal clear that community based tourism activities bring income to communities while others were less optimistic of the degree of income that flows to communities as a result of community based tourism activities. Generally, the interviewees who were positive had the belief that locals can now sell their products not only to other locals, but also to tourists. A local tour guide called Satria who guides a cycling trip through multiple local villages around Senggigi (in the program of Footprint Travel) shared this belief by claiming

‘Not only people who directly work in tourism benefit.....Not only them jaaa....but other people will get profit from tourism. For example, I go to the small market with my guests. They can sell their products to them jaaa? So they don’t work in tourism, but they still get benefits from tourism.’ (Personal communication, November 17, 2016)

Another interviewee became more specific. David, a host serving local meals to, amongst others, Footprint Travel guests and also in charge of a community project (see picture 1) in his village Pringgasela, situated in the east of Lombok. He maintained

‘This community is specialized in the weaving of sarongs, scarfs and so on. In Pringgasela we benefit from the tourists who come here, because now we can also sell our weaving products to them. In the past we only sell our products to the local people....and that is with a standard price, a lower price....but now we can ask more and make more profit on it and we now have a lot of order from Europe. So this means more profit and we spend all the profit from this on community projects.’ (Personal communication, November 15, 2016)

Be that as it may, not all interviewees shared the positive belief that community based tourism activities contributes to a destination’s profits, sales and income. A small number of interviewees indicated that the extent to which communities benefit from tourism activities is highly dependent upon the quantity of tourists that visit the particular place. This is clearly delineated by Jonathan, a local guide active in the Toraja region on behalf of Tari Travel. He pointed out

‘During our excursions we always stop at a Toraja house in a small village where a local family serve us a traditional Toraja dinner. Of course they have some income from that and they are really glad about this. But this income is not steady or not much, because it is still small-scale...not a lot of people visit this place. We need extra. In case more people come here, more people benefit.’ (Personal communication, November 12, 2016)



**Picture 1: Weaving in Pringgasela. Source: own.**

The above contention signifies the importance of the scale of tourism when talking about the benefits of community-based tourism to communities. Some other interviewees stated that the influence of community-based tourism activities in terms of income is miniscule. This became apparent during the interviews with Fariz and Stella in Surakarta, Java. Stella is the owner of a family business specialized in the production of ‘rice prawn crackers’. The production site is a stop during the cycling trip (part of Footprint Travel’s program) through various small villages in the periphery of Surakarta (Observation, November 24, 2016). During the conversation, Stella argued that the reception of tourists does not directly yield more income. Fariz, an employee at a manufacturer of alcohol for pharmaceutical use (Observation, November 24, 2016) and also a stop of the cycling trip in Surakarta pointed out exactly the same. Instead of a higher income, both interviewees highlighted that the receiving of tourists offers them the opportunity to promote their product. This was also articulated by Anas, owner of a *warung* in Yogyakarta and a stop during the culinary tour organized by ViaVia (Observation, November 22, 2016). When he was asked whether the culinary tour brings in more income he claimed

‘Jaaa, it makes a difference. Because some tourists they will euhmm....you know they will write the experiences and upload it on the internet...on Facebook on Google and everything. And people euhmm like to find information from the internet so yeah..it makes a difference. Also some Javanese they say: ‘I see your warung in blogs and a lot of tourists come here’. And then jaaa...that is why it makes more interesting to them to come here.’ (Personal communication, November 22, 2016)

The potential of community-based tourism activities to promote local businesses is further elaborated in the next subparagraph.

### **5.2.2 Promotion of local businesses**

Even though not extensively discussed in the previous chapters, the theme ‘promotion of local businesses’ recurred frequently throughout the interviews. Several interviewees stressed that the reception of tourists gives them the chance to promote a place or a product. For example, the significance

of receiving tourists is underscored by Kevin, employed as a tour guide for the community-based excursion in the Maros Regency in South Sulawesi. He insisted

‘It is important that this area now receives tourists. We try to provide good service to our visitors so that they can recommend us. When we make a good reputation, people may recommend us. Maybe more people will come to here.’ (Personal communication, November 10, 2016)

Rodi is the owner of a small coffee manufacturer and the last stop of the hike through the rice fields of Tetebatu, Eastern Lombok. Tourists stop at Rodi’s place and participate in the brewing of Lombok coffee (see picture 2). During an informal conversation (Observation, November 15, 2016), the owner asserted that Tetebatu is a place which is still undiscovered. He continued by stating that, despite of the limited number of people that reach this place, he can promote his coffee to those tourists who do. In addition, Rodi argued that most inhabitants of Tetebatu are not yet aware of the opportunities that tourism may provide them and usually do not know how to cater to tourists.



**Picture 2: Coffee workshop in Tetebatu. Source: own.**

Already briefly touched upon in the previous subparagraph, several interviewees underlined the chance tourism provides them to promote a particular product or service. This is eloquently amplified by Stella, the owner of the family business specialized in the production of prawn crackers from rice. She said

‘I wish that tourism can support this production. To get a better market, that is it. The coming of tourists is quite important because when I get tourists over I can introduce my product to other people and these people will know that this product is not made from something bad and will not be afraid to eat it....It is not coming from a bad ingredient, but it is made of rice and we process it correctly’. (Personal communication, November 24, 2016)

In the same vein, yet slightly different, Fariz stated the following during the interview on the distillation site:

‘Besides the distillation of alcohol for pharmaceutical use we can also manufacture an alcoholic beverage. This beverage is much easier to produce, because the percentage of alcohol on this beverage is only 30% whereas the percentage on the product for pharmaceutical use is much higher (Observation, November 24, 2016). In Indonesia, this beverage is illegal, because we are a Muslim country. Maybe one day we can export this product in case tourists come here and become familiar with this beverage. Then we can increase production. Because there is no way that this is going to be legal in Indonesia.’ (Personal communication, November 24, 2016)

A somewhat different perspective is explicated by Anas, owner of a *warung* in Yogyakarta and part of the culinary tour of ViaVia. He contended

‘Tourists of ViaVia make a stop in our warung and get a workshop of how to make lotek (traditional food). So we can share the local food. It is important for us to have these foreign tourists in our warung, because when local people see this they say: ‘Bule (white people) likes to eat lotek so it must be delicious jaa’. This is good promotion for my warung actually. If you talk about business. Everywhere you can find warungs and there are new warungs almost every day. The competition is really tough in Yogja, so it is actually really good for my business.’ (Personal communication, November 22, 2016)

The above thoughts expound different perspectives of the potential ability that the receiving of tourists may have to promote a place, product, or service. A priori, the effectiveness of the promotion of a place, product or service is dependent upon the number of tourists business owners receive. Diverging from the theme promotion, in the next subparagraph the theme ‘the volatility of the supply of clients’ is further explained.

### **5.2.3 The volatility of the supply of clients**

In the subparagraph on the economic impacts of tourism on destinations (subparagraph 3.2.1) it was suggested that seasonality causes fluctuation in the number of tourists to a particular destination. At certain times destinations receive more tourists than they can house, whilst at other times there are not sufficient tourists to a destination (Lee et al., 2008). Consequently, locals may lose their job caused by the seasonality of work in tourism (Vehdi, 2012).

The vast majority of those who were interviewed remarked to be affected in one way or another by this volatility of the supply of clients. The amount of work in high season (generally from June until October) among the interviewees ranged from having enough work to being very busy. The interviewees were quite unambiguous with respect to the low season by commonly arguing that only a limited number of travelers come during the months outside the high season. Despite this evident consensus among the interviewees, there was a rather broad variety of perspectives as to what the implications are for them caused by this volatility of the supply of clients. For example one interviewee, named Robby, active as a local tour guide providing the cycling trip (also on behalf of Footprint Travel) on the fringes of Surakarta (Observation, November 24, 2016) contended

‘My income increases as more and more travelers come here. However, we have to survive in low season because during that period of the year only a very limited number of travelers come here. But we don’t mind, because this is what we are...as a tour guide, as people who work in tourism...we are totally aware that there is high season and low season.’ (Personal communication, November 24, 2016)

Another response was given by Daniel, a direct colleague of Robby. Daniel is also a local guide for the cycling trip through various small villages on the outskirts of Surakarta. During the conversation it became apparent that he sometimes struggles to deal with the seasonality of his job. He explained

‘I really like my job. But the problem is that sometimes we only have guests during the high season. For example, this month (November) we only have a few guests. That is why I asked some of the agents if it is possible to bring guests in another month, in another season. Like to get more tourists...Because mostly in Europe you have holiday at the same time. I don’t know, but maybe from somewhere else they can get more tourist in other months. Like now in low season, I have to think it over. For example, before I was also a teacher and my friend offered me a job as a teacher. But if I take this job I have to leave my job as a guide. So I have to consider: ‘do I take the job or not?’ This makes me confused.’ (Personal communication, November 24, 2016).

Several interviewees discussed a slightly different issue that is being caused by the volatility of the supply of clients. This issue was explained by Jonathan who functions as a local tour guide leading various community-based excursions for Tari Travel in the Toraja region.

‘In the peak season let’s say July, August and September I am quite busy. Even October is still okay, but the number of guests coming here starts to decline from this month on. In January for example, I have only one or two arrivals from Tari Travel. So let’s say in January I have only two to four days’ work. So basically I am only busy for three months a year and the other nine months are quiet. So it is really important to save money during the high season for other months. I try to really manage this. I have three children right now...sometimes it is really hard for me to manage this all.’ (Personal communication, November 12, 2016)

The above statement indicates the potential struggle that the seasonality in tourism can bring about to those involved in it. The majority of interviewees made clear that they also have another job besides their work in tourism. One rather extreme example of this was Farah, a local guide of the heritage walk organized by Bandung Trail. This cultural heritage walk (included in the program of Footprint Travel) entails a walk visiting the main cultural heritage sites in the city of Bandung. In addition, a local underground market, a local coffee house, and a ‘wayang puppet maker’ is visited during this heritage walk (Observation, November 21, 2016). Farah noted that during the holiday season there is a lot of international tourists coming to Bandung which means more demand for the heritage walks. However, the amount of work Farah can do as a local guide is still limited since clients for the heritage walk are equally shared among seven other local guides. Consequently, the amount of work for Farah outside the holiday season is miniscule as the demand is low and still has to be shared among the eight local guides employed by Bandung Trail. Farah continued by contending that her job as a guide at Bandung Trails is



basically a part-time job and can be seen as an additional job next to her job as a translator writing content for websites (Personal communication, November 24, 2016).

Another theme that emerged from the analysis is the theme called ‘diversification strategy’. This theme is further described in the following subparagraph.

#### **5.2.4 Diversification strategy**

In the subparagraph on the economic impacts of tourism on destinations, it was mentioned that many of the local people are subsistence fisherman or farmers in less developed regions of a country (Archer et al., 2005). Tourism can function as a diversification strategy for communities dependent upon only one industry (Kreag, 2001). In turn, the household income of those who become involved in the tourism industry has the potential to rise by a very large amount (Archer et al., 2005).

A reasonable number of interviewees related during the interviews to the above discourse about tourism as a diversification strategy. The most lucid response was given by Putri, a local tour guide who carries out community-based excursions to a traditional Sasak village in the north of Lombok. She told

‘In the past, before tourism, we were only farmers. But now we can also be a guide and earn some extra income. So now we get more income and from here we can save some money for our family jaa...This, even though we only have clients for three months a year. Now, we can support our children to go to school for example. Before we depend on the harvest. If we harvest smoothly it is okay...if we don’t harvest smoothly we have a problem.’  
(Personal communication, November 16, 2016)

The response of Putri is perhaps a textbook example of using tourism as a diversification strategy.

On a more general level, Kevin talked about how tourism functions as a diversification strategy for the small, local village located just outside the Bantimurung national park of the Maros Regency in Southern Sulawesi (for more details see subparagraph 4.4.4 and paragraph 5.1). Already mentioned earlier, Kevin works exclusively for Tari Travel as a guide and carries out community-based excursions to this village. Kevin described that the community which is visited by Tari Travel used to heavily rely on farming and to a lesser extent on fishing. He went on by stating that the yield of their farming was predominantly for their own consumption. As for their fishing activities, it sometimes occurred that they caught more fish than needed for consumption. In such instances, they used to sell their surplus of fish and earn a little profit this way. Nowadays, members of this community expand activities as they notice that tourism can provide them additional income. One example is that some families try to anticipate on this by renovating their houses in order to cater to future tourists (Observation, November 10, 2016). Another example of this, as argued by Kevin, are the multitude of families constructing or having constructed wooden boat with the aim to transport future tourists. These are methods for them to earn additional income apart from farming and fishing (Personal communication, November 10, 2016). Another interviewee, Fajar, also alluded to the notion of diversification strategy. Fajar is a local guide

who performs activities on behalf of Tari Travel in Sulawesi in, amongst others, Toraja, Makassar, and Bira. He said

‘I work as a farmer besides my work as a tour guide. I don’t have euhmm...an average income every month from tourism but the work in tourism gives me a really good income when you compare it with when I was only a farmer. So I am really glad to have this job. It is not only good for myself. For example, the local family we visit during our excursion in Toraja also benefit from the tourists who visit their house. They can serve a traditional Toraja lunch to the tourists who visit them and they can make some special income this way. Before they were also only farmers and now they can get a little extra income from this.’ (Personal communication, November 13, 2016)

The above outlooks paint a picture of the ways in which tourism can act as a diversification strategy for people. In this paragraph the themes with respect to the economic impacts that surfaced most conspicuously are elaborated upon. Some themes however, did not emerge prominently from the analysis. These themes are briefly mentioned in the next subparagraph.

### **5.2.5 Other economic impacts**

In the subparagraph one the economic impacts of tourism on destinations it was suggested that tourism can contribute to a destination’s profits, sales, jobs, tax revenue and income. Hence, the interviewees were also asked how tourism has influenced the profits, sales, jobs, tax revenue and income of a destination. As one can notice, this question was dealt with, to a very limited extent, in the last paragraph. However, it turned out that this question was too complex in nature as the vast majority of interviewees found it hard to give a coherent answer.

The interviewees were also asked the question about the influence of tourism on the cost of living in communities. Earlier in this thesis (subparagraph 3.2.1), it was proposed that tourism can potentially create a greater demand for goods and services which consequently may cause an increase in the cost of living (Andereck et al., 2005). A broad variety of answers were given with regard to this question. Some interviewees argued that prices have not changed at all because of tourism whilst other claim that prices in fact have changed because of tourism. Other interviewees stated that prices have in fact changed, but this is not caused by tourism. Other factors than tourism are underlying (e.g. inflation). Despite the intricacy around this topic, an appealing point was made by Daniel, a local guide of, amongst others, the cycling trip in Surakarta. He emphasised on the importance of the scale of tourism by contending

‘I don’t think that the prices have changed in Solo (Surakarta) because of tourism. So I can say if we like to buy something it is still reasonable for us here in Solo. Here it is not like in Bali where prices have become really high, also for locals. In Solo it is still the same...Maybe because...still not a lot of tourists come here.’ (Personal communication, November 24, 2016)

### 5.3 Socio-cultural impacts

The socio-cultural impacts of tourism on the destinations of Footprint Travel are illuminated in this paragraph of the chapter. The most pervasive themes with regard to socio-cultural impacts from the analysis are discussed here.

#### 5.3.1 Demonstration effect

In the subparagraph on the socio-cultural impacts of tourism on destinations (subparagraph 3.2.2), it was stressed that the blending between tourists and locals potentially may lead to the development of improved lifestyles and habits through the alleged demonstration effect. Tourism is perceived as a foundation from which locals and tourists can learn from each other through direct interaction (Bâc, 2012).

The demonstration effect was brought up during the interviews by the lion's share of the interviewees. These interviewees did not exactly mention the designation 'demonstration effect', however their discourse clearly can be placed under the caption 'demonstration effect'. Remarkably, the great majority of interviewees referred to the demonstration effect by positing that the encounters between locals and tourists have a positive influence on the environment. More specifically, they argued that tourists have taught them to keep the environment clean which basically implies that locals have stopped throwing garbage randomly on the ground as a result of the encounters with foreign tourists. This was epitomized by Fajar, employed as a local guide for Tari Travel. He carries out several excursions in Sulawesi. Fajar mentioned

'I am glad, because I learn more from the tourists about the...how to take care about the environment. Don't throw the plastic away. Before I didn't know about this. I didn't care about this. But now, I tell other people: 'don't do this, because this is our land, this is our home.' Only I really euhm...really wish even more and more tourists come here so that local people learn from them how to take care of the environment.' (Personal communication, November 13, 2016)

In addition, other examples of the demonstration effect were provided throughout the interviews, apart from akin descriptions like the above. Satria for example, active as a local tour guide and who carries out a cycling trip through several local villages around Senggigi in Lombok, explained

'I learn from my guests to be healthier. For example, people from Europe don't take organs from buffaloes or from cows for their meals. Yeah I learn from European people that this is not good for your health.' (Personal communication, November 17, 2016)

Another example was presented by Daniel, who functions as a guide for the cycling trip through several local villages on the fringes of Surakarta. He construed

'I learn a lot yeah...I can learn from the guests. For example yesterday, I explained about 'kaneel' during my tour. One of my guest told me that in the Netherlands they use 'kaneel' to treat diarrhea. Really!! We use the

guava leave when someone has diarrhea for example. So sometimes we have things, but we don't know the function of it. Yeah, so we can learn from each other.' (Personal communication, November 24, 2016)

The above thoughts of the interviewees shed light on the demonstration effect that can come about through the encounters between tourists and local people. It seems as though the demonstration effect is merely positive when reading the above thoughts. However, the demonstration effect can, as noted in the subparagraph on the socio-cultural impacts of tourism on destinations, prompt a shift in local consumption patterns towards Western products which may entail locals wearing different clothes, eating different food and assuming different general lifestyles and attitudes (Sandeep & Vinod, 2014).

A mixture of views were expressed when the interviewees were inquired whether tourism has an influence on their lifestyle and that of others in the community in which they are active. Some interviewees asserted that the lifestyle of some locals has changed as a result of tourism. For instance, Putri talked about lifestyle in a traditional Sasak village in Senaru:

'Some younger people here in the village have a different lifestyle. For example, some girls put make up on, paint their hair, and wear Western clothes. They wear more revealing clothes.... Some even have a tattoo! Some children here in the village just like it more funky, more like...living like Western people. But that is okay, we don't mind. It is only the younger people who change, the older generation stays the same. We stay strong...'  
(Personal communication, November 16, 2016)

Several other interviewees declared that the lifestyle of people has changed, but add to the equation that this is more because of television and the internet than because of tourism. This point of view was illustrated by Pandu who is employed by Tari Travel and active as a local tour guide in the Toraja region in Southern Sulawesi. He maintained

'Before, a lot of Torajanese only wore a sarong. But now this is changing, everybody use jeans now. This is not because of the tourists, but because we see it from the television.' (Personal communication, November 13, 2016)

Some interviewees expressed the belief that tourism has not changed the lifestyle of local people at all. Several interviewees stressed that they, but also the other people in the community, still wear the same clothes and eat the same food. Several interviewees argued that their traditions are strong and these will not change easily.

Another extreme was articulated by Farah, a local guide of the cultural heritage walk in Bandung. She told

'I think tourism hasn't changed the lifestyle here in Bandung. Actually for me it is the opposite I would say. I have to promote the local culture during the walks through Bandung so I wear more like euhm...traditional clothes. I wear traditional batik. So I try to wear more things that represent the local culture instead of...'  
(Personal communication, November 20, 2016)

The above perspectives and citations demonstrate that there are profoundly different views amongst the interviewees regarding the influence of tourism on the lifestyle of the interviewees and that of others in the community in which they are active. An intriguing and possibly clarifying point was made by Dina, branch manager of Khiri travel – the local partner of Footprint Travel in Lombok. She explained

‘Maybe we get a little bit more Western minded. But I think this really depends on the particular place. For example, in a rich, tourist area it changes a lot, because they get a really big impact from tourists. People in Gilly or in Senggigi all wear Western clothes and they drink beer even though that is not our culture....not at all....But I think that the lifestyle has not changed that much in places where not a lot of tourists go to.’ (Personal communication, November 17, 2016)

A variety of perspectives of the interviewees with regard to the impact of the encounters between tourist and locals are presented in this subparagraph. The focus of this subparagraph was on the demonstration effect that can come into being through encounters between tourists and locals. The demonstration effect is not the only impact stemming from these encounters. The theme called ‘personal development’ is another theme that prominently emerged from the analysis and which possibly may be caused by the encounters between tourists and locals as well. This theme is further explained in the following subparagraph.

### **5.3.2 Personal development**

Previously in this thesis (subparagraph 3.2.2), it was pointed out that tourism demands local communities to be more conscious and cultivated in order to provide quality service to tourists (Bâc, 2012). Locals are encouraged to acquire certain skills in order to achieve the provision of quality service. As a result of this, tourism can be an instigator of structural transformation in the form of the transfer of new ideas and the distribution of human capital such as bilingual and skilled workers (Skerritt & Huybers, 2007).

To clarify, the theme ‘personal development’ is in many cases closely related to the theme ‘demonstration effect’. However, this research has purposefully opted to make two separate themes as there is a demarcation between the two themes. Abstractly spoken, both the theme ‘demonstration effect’ and the theme ‘personal development’ can refer to the generation of knowledge by locals *through* the encounters with tourists which in turn may alter the behavior of locals in one way or another. However, the theme ‘personal development’ goes further than this and can also refer to the fact that tourism may function as an incentive for locals to acquire particular knowledge and skills in order to be better able to cater properly to tourists.

When the interviewees were asked about the influence of tourism on their personal development, the preponderance commented that being employed in tourism has a positive effect, in one way or another, on their personal development. Multiple perspectives were provided with regard to the question about personal development.

Several interviewees maintained that tourism has made them more aware of the importance of a clean environment. This, obviously has a strong interface with what was discussed at the beginning of the subparagraph on the demonstration effect. However, the response of Adrian went further than the demonstration effect. Adrian, an English speaking driver who is active on behalf of Khiri Travel – the local partner of Footprint Travel in Lombok stated

‘My knowledge has increased because of tourism. I have learned a lot, especially from my clients. For example, they taught me how to take care of the environment. In the future I would like to have more tourists here in Lombok, because that is good for my income. But we have to think about how to protect our environment....euhmm because otherwise our nature will be gone and tourists will say: ‘ow, there is nothing to see in Lombok’. Tourists will not come to Lombok anymore in case that happens.’ (Personal communication, November 18, 2016)

Diverging from this better environmental awareness amongst the interviewees, a substantial share of the interviewees claimed that tourism plays a major role in their ability to speak English. This was embodied by Fajar, a local guide who carries out several excursions on behalf of Tari Travel in Southern Sulawesi. He explained

‘In the past, I only knew how to speak Torajan and Bahasa. But now I also know how to speak English. I have been trying to improve my English ever since I came into contact with foreign tourists’ (Personal communication, November 13, 2016)

A similar point was also expressed by Adrian. He contended

‘When I finished senior high school, I started working for a cleaning service. But after a while I decided to quit. My work as a driver is the second job I have. But before I got this job I knew that I needed to practice my English. For quite a long time, something like two and a half years, I went to tourists attractions here in Lombok to speak English with foreign tourists in order to improve my English.’ (Personal communication, November 18, 2016)

Not only those directly involved in tourism want to learn or improve their English, but also children are encouraged to learn English as argued by some interviewees. A lucid example of this was given by Daniel, a tour guide who performs the cycling trip in Surakarta, Java. He explained

‘Some people living in this small village start to notice that working in tourism is a good way to earn money. So some of these people push their children to study English...or Dutch.’ (Personal communication, November 24, 2016)

The above citations exhibit that tourism can be some kind of incentive for locals to start learning English or to improve their English. Similarly, the vast majority of interviewees indicated that they are able to improve their English *because* of their encounters with tourists. For example Reza, a driver of, amongst others, clients of Footprint Travel throughout Java and Bali said

‘I learn my English by doing. Because every day I practice and practice and sometimes clients correct me if I make a mistake. Besides, I’m starting to learn ‘een klein beetje’ Dutch, because I think more than 90% of the clients of Footprint Travel come from Holland. So I can understand what they say, but for me it still difficult to make a sentence.’ (Personal communication, November 23, 2016)

The above quotation is one example that displays the positive effect that the interplay between tourists and locals can have on the ability of locals to speak a foreign language. In addition, several interviewees suggested that they accumulate knowledge of other cultures and countries. This was typified by Kevin who serves as a local guide providing community-based excursions in the Maros Regency in South Sulawesi. Kevin explained that, apart from improving his ability to speak English, he can also exchange information with his clients and this way he can learn things about other places. He continued by stating that through the encounters with tourists he has learned that Europe has four seasons and that it can be very cold in Europe in some months. He concluded by saying that meeting tourists is good for his knowledge of other places (Personal communication, November 10, 2016). A similar response was offered by Fariz, an employee at a producer of alcohol for pharmaceutical use and a sight during the cycling trip in Surakarta, Java (Observation, November 24, 2016). He maintained that tourists who stop at the manufacturing site make their work more interesting. The manufacturing site is normally rather quiet and the tourists change this. Fariz carried on by contending that they are always curious about the background of their visitors. As a consequence, we always start asking questions about where the visitors are from and how their country is like. ‘This way we learn about the cultures of cold countries’ as argued by Fariz (Personal communication, November 24, 2016). This curiosity about other cultures came also up in some other interviews. The response of Stella provides a good illustration of this. To recap, Stella is the owner of a family business specialized in the manufacturing of ‘rice prawn crackers’ and a stop during the cycling trip through different small villages on the outskirts of Surakarta (Observation, November 24, 2016). She pointed out

‘We usually stay here in the village and we don’t meet many new people. So for us this is a great way to meet new people and to learn about other cultures. Because not only the visitors are curious about what we do, but we are also curious about them. We are interested why visitors come here and from which country they come. We ask questions like: ‘how is the weather in your country?’, ‘do you have children back home?’, ‘why didn’t you bring your children with you?’ We try to have a conversation with them. This is how we learn about their culture.’ (Personal communication, November 24, 2016)

The last citation already provides an indication that the interviewee has a positive attitude towards the tourists she receives. The theory of change model of Footprint Travel is developed in the second chapter of this research. In this model it became clear that Footprint Travel provides an elaborate briefing which should enhance the encounter between tourist and local. As a result of this, local people will continue to serve their clients with a positive attitude. Hence, the interviewees were asked what their attitude is towards tourism.

The great share of interviewees asserted to still have a positive overall attitude towards tourism. The majority of interviewees argued that most of their clients behave appropriately and are generally well aware about the different mores that prevail in a particular context. It happens very rarely that clients do not behave accordingly which as a consequence lead to awkward situations. Strikingly, a few interviewees mentioned the exact same problem they sometimes come across. This was most lucidly explained by Stella. She outlined

‘Sometimes our visitors are not dressed appropriately when they come here. Local people will stare especially when girls wear short pants or open clothes. So sometimes it is like euhmm...people don’t dress properly in order to visit villages which are still traditional.’ (Personal communication, November 24, 2016)

Another theme that emerged from the analysis is the theme called ‘influence on local culture’. This theme is further described in the following subparagraph.

### **5.3.3 Influence on cultural authenticity**

It became apparent in the subparagraph on the socio-cultural impacts of tourism on destinations (subparagraph 3.2.2) that there is still no consensus among academics with regard to what influence tourism has on local cultures. On the one hand, there are those who believe that tourism degenerates local culture (Bâc, 2012). On the other hand, there are those who contend that tourism has the ability to provide an incentive to revitalize and preserve local culture (Higgins-Desboilles, 2006).

The changes in lifestyles caused by tourism are already discussed with the interviewees earlier in this paragraph (subparagraph 5.3.1 demonstration effect). The subparagraph dedicated to the changes in lifestyle caused by tourism is closely related to what is discussed in this subparagraph as far as this research is concerned. This, because the lifestyle of people is an essential part of local culture. Consequently, changes in lifestyle of local people can have implications for the authenticity of the local culture. Be that as it may, this research has decided to put the theme changes in lifestyle in the subparagraph on demonstration effect. This is done, because it became clear from the academic discourse that the themes demonstration effect and changes in lifestyle are closely intertwined. However, the theme changes in lifestyle has also a strong interface with this subparagraph.

A great variety of perspectives were articulated when the interviewees were inquired what the influence of tourism has been on the authenticity of local culture.

A few interviewees claimed that tourism has no influence whatsoever on the authenticity of the local culture. This is exemplified by Dimas, a local tour guide working for Tari Travel and operative in and around Makassar, Southern Sulawesi. Dimas is in charge of the community-based excursion which involves a cycling trip through multiple small villages on the outskirts of Makassar with stops at a local school, a coffee break at a local *warung*, a visit of a local wedding and a lunch provided by a local family at the end of the cycling trip (Observation, November 11, 2016). Dimas argued



‘The local culture does not change at all in the villages that I visit with my clients. It stays the same. We only come here for a short amount of time and then we leave again.’ (Personal communication, November 11, 2016)

Several other interviewees provided a slightly different perspective by saying that local cultures have in fact changed, but not because of tourism. They maintained that other factors are at play here. For example Pandu, a local tour guide who performs, amongst others, community-based excursions in Southern Sulawesi, said the following:

‘No, I don’t think that the local culture here in Toraja has changed because of tourism. It has changed, but this is because the religion has changed. In the past, many Torajanese people used to believe in Animism, but many of these have become Christian. So that has changed. But there are still people in Toraja who believe in Animism and who carry out traditional rituals like a funeral ceremony. This is good for me as a guide, because this is good entertainment for my guests. So I am lucky if there is a ceremony when I have guests in town. The funeral ceremonies here are not held in order to entertain the tourists like in Bali. The ceremonies are also held without the tourists.....’ (Personal communication, November 13, 2016)

However, a small number of those interviewed proposed another view compared to the above posited views. They maintained that some aspects of the local culture at destinations are rejuvenated because of tourism. Fajar for example, a direct colleague of Pandu and also working on behalf of Tari Travel in the Toraja region, claimed that the funeral ceremonies have not changed since the tourists visit them. The contrary is the case according to Fajar, as locals try to preserve their traditions wherever they can ever since they have become aware of the opportunities that tourism might bring them. He continued by arguing that many Torajan families have tried to keep their house authentic in order to remain attractive to tourists (Personal communication, November 13, 2016). For example, the authenticity of the Torajan houses is preserved by making use of bamboo as a material to make a roof instead of making use of iron. This, despite of the fact that a roof made from bamboo is much more expensive than a roof made from iron. In addition, it takes approximately ten times longer to construct a roof made from bamboo compared with a roof made from iron (Observation, November 12, 2016). The above view of Fajar corresponds with the view that was previously given by Farah (see subparagraph 5.3.1 demonstration effect).

A minority of interviewees pointed out that tourism has a negative influence on the authenticity of local culture at destinations. They claimed that the authenticity of the local culture diminishes because of tourism. This was also asserted by Putri, a tour guide who conducts community-based excursion to a traditional Sasak village in Northern Lombok (see picture 3). She insisted

‘The government has also become aware of the economic opportunities tourism can provide in Lombok. I always visit a traditional Sasak village called Senaru village with my clients. A short time ago, the government has subsidized the construction of a concrete path in this village. This concrete path was built in order to cater to the tourists. This way the tourists don’t have to walk through the mud when they visit the village. I am not happy with this new path, because it does not fit here. The government has no idea how to preserve the local

culture (Observation, November 16, 2016). This concrete path does not have a good effect on the authenticity of this village.’ (Personal communication, November 16, 2016)



**Picture 3: New concrete path in the traditional Sasak village in Senaru. Source: own.**

The contention of Putri demonstrates a strong negative sentiment towards the construction of the new concrete path since this new path jeopardizes the authenticity of the village. A path of sand would better fit in the image of the village as a tourist attraction, as far as Putri is concerned. Unfortunately, this research was not able to ask other villagers as to how they look at this new concrete path. It can't be assumed, a priori, that all villagers live in discontent with this new concrete path. For example, villagers who are not employed in tourism might perceive this new concrete path as positive and convenient as it has become easier to transport their products. Be that as it may, this subparagraph takes the influence of tourism on the cultural authenticity into consideration. Continuing with this, a few interviewees also believed that tourism can have a negative effect on the authenticity of local culture. However, they added an important remark to this suggestion by maintaining that the influence of tourism on the authenticity of local culture highly depends on the scale of tourism. This is vividly expressed by Adrian, an English speaking driver of, amongst others, Footprint Travel guests in Lombok. He detailed

‘I think that the authenticity of Lombok has changed. Especially in areas like Mataram and Senggigi, because these areas receive a lot of tourists and have become very commercial. But other areas in Lombok don't receive that much tourists and are still authentic. The authenticity of Tetebatu for example is still the same, because this is still a small-scale destination. Not a lot of tourists visit this place.’ (Personal communication, November 18, 2016)

As one can easily notice, a big disparity of perspectives appeared from the analysis with regard to the influence of tourism on the authenticity of local culture. Another theme that surfaced from the analysis is the theme named ‘employment of women’. This theme is further elaborated in the following subparagraph.

### 5.3.4 Empowerment of women

In the subparagraph on the socio-cultural impacts of tourism on destinations, it was proposed that women are often excluded from jobs in tourism and in turn miss out on the corresponding benefits (Scheyvens, 2000). However, it was also maintained that, in contrast to large-scale tourism, smaller-scaled forms of tourism seem to make less of a distinction based on gender (Tucker and Boobabaana, 2012). In turn, tourism initiatives with the emphasis on small scales and communities offer the best potential to enhance the lives of women (Scheyvens, 2000).

The vast majority of interviewees responded positively when they were asked whether tourism has also provided opportunities for employment for women. In general, the interviewees believed that men and women get equal chances of becoming employed in tourism. Nonetheless, there were some minor discrepancies which are important to take notice of among the responses of the interviewees.

The majority of interviewees held the view that women have at least equal chances, if not better chances, to become employed in tourism. Already described previously in this chapter (paragraph 5.1), it was said that Footprint Travel's local partner in Yogyakarta, ViaVia, has employed affirmative action of women. Nadia, manager and local guide of the culinary tour of ViaVia in Yogyakarta, elaborated on this by stating that ViaVia has the idea of positive discrimination which implies that a maximum limit of 30% men of the total of employees is adopted by ViaVia (Personal communication, November 22, 2016).

In the same vein, Putri also talked about the chances women get to work in tourism. Putri is a tour guide active in Senaru, Lombok. In addition, she also functions as a teacher for girls who aspire to become a tour guide. Putri plainly described

'So I am a guide and I also provide the trekking up to the Rinjani volcano. In 2000 I started a project with the aim to get more women involved with tourism in Senaru. We invite girls to come to our organization when they have finished school and then we educate them to become a guide. There are still much more men who work as a trekking guide here in Senaru. However, we are one of the first organizations in Lombok who provide trekkings with female guides. Because euhm....in our culture it is very rare that women do this kind of work. We have four women now who are able to do the trekking all the way up to the Rinjani volcano. In addition, we have several other women who can function as tour guides for shorter, 'less advanced' trips such as the excursion to the traditional Sasak village. Such trips are only a half day work, but that is enough for them and this is good for their independence.' (Personal communication, November 16, 2016)

A similar, yet slightly different perspective was given by Kevin, a local tour guide and employee of Tari Travel in Southern Sulawesi. He postulated

'Approximately 90% of the employees of the travel agency where I work is female. So mostly women occupy positions in the office of the travel agency. However, this does not apply to all functions. For example, there are not a lot of women working as tour guides. These are still mostly men.' (Personal communication, November 10, 2016)

Multiple other interviewees also accentuated that not all positions can be filled by women. In some cases it is simply not appropriate or accepted for women to hold certain tourism positions. Pandu, a local guide employed by Tari Travel and operative in the Toraja region in Southern Sulawesi, maintained that tourism provides women the chance to become employed and obtain a job as a waiter in a restaurant for instance. However, he carried on by stating that only very few women are active as a tour guide. This, because the trekking is perceived as being too hard for them (Personal communication, November 13, 2016). A different example was rendered by Reza, a driver of, among others, Footprint Travel customers on Java and Bali. He elucidated

‘Generally, women have equal opportunities as men when it comes to getting a job at Tari Travel. However, some jobs are not common for women. Like my job...It is not common here in Java for women to be a driver. Because we still have the tradition that drivers are men.’ (Personal communication, November 23, 2016)

Another interviewee, named Farah, complemented the thought of Reza. Farah is a female tour guide of the heritage walk in Bandung. She also asserted that in some cases there is still a stigma attached to women working in tourism. However, she advanced by denoting that it really depends on the context in which one is embedded and exemplified her point by pointing out the difference between perceptions in the countryside and city: ‘In the countryside, people tend to be more conservative and women are supposed to stay at home and to take care of the children and family. People are more open-minded here in Bandung and it is no obstacle for me to have a job as a tour guide’. (Personal communication, November 20, 2016)

The above outlook shed light on the opportunities of women to become employed in tourism. Another theme that surfaced from the analysis is the theme named ‘local prosperity’. This theme is further explained in the following subparagraph.

### **5.3.5 Local prosperity**

In the theory of change model of Footprint Travel (chapter 2), it was suggested that tourism also has an effect on the prosperity of local communities. The rise of income because of tourism has possibly spillover effects such as, amongst others, better education for children, access to better healthcare, and the capacity of locals to deal with setbacks.

During the interviews, the interviewees were asked whether tourism has influenced the prosperity of them and of others in the community in which they are active. Unfortunately, it turned out to be a difficult question to answer as several interviewees struggled to give a clear answer. As a consequence, many answers remained rather vague and not appropriate to use in the analysis. Despite of this fairly poor response on this subject, some responses are presented here. This is done, because the long-term effect called ‘an increase in local prosperity in local communities through tourism’ is a crucial component as demonstrated by the theory of change model of Footprint Travel.

A variety of answers were expressed amongst those who were able to give an answer to this question. Some interviewees mentioned that the increase in income as a result of their work in tourism has offered them and their families' access to other benefits. These benefits, as discussed by the interviewees, correspond to what was called 'spillover effects' in the theory of change model of Footprint Travel. A mixture of spillover effects surfaced during the interviews. A few interviewees indicated that they are able to send their children to school. For example Kevin, a local guide carrying out community-based excursions in the Maros Regency in South Sulawesi, explained

'I have more income because of my work in tourism and I can support my family to go to school for example. I can now afford to send my son to university in Java, which is quite expensive (Observation, November 10, 2016). Besides this, I was able to buy a piece of land and to renovate my house with my income from tourism' (Personal communication, November 10, 2016)

A similar example was already provided in the subparagraph on the diversification strategy (see subparagraph 5.2.4 citation Putri). Another point was made by Reza, an English speaking driver who is active in Java and Bali. He pointed out

'I was able to buy a motorbike and I have renovated my house because of my job in tourism. It is only me who is working, my wife stays at home. So the money just comes from me.' (Personal communication, November 23, 2016)

The view of Adrian, an English speaking driver who operates on behalf of Khiri Travel in Lombok, diverged from the examples of spillover effects which were provided in the theory of change model of Footprint Travel. He stated

'Before, at my previous job, I was not able to buy good t-shirts and good shoes. I could not afford perfume. But now I can. So now I wear nice t-shirts, nice shoes, and use perfume. This is also important for my job, because I have to serve my clients. My appearance has become better...I have to look handsome now hahaha....' (Personal communication, November 18, 2016)

Contrary to the above, some of the interviewees were less optimistic by holding the view that tourism has not influenced their prosperity. Similarly, some other interviewees argued that being employed in tourism has not yet influenced their prosperity, but added that their work in tourism might have a positive influence in the future.

Other interviewees stated that their prosperity has changed. However, not because of tourism, but because of other factors. For example Hardi, an English speaking driver of, amongst others, clients of Footprint Travel throughout Java and Bali emphasized on the sheer difficulty of determining whether working in tourism has an influence on his and his family's prosperity. He contended that the access to health care and education has become better for him and his family. However, he added that this is not

due to the income he generates from tourism, but this is because of the subsidies that are granted by the government of Indonesia (Personal communication, November 23, 2016).

As one can observe, deviating responses were giving with respect to the question whether tourism has influenced the prosperity of the interviewees. Moreover, not much was said by the interviewees about the influence of tourism on the local prosperity of others in their communities. This, along with the overall poor response on this subject need to be taken into account in the analysis (chapter 6).

The themes with regard to the socio-cultural impacts that emerged most discernibly are amplified in this paragraph. Some themes however, did not emerge prominently from the analysis. These themes are briefly mentioned in the next subparagraph.

### **5.3.6 Other socio-cultural impacts**

In the subparagraph on the socio-cultural impacts of tourism on destinations, it was claimed that tourism can accommodate a beacon of criminal activities Cooper et al., 1998). Hence, the vast majority of interviewees were inquired whether tourism has induced criminal activities, illegal drug use and excessive drinking in their communities. All of those interviewees who were asked answered with a concise 'no'. Nevertheless, one cannot firmly conclude that tourism does not induce criminal activities merely based on the judgement of the interviewees. In the future, one can scrutinize this theme in a more rigorous manner by, for example, obtaining data from the local police at tourism destinations or by conducting interviews with local police at tourism destinations.

## **5.4 Environmental impacts**

The environmental impacts of tourism on the destinations of Footprint Travel are spelled out in this paragraph of the chapter. The themes that emerged most prominently during the conducted interviews are amplified here.

### **5.4.1 The natural environment**

In the subparagraph on the environmental impacts of tourism on destinations (subparagraph 3.2.3), it was delineated that tourism may increase awareness of the importance of nature and this may result in environmentally responsible behavior and actions to maintain the environment (Sunlu, 2003). In addition, tourism produces a financial incentive which makes sure that certain natural sites are maintained properly (Swarbrooke, 1999).

In the previous paragraph (see subparagraph 5.3.1 demonstration effect), it was already elaborately outlined that the vast majority of interviewees claimed that the tourists have taught them, through the so-called demonstration effect, to keep the environment clean. Moreover, in the subparagraph on personal development (subparagraph 5.3.2), it was also described that several

interviewees maintained that tourism has made them aware of the significance of a clean environment. Both statements are analogous to what is conferred by Sunlu (2003).

In line with Swartbrooke (1999), some interviewees argued that they have become aware of the importance of maintaining the natural environment. They acknowledged that the influx of tourists will most likely decline in case they are not able to preserve the natural environment properly. This was clearly embodied by Irene, the owner of Tari Travel and the local partner of Footprint Travel since 2011 in Sulawesi. She said

‘It is absolutely a positive side effect that local guides are more and more committed to keeping the environment clean. They tell others to clean up the litter or they start doing it themselves. Because they know if they don’t do this they will lose clients. They realize that they have to comply with certain requirements in order to maintain the inflow of tourists.’ (Personal communication, November 11, 2016)

The contention of Irene is perfectly resembled by Fajar, a local tour guide who conducts activities on behalf of Tari Travel in Sulawesi. He stated

‘We try to keep the environment clean here in Toraja. Because we understand that if we keep it in good shape more visitors will come and that means income for us. Before we didn’t really care about this. We just threw our plastic on the ground. But now we are starting to care. Even some of us go out to clean places and to take the plastic.’ (Personal communication, November 13, 2016)

In spite of the seemingly positive effects of tourism on the natural environment as explained above by several interviewees, it was uttered earlier in this thesis (see subparagraph 3.2.3) that tourism does not merely have positive effects on the natural environment. For example, as noted by Vehbi (2012), tourism activities can have the potential to impact the natural environment in plenty of ways and can have severe detrimental effects to ecological areas.

When the interviewees were asked about the negative effects of tourism activities on the natural environment, the majority commented that the tourism activities in which they are involved render no or hardly any negative effects on the environment. The vast majority of interviewees started talking about waste pollution when the above question was raised. In turn, many interviewees expressed the belief that foreign tourists are not to blame here, but the locals themselves. Dimas for example also accentuated this. Dimas is a local guide employed by Tari Travel who provides, among other things, a cycling trip through a local village on the outskirts of Makassar in South Sulawesi. Several stops are made during this cycling trip such as a stop at a local elementary school, a stop at a ‘watermelon farmer’, and a stop at a local house for lunch (Observation, November 11, 2016). During the interview, Dimas clarified that the local village has a problem with waste pollution. He argued: ‘The river here is polluted because some local inhabitants throw their waste in the river. Not by foreign tourists, but by locals.’ Dimas continued by declaring that the cycling excursion he provides has no adverse environmental effects as far as he is concerned (Personal communication, November 11, 2016). Dimas’ view was

complemented by Jonathan, a local tour guide who conducts multiple community-based excursion for Tari Travel in the Toraja region. He claimed

‘The negative influence of our tourism activities on the natural environment here in Toraja is not big I think. This is because the tourism activities we provide are still on a small scale. We have some problems with waste pollution. But this problem is caused by the locals. Foreigners know how to take care of this.’ (Personal communication, November 12, 2016)

Be that as it may, not all interviewees were merely optimistic about the impact of tourism on the natural environment. A small minority of interviewees mentioned some negative environmental impacts of tourism on the natural environment. It seems that there is a consensus among this small minority of interviewees that the scale of tourism is of sheer importance when talking about the adverse effects of tourism on the natural environment. This was exemplified by Satria. Satria, a local tour guide who provides a cycling trip through multiple local villages (in the program of Footprint Travel) around Senggigi argued the following:

‘Many hotels have been built along the coast of Senggigi. In the past, many spots in Senggigi offered beautiful views. Nowadays, there are not that many spots anymore where you can enjoy the view. Hotels or restaurants have been built at many places. But I don’t mind that much. We can’t reject this progress. There are still other places where we can enjoy panoramic views.’ (Personal communication, November 17, 2016)

A similar point was made by Adrian, an English speaking driver of, amongst others, Footprint Travel guests in Lombok. He stated

‘It really depends on the location. In Tetebatu for example, they try to keep it authentic. The impact on the environment is not big here because there are not that many tourists yet. But if you look at the western and northern part of Lombok it is much different. Especially in the tourists areas. For example if you are going to the Rinjani volcano you will see a lot of rubbish or plastic on the way up. Another example is Senggigi, they are building a lot of hotels here. This is good for the economy, but not so good for the environment.’ (Personal communication, November 18, 2016)

In a similar vein, Dina also quoted Senggigi while discussing the potentially adverse effects of tourism on the natural environment. To refresh, Dina is the branch manager of Khiri travel, the local partner of Footprint Travel in Lombok. She inferred that a lot of public space in Senggigi is being privatized. She continued

‘It has become quite an ordeal for local people to find a beach which has not yet become a private beach. Many beaches are not accessible to the public anymore. Take the beach in front of Sheraton for example. Locals are allowed to walk on this beach, but they are not allowed to lay down. This is really a pity, because many hotels have this policy. This way it is hard for the locals to find a spot where they can enjoy the beach.’ (Personal communication, November 17, 2016)



Another theme that emerged from the analysis is the theme called 'Infrastructure and amenities'. This theme is further clarified in the next subparagraph.

#### **5.4.2 Infrastructure and amenities**

Earlier in this thesis (subparagraph 3.2.3), it was maintained that tourism activities can lead to the development of transport infrastructure and local facilities (Zaei & Zaei, 2013). Likewise, in the theory of change of Footprint Travel it was stressed that facilities and amenities are constructed by locals in order to facilitate better to the visitors of Footprint Travel and that the locals can benefit themselves from these better facilities (see subparagraph 2.2.1).

Unfortunately, this research was not able to obtain sufficient information about whether better roads and better facilities are developed in order to cater to the tourists they receive. The only respondent who touched upon this during the interview was Kevin, a local tour guide who carries out, amongst others, the community-based excursions in the Maros Regency in South Sulawesi. He suggested

'During our excursion in the Maros Regency, we always visit a small, local village. Some inhabitants of this village now have a refrigerator so that they can serve cold drinks. Some even have built a private toilet in their house. The tourists that visit their house can now make use of this toilet, because before they didn't have this.'

(Personal communication, November 10, 2016)

On a more general level, the interviewees were asked whether tourism has brought about improvements in transport infrastructure. The vast majority of those who responded held the view that roads are built by the government at places that are visited by tourists. In other words, the government anticipates on tourism by constructing roads and making places more accessible. This view was lucidly conveyed by Jonathan, a local tour guide who performs multiple community-based excursions for Tari Travel in the Toraja region. Jonathan explained that the government is aware of the potential of tourism to generate income. He continued by stating that this is also the case for the Toraja area. 'The government spends a lot of money in order to improve the roads here and they are even building an airport to make Toraja more accessible to tourists' (Personal communication, November 12, 2016). The perceptions of the interviewees on the improvements of infrastructure were basically two-sided.

On the one hand, several interviewees praised the advancements in infrastructure caused by tourism. This view was plainly epitomized by Satria, a local tour guide who provides, amongst others, a cycling trip through various local villages in the vicinity of Senggigi. He stated

'Tourism has played a role in the improvements of infrastructure in Lombok. Now, everywhere you can find roads. Not only in the cities, but also in the small villages. Locals benefit from this, because they can more easily transport their products to the local markets for example.' (Personal communication, November 17, 2016)

On the other hand, some other interviewees were less optimistic about the improvements of infrastructure. They claimed that the authenticity of some places has diminished because of the

construction of paved roads. Their view closely corresponds to the view that was given by Putri (see subparagraph 5.3.3). Dina for example, branch manager of Khiri Travel in Lombok, indicated that in the past Khiri Travel had a hike to a traditional village in the east of Lombok in their program. She advanced by telling that clients visited this traditional village by foot as this remote village was not accessible by car. However nowadays, as stated by Dina, this village can be reached by car because the government has built a road to make it more accessible for all tourists (Personal communication, November 17, 2016). Pandu, employed by Tari Travel and operative as a local tour guide in the Toraja region, had a similar complaint

‘The roads have become better in Toraja. They have become better partly for tourism and partly for better transportation of goods I think. The department of tourism in Jakarta has invested a lot of money to develop roads here in Toraja. The ministry of tourism came here and they told us that it is important to build nice roads. In the past, there were many small paths where I could bring my clients for trekking. But now....excavators have made these paths bigger and they have built concrete roads here.’ (Personal communication, November 13, 2016)

The themes with respect to the environmental impacts that surfaced most evidently are expatiated in this paragraph. However, some themes did not emerge eminently from the analysis. These themes are shortly brought up in the next subparagraph.

### **5.4.3 Other environmental impacts**

In the subparagraph on the environmental impacts of tourism on destinations, it was contended that tourism may have a positive impact on the built environment because traditional buildings and cultural heritage are conserved (Kreag, 2001).

The interviewees were also asked whether the receiving of tourists has an impact on the preservation of the built environment in the areas in which the interviewees are active. Only a very small number of interviewees responded to this question. Unfortunately, this implies that this research was not capable to gather ample information about the impact of receiving tourists on the preservation of the built environment. Notwithstanding, a very few interviewees argued that in some cases the locals try to maintain the traditional features of their private property in order to attract tourists. Here, this research wants to refer to the subparagraph on the influence of cultural authenticity (see subparagraph 5.3.3). In this subparagraph, it was already advocated by Fajar that locals try to keep their Torajan house as authentic as possible by making use of bamboo, rather than making use of iron. A few interviewees held the view that some locals grasp that the maintenance of their house in traditional shape for example is pivotal in order to stay appealing to tourists.

Nevertheless, the majority of the small group that responded emphasized on the role the government plays in maintaining traditional buildings and cultural heritage. As per these interviewees, the Indonesian government takes properly care of buildings that can be considered as popular tourists

attractions. The emphasis here is put on popular tourists attractions. For example Reza, a driver of, amongst others, clients of Footprint Travel on Java and Bali argued that the important buildings are conserved by the government. During the interview, Reza mentioned Yogyakarta as an illustration. He explained that popular tourist attractions like the Kraton and Malioboro Street are particularly maintained in Yogyakarta by the government (Personal communication, November 23, 2016). Another interviewee, named Hana, provided also a clear description of this. Hana is a local guide of the heritage walk organized by Bandung Trail. The cultural heritage walk (incorporated in the program of Footprint Travel) involves a hike visiting the main cultural heritage sites in the city of Bandung. She pointed out

‘The government has really tried and is still trying to preserve the traditional buildings in Bandung. This way, the government makes sure that Bandung is still able to show traditional and historical sights. During our heritage walks, we make use of the by the government properly maintained historical sights. So I think that Bandung Trails maybe plays a small role in the promotion of these traditional sights in Bandung, but I don’t think that these sights are maintained because of us. So I don’t think we have that much impact when it comes to the preservation of the traditional sight that are part of the cultural heritage walk of Bandung Trails.’ (Personal communication, November 20, 2016)

## **5.5 Role of Footprint Travel**

Respectively the economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts are presented in the previous paragraphs of this chapter. In subparagraph 4.4.6 (Interview strategy) it was stated that the questions on the impacts prepared in the interview guide were rather generic of nature as a substantial part of the sample population was not familiar with Footprint Travel. It was also argued that, in contrast to the majority of interviewees, some interviewees were aware of the existence of Footprint Travel. These specific interviewees were asked more explicit questions as to what the role of Footprint Travel is. Moreover, in the previous chapter (subparagraph 4.4.7 Data analysis) it was proposed that an extra round of coding was conducted in which the emphasis was solely put on the impact of Footprint Travel. In this paragraph it is illuminated what the interviewees have explained about the role that Footprint Travel plays in the impacts that were discussed in the previous paragraphs.

The lion’s share of those interviewees familiar with Footprint Travel’s business activities in Indonesia reasoned that Footprint Travel has the strength to bring clients which consequently provides them work and gives them the opportunity to generate income. Some interviewees became more specific and argued that Footprint Travel has the capacity to deliver clients to places which are not (yet) well-known among foreign tourists. This was lucidly typified by Hana, a local guide of the heritage walk coordinated by Bandung Trail. She explained

‘Footprint Travel is important for us, because we operate with them. I don’t think that many international tourists know that we exist. Footprint Travel has the heritage walk of Bandung Trail in its program and it is partly thanks to them that international tourists partake in our heritage walk.’ (Personal communication, November 20, 2016)

In line with the above statement, the majority of interviewees acquainted with Footprint Travel talked about the significance of the promotion of places and excursions and the role that Footprint Travel plays in this. A clear contention of this was given by Rendy, a PhD student in heritage tourism and community-based tourism and founder of Bandung Trail, the coordinator of the heritage walk in Bandung. He advocated

‘Footprint Travel has provided a platform for guests to have local experiences and contacts with local people. Through ‘go local’ tours, guests are also introduced to local economies and commodities, such as local markets, food enterprises, eating places, etc.’ (Personal communication, August 29, 2016)

Another interviewee, Pandu, also referred to the role that Footprint Travel plays in the promotion of places that are not (yet) well-known. Pandu, a local tour guide who conducts, inter alia, community-based excursions in Southern Sulawesi expressed his gratitude towards Footprint Travel for their efforts to promote the Toraja region in the Netherlands. He added that generally not much attention is paid to the Toraja region. ‘Mostly, the emphasis is put on places with big attractions like Bali and Borobudur.’ (Personal communication, November 13, 2016)

More specific, Irene talked about the competence of Footprint Travel to adequately position itself as a travel agency specialized in small-scale and community based tourism and, more importantly, to reach a rather big target audience interested in akin travels. As earlier discussed (paragraph 5.1), Irene is the owner of Tari Travel - local partner of Footprint Travel in Sulawesi, Indonesia. Irene outlined

‘I reckon that the strongest point of them is the ability to convey the message of where Footprint Travel stands for and how they think that travels should look like. This is nicely and effectively done on their website. This way, they are able to reach and attract a large number of people which are also interested in the smaller scale tourism activities and the close contacts with locals and local communities. So their marketing is effective which enables them to reach the right audience and to sell travels which they fully support. So in this way, they are capable to send a rather steady number of customers that make use of excursions in our program. This in turn helps to sustain particular excursions and, ideally, to further develop or improve these excursions.’ (Personal communication, November 11, 2016)

## 6. Analysis

The results of the empirical study of this research were presented in the preceding chapter. The in the previously reported findings of the empirical research are analyzed in this chapter. More specific, this implies that the impacts that surfaced most distinctly are analyzed and it is determined whether contribution claims can be made (or not). In addition, in this chapter it is reflected upon the limitations of this research, and more importantly, what the implications of these limitations are for the validity, reliability and credibility of the inferences that are made in this research.

### 6.1 Contribution claims Footprint Travel

In light of the research objective of this thesis (postulated in paragraph 1.3), it is analyzed in this paragraph whether the observed outcomes are attributable to Footprint Travel's activities. To recap (consult chapter 4 for more information), it is important to bear in mind that the contribution analysis opts for compelling evidence of contribution, rather than direct attribution or causality (Mayne, 2001). In turn, a contribution claim tells you something about whether a program made the difference as predicted and a contribution claim can be constituted when resolving the following equation:

Contribution claim= a verified theory of change + other key influencing factors accounted for (Mayne, 2011: 273)

The overall ambition is to obtain the so-called 'plausible association': whether a reasonable person would agree from the evidence that the program has made a significant contribution to the observed result (Mayne, 2011). In this respect, Patton (2012) maintains that the evaluators ought to construe the evidence that is gathered. Ultimately, the evaluator must rule the extent to which this evidence backs a conclusion of contribution: great, substantial, some, little, or none. Evidently, the contribution claims that arise in this chapter provide an answer to the second sub question of this thesis. This question was postulated as follows:

**What is the impact of the business activities of Footprint Travel at its destinations in Indonesia?**

Four annotations have to be made previous to the analysis about the contribution claims of Footprint Travel.

First, it is imperative to highlight that Footprint Travel fits in the alternative development paradigm based on the literature (discussed in chapter 3) and the participatory observations (see subparagraph 4.4.4). That is to say, the business activities employed by Footprint Travel generally compromise smaller-scale, scattered, and low-density developments. Taking this into account, this

research makes the assumption that there is most likely not a lot of competition of other corporations that provide tourism activities in the locations in which Footprint Travel is active. Be that as it may, it is still paramount to highlight that Footprint is not the only actor implying that there is a likelihood that other tourism organizations, whether foreign or domestic, provide similar travels and excursions to destinations in Indonesia where Footprint Travel is active. As a consequence, all interviewees also operate on behalf of other tourism organizations besides Footprint Travel. During the interviews, a few background questions were raised with which it was attempted to gauge the extent to which the interviewee is affiliated with Footprint Travel (see subparagraph 4.4.6). Unfortunately, this degree of affiliation with Footprint Travel among the interviewees remained rather opaque and varied from interviewee to interviewee. Nevertheless, based on the answers of the interviewees to this background questions, it can be hypothesized that the great majority of interviewees also carry out activities on behalf of other tourism organizations. Subsequently, it can be presumed that these other tourism organization also contribute to the engendering of the impacts that are analyzed in the remainder of this chapter. For the sake of convenience, this potential contribution of other tourism organizations in the generated impacts on the interviewees is designated as ‘sectoral contribution’ in the rest of this chapter.

Second, already earlier expounded (paragraph 5.1), Footprint Travel tightly collaborates with local partners in Indonesia who accordingly also have a part in the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts that are generated through the travels and excursions that are sold. Earlier in this thesis (see subparagraph 2.2.1) it was contended that Footprint Travel allocates a lot of time and money in order to conduct surveys at potential destinations in Indonesia. The primary objective of these surveys is to acquire knowledge of existing or future suppliers of tourism services appropriate for Footprint Travel. It was also maintained that travels and excursions have come into being in Indonesia through the intensive survey of Footprint Travel. Unfortunately, this research has not been able to collect data which demonstrates the role of Footprint Travel as the developer of excursions on-site in Indonesia. Considering the interviews with the local partners of Footprint Travel, it can be presupposed that the preponderance of excursions are developed by the local partners of Footprint Travel situated in Indonesia. To provide a few illustrations; the culinary tour in Yogyakarta is developed by local partner ViaVia, the cycling trip through a local village on the outskirts of Makassar was inceptioned by Tari Travel and the cycling trip through multiple local villages around Senggigi was initiated by Khiri Travel (see subparagraph 4.4.4). Footprint Travel incorporates akin excursions in their program and subsequently promote and sell these excursions. It is vital to accentuate this reciprocity between the local partners who, amongst others, develop the excursions and carry out the operational activities, and Footprint Travel.

Third, it is crucial to emphasize that the tourists who purchase the aforementioned travels and excursions also play a pivotal role in the bringing about of the impacts that are analyzed in the remainder of this chapter. The abovementioned tourism activities are contingent upon tourists who are interested in this tourism product and who are ultimately willing to pay a certain amount of money for this. After

all, akin tourism products are not viable and will cease to exist without this demand. In turn, the generation of impacts from these tourism products will stop as well. This potential contribution of tourists who buy and use these tourism products is entitled ‘tourists’ contribution’.

Fourth, it is imperative, once again, to emphasize that the contribution analysis lacks an operational framework with which evaluators can account for other key influencing factors (see subparagraph 4.5.1). Because of this, this research relies upon a method suggested by Ellis (2015) which entails the consultation of key informants in order to identify alternative possible explanations. During the interviews, interviewees were inquired whether they could think of other factors which might be at play and which potentially could influence the strength and credibility of the contribution claims.

The analysis and the determining whether contribution claims can be made (or not) is done systematically by adhering to the following sequence; starting with the themes for which the most evidence was found throughout the analysis and ending with the themes for which less evidence was found.

### **6.1.1 Footprint Travel –pivot between demand and supply**

As stressed of earlier in this thesis, unfortunately, only a limited part of the interviewees were familiar with Footprint Travel. Those interviewees who were in fact acquainted with Footprint Travel were enquired about the impact of Footprint Travel’s business activities in Indonesia. Bearing the small sample size in mind, caution must be applied when interpreting the results of those interviewees who were knowledgeable of Footprint Travel’s business activities in Indonesia.

Interestingly, the lion’s share of these interviewees suggested that Footprint Travel’s main competence is its ability to function as a platform that promotes and, more importantly, delivers a substantial amount of clientele to places which are not yet well known among Dutch tourists in Indonesia. Footprint Travel adequately positions itself as a travel agency specialized in small-scale and community based tourism and, in addition, has the capacity to reach the target audience interested in akin travels and excursions via, amongst others, their website, marketing efforts, and campaigns on social media. As a result, Footprint Travel sells a considerable quantity of small scale tourism travels and excursions in Indonesia (see for example paragraph 5.5 and table 1). **Accordingly, it is suggested by this research that Footprint Travel contributes to the sustaining of small scale tourism activities in Indonesia and it can conceivably be hypothesized that other economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts are generated at destinations of Footprint Travel in Indonesia as a result of this.**

### **6.1.2 Employment and income generation**

The expansion of employment opportunities and subsequently the generation of income are derived from Footprint Travel’s competency to promote and subsequently deliver a considerable amount of

clientele to places which are not known very well among Dutch tourists in Indonesia. In the result section of this thesis, it became apparent that the majority of interviewees found that the chance to work and correspondingly to acquire an income is the most important benefit for them of being involved in tourism.

It is crucial to remark that the vast majority of those who responded in accordance with the above were, in fact, directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel. More explicitly, this means that these interviewees generally occupied positions such as that of local tour guides and drivers of tourists. Earlier in this thesis (see subparagraph 4.4.3), a distinction was made between interviewees directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel and interviewees indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel. It was also shown that only a very small minority of interviewees were indirectly involved in the business activities of Footprint Travel. More concretely, the sample size of the empirical research of this thesis lacks variety meaning that almost exclusively tour guides and drivers were interviewed with only a few exceptions (see subparagraph 4.4.3.1). To recap, these particular exceptions were indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel meaning that these interviewees unfold activities in tourism, but it is not their core business (see Stella, Fariz, and Anas in subparagraph 4.4.4). The interviewees indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel argued that the reception of tourists does not yield more income, but has another important function (see subparagraph 6.1.5 promotion of local businesses). In addition, the interviewees were asked to describe the degree of income that flows to communities as a result of small-scale and community based tourism. Here, the general consensus among the interviewees was rather positive as they believed that locals can sell their products not only to locals, but also to tourists. However, it remains rather vague as to the extent to which people not directly involved in tourism benefit from these tourism activities. Let alone, the extent to which Footprint Travel plays a role in this. Hence, this research does not make any inferences when it comes to this.

Shifting back to the first subsection of this subparagraph which stated that the majority of interviewees surmise that the main advantage of being involved in tourism is the opportunity for them to work and consequently generate income. Here, it is pivotal to cite the previously named sectoral contribution which means that other tourism organizations also contribute to the bringing about of tourism activities from which the interviewees get the chance to work and generate income. In addition, it is also essential to take the earlier discussed reciprocity between the local partners and Footprint Travel into consideration. Accordingly, the local partners also play a part in the creation of tourism activities which gives the interviewees the opportunity to work and to generate an income. Moreover, the previously mentioned tourists' contribution ought to be acknowledged given the fact that these tourism activities are not viable and will cease to exist without the demand of tourists. Consequently, the tourists also play a role in the generation of tourism activities which gives the interviewees the chance to work and to generate an income. Be that as it may, **this research reckons that Footprint Travel**



**substantially contributes (see scale Patton, 2012) to the expansion of employment opportunities and subsequently the generation of income to those people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia.** This, considering the quantity of clients Footprint Travel delivers to the destinations in Indonesia in which those people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel are operative.

### **6.1.3 Diversification strategy**

Tourism can serve as a diversification strategy for communities depending on only one industry. A reasonable number of interviewees described to have another job, besides their job in tourism. The majority of these interviewees were employed as a farmer. However, also other jobs were mentioned by these interviewees. To illustrate, one interviewee also worked as a mechanic, one as a massage therapist and another one as a content writer for a website. Some of these interviewees explicitly argued that being employed in tourism makes them less dependent upon farming and they can, as a result of this, better deal with setbacks such as a disappointing harvest. In addition, some interviewees argued that some community members diversify their activities and anticipate on the visits of tourists by providing goods and services to the visitors (see examples provided in subparagraph 5.2.4).

Based on the above, this research reckons that tourism can function as a diversification strategy for people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel (e.g. tour guide, driver, etc.). Unfortunately, it is not feasible to extrapolate the above contention to other members in the communities in which Footprint Travel is operative due to the lack of variety in sample size of the empirical research of this thesis. In turn, this statement is only applicable to those people with the same traits as the interviewees – those people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia – and are not valid for people who are indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel (see for example Stella, Fariz, and Anas in subparagraph 4.4.4). Future research should be conducted to examine whether tourism also can act as a diversification strategy for people indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel.

Now, it is endeavored to detect Footprint Travel's role with regard to the begetting of the diversification strategy as explained above. First, it is of utmost importance to refer to the previously called sectoral contribution which means that other tourism organizations also play part in the inducing of tourism activities which can function as a diversification strategy. Second, it is fundamental to take the previously deliberated reciprocity between local partners and Footprint Travel into account. Correspondingly, the local partners also contribute to the generation of tourism activities which can serve as a diversification strategy. Third, it is important to accentuate the earlier cited tourists' contribution. The tourism activities which can function as a diversification strategy for interviewees will cease to exist without the demand of these tourists. **In consideration of the foregoing, this research believes that Footprint Travel substantially contributes to the bringing about of tourism activities**

**in Indonesia which can function as a diversification strategy for people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia.** Similar to what was discussed in subparagraph 6.1.2, Footprint Travel has the capacity to deliver a substantial number of clients to the destinations in which the interviewees are active. Accordingly, Footprint Travel makes it possible for the interviewees to earn an income from this. As argued above, a reasonable number of interviewees explained to have another job, aside from their job in tourism. These interviewees are, in all likelihood, less dependent upon the income of their other job due to the extra income that can be generated from the work they do on behalf of Footprint Travel.

#### **6.1.4 The volatility of the supply of clients**

The volatility of the number of clients that interviewees receive was an issue often cited during the interviews. The majority of interviewees seemed to have plentiful work at particular times, while at other times they hardly receive any clients. All of the interviewees who referred to the issue of seasonality were people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel. Therefore, these findings can't be extrapolated to people indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia. The results of the empirical research of this thesis indicate that there is a variety in ways in which interviewees perceive and cope with the volatility of the supply of clients which seems inherent to their work. Some interviewees genuinely struggle to deal with the seemingly big fluctuation in the quantity of clients, whilst other interviewees seem to be better accommodated to manage this (see subparagraph 5.2.3).

It is rather complex as to what Footprint Travel's role is in this issue of seasonality. Multiple questions arise when contemplating on the issue of seasonality. For example, is the volatility of the supply of clients only inherent to small-scale and community based tourism – the type of tourism activities Footprint Travel aims to provide? Or is the issue of seasonality also present in the conventional economic growth- driven approaches to tourism which do not reflect the traits that belong to tourism strategies fitting in the alternative development paradigm (see subparagraph 3.1.2.4)? One could contend that Footprint Travel might be able to contribute to the solution to the issue of seasonality by simply delivering more clientele. This might be true, but it would be rather injudicious too simply assume that this is right, because this would not necessarily tackle the volatility of the number of clients that the interviewees receive. This 'solution' could potentially only reinforce the problem in case Footprint Travel only delivers more clients in the high season. Delivering clients in the low season would most likely address the volatility of the supply of clients. However, this is easier said than done, since Footprint Travel relies upon clients who are most likely only capable or willing to travel during specific times of the year. Moreover, would this jeopardize the small-scale character of its tourism activities in Indonesia, if Footprint Travel were to be able to deliver more clients during low season? **All in all, this research reckons that Footprint Travel is an intrinsic part of the problem of seasonality. Hence,**

**Footprint Travel substantially contributes to the volatility of the supply of clients with which people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel have to deal with.**

### **6.1.5 Promotion of local businesses**

Previously in this paragraph, it was stated that some interviewees, those indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel, do not directly generate more income from the reception of tourists. The interviewees indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel comprise amongst others (for more information consult subparagraph 5.2.2), a *warung* owner in Yogyakarta, a producer of ‘rice prawn crackers’ in Surakarta, and a coffee manufacturer in Tetebatu. All of the aforementioned interviewees are, besides their core business, part of a tourism excursion included in Footprint Travel’s program. Interestingly, all interviewees of this empirical research that reflect the abovementioned examples argued that the reception of tourists gives them, instead of more income, the opportunity to promote their product or service. However, caution must be applied whilst interpreting these results, since only a considerably little number of people were interviewed in this empirical research who match the description of ‘indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel’ (see subparagraph 4.4.3.1 and 4.4.5).

Nevertheless, in this subparagraph it is endeavored to determine what Footprint Travel’s contribution is in this matter. It became apparent in the result section of this thesis that the receiving of tourists enables owners of a variety of different businesses to promote their product or service. This way, foreigners become acquainted with their products and services. Several interviewees hope, in the future, to export their products as a result of this promotion. Others mention that this promotion gives them a certain prestige which, in turn, results in more local clients. It is not possible, based on the results of the empirical research of this thesis, to detect what the exact profit is of this promotion of the products or services of the interviewees. Future research is required to investigate this. Notwithstanding, for now, this research believes that the reception of tourists is beneficial to business owners as it gives them the chance to promote their products or services.

When investigating Footprint Travel’s role in this matter, it is crucial to allude to the earlier posited notion of sectoral contribution which implies that other tourism organizations also play a role in the begetting of tourism activities with which local business owners can promote their products or services. In addition, it is imperative to highlight the previously cited tourists’ contribution. The tourism activities which empowers local business owners to promote their product or service will quit without the demand of these tourists. Moreover, it is essential to, once again, accentuate the reciprocity between Footprint Travel and its local partners when determining the contribution of Footprint Travel in this concern. The local partners of Footprint Travel bring about these excursions with which business owners can promote their products or services to both foreign and local people. In subparagraph 5.2.2, it was already suggested that, *a priori*, the effectiveness of the promotion of a product or service is dependent

upon the number of tourists business owners receive. Here, Footprint Travel enters into the equation. Footprint Travel consistently purchases a substantial number of excursions which include visits to a plethora of local businesses in Indonesia. **All things considered, this research reckons that Footprint Travel substantially contributes to the promotion of local businesses considering the number of foreign tourists Footprint Travel delivers to these local businesses in Indonesia.**

With regard to the above made contribution claim, it is critical to emphasize that the credibility of this contribution claim is rather weak considering the small number of people that were interviewed who were indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel. More interviews with similar people could greatly enhance the credibility of this contribution claim.

#### **6.1.6 Demonstration effect**

The mixing between tourists and locals which potentially begets the development of improved lifestyles and habits was defined as the demonstration effect.

The lion's share of interviewees mentioned this demonstration effect, either directly or indirectly, during the interviews. Several examples were given throughout the interviews. For example, some interviewees claimed that they have learned to have a healthier lifestyle because of the encounters with tourists. However, another example of the demonstration effect was, by far, the most prominent throughout the interviews. Somewhat surprisingly, almost all of the interviewees linked the demonstration effect to the environment by claiming that the encounters between tourists and locals have a positive impact on the environment. More elaborate, this implies that tourists have taught the interviewees to keep the environment clean by throwing garbage in the garbage bin, rather than on the ground. In turn, some interviewees have tried to spread this message to other people in the community. In addition, some interviewees referred to the economic interest that is at stake when keeping the environment clean. They noticed that foreign tourists appreciate a clean environment and that, without this, they will not be bothered to come. As a consequence of this, the amount of clientele declines having catastrophic effects on the magnitude of income they generate from tourism. Altogether, the encounters with foreign tourists has created better environmental awareness among the interviewees which in turn leads to more appropriate behavior with respect to the environment. This, regardless whether this better environmental awareness has come about out of economic interest or out of genuine concern for the environment.

A few factors have to be taken into consideration when determining the role that Footprint Travel plays in the demonstration effect as carried out above. First, it is vital to refer to the aforementioned sectoral contribution which means that other tourism organizations contribute to the bringing about of tourism activities from which the interviewees improve their environmental awareness through the encounters with tourists. Second, it is pivotal to highlight the reciprocity between Footprint Travel and its local partner. Accordingly, the local partner also have a play in the generation of tourism activities from which this demonstration effect is generated. Third, the previously quoted tourists'

contribution must be taken into account. The tourism activities from which the interviewees enhance their environmental awareness through will cease to exist without the demand of these tourists. In addition, the tourists particularly play a prominent role as they are an intrinsic part of the encounter between interviewee and tourist. All the above cited factors have repercussions for Footprint Travel's contribution in this matter. Fourth, it is important to state that the interviewees were asked whether this better environmental awareness has come about caused by other factors than the demonstration effect. The vast majority of interviewees decidedly replied that the better awareness of the environment is caused by the encounters with tourists. One can't, with a 100% certainty, exclude other factors merely based on the vision of the interviewees. Are there for example, government programs which have the aim to educate citizens to behave responsibly with regard to the environment? And if so, what is the impact of akin programs? And how educated and environmentally aware were the interviewees before they started their work on behalf of Footprint Travel?

Be that as it may, this research dares to state that, without excluding other factors, the demonstration effect plays a prominent role in the increase in environmental awareness among the interviewees which consequently induces behavior beneficial to the environment. Unfortunately, it is not possible to extrapolate the above statement to people other than people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel. That is to say, this research can't state that people who are indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel may also obtain a better environmental awareness through the demonstration effect. This, due to the lack of variety in the sample size of this empirical research.

The foreign tourist who is committed to preserving a clean environment is the vital link in the generation of the demonstration effect. Presupposed, Footprint Travel is able to deliver a considerable number of akin foreign tourists as it most likely will attract tourists who agree with Footprint Travel's philosophy (that fits in the alternative development paradigm, see subparagraph 3.1.2.5). **Given this, without excluding other factors, this research reckons that Footprint Travel contributes to some extent to the generation of the demonstration effect which raises the environmental awareness of people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia and which ultimately alters their behavior for the better.**

The demonstration effect does not necessarily have to be positive as it may prompt a shift in local consumption patterns towards Western products which may lead, amongst others, to people wearing different clothes and eating different food. The views of the interviewees on this issue were rather diverse. One part of the interviewees argued that the lifestyle of local people has changed to a more Western lifestyle, while the other part claimed that this has not happened. The opinions as to why local people changed their lifestyle to a Western lifestyle differed among the interviewees who reckoned that the lifestyle has changed. Some said that this change of lifestyle is brought about due to the encounter with foreign tourists. Whilst contrary to this, other interviewees contended that this is induced by the internet and television. Considering the above, it remains complicated to adequately determine

what the role of Footprint Travel is in this issue and it is hence that this research does not dare to make inferences when it comes to this.

### **6.1.7 Personal development**

Closely related to the theme ‘demonstration effect’, yet slightly different, is the ‘theme personal development’ (see subparagraph 4.4.3 for more information on this difference). Earlier in this thesis (subparagraph 3.2.2), it was asserted that locals acquire particular knowledge and skills which are needed in order to cater properly to tourists.

The majority of interviewees contended that being employed in tourism has a positive influence on their personal development. Surprisingly, and very much in correspondence with what was discussed in the subparagraph (6.1.6) on the demonstration effect, multiple interviewees referred to their better environmental awareness which was acquired through the encounter with tourists. Moreover, the vast majority of interviewees noted that tourism has played a big role in their capacity to speak English. Some of these interviewees mentioned that tourism has been an incentive to learn and to improve their English, whilst other interviewees contended that they have learned and improved their English through the encounters with tourists. Some interviewees pointed out that some people incentivize their children to learn English since it increases their chances of obtaining a job in tourism.

Diverting from the acquisition of language skills, several interviewees declared to have acquired knowledge of different cultures through the encounter with tourists. Akin statements were provided both by interviewees directly involved and interviewees indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia. In the theory of change model of Footprint Travel (see figure 2) it was proposed that this ‘confrontation’ between different cultures is smooth since clients of Footprint Travel are extensively briefed (through the extensive letter of departure) on the different culture and different etiquettes at destinations. A small minority of interviewees mentioned some ‘cultural problems’ that came to surface during the encounters with tourists. The way in which some foreign, female tourists are dressed was the most prominent problem that came to light. However, the lion’s share of the interviewees claimed to still have an overall positive attitude towards the tourists they receive. Unfortunately, it was not possible to determine to what extent the comprehensive ‘letter of departure’ of Footprint Travel played a role in retaining this overall positive attitude among the interviewees. This, because hardly any of the interviewees were familiar with the existence of this letter.

Nonetheless, this research dares to argue that tourism has a positive influence on the personal development of the interviewees. Sadly, it is not possible to extrapolate the above contention to people other than people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel. This, caused by the lack of variation in the sample size of this empirical research.

A few factors have to be considered when gauging the role Footprint Travel plays in the personal development of the interviewees as described above. First, it is crucial to mention the previously named

sectoral contribution which implies that other tourism organizations also contribute to the engendering of tourism activities which have a positive influence on the personal development of the interviewees. Second, one has to take the aforesaid reciprocity between the local partners and Footprint Travel into consideration. Appropriately, the local partners also play a role in the bringing about of tourism activities which is beneficial to the personal development of the interviewees. Third, it is imperative to take the earlier mentioned tourists' contribution into account. Because without the demand of these tourists, the tourism activities will cease to exist and so will the positive influence of it on the personal development of the interviewee. In addition, similar to the demonstration effect, especially the tourists play a conspicuous part since several interviewees argued that they have acquired knowledge of English and different cultures through the encounters with tourists. Fourth, it is rather intricate to determine the exact extent to which the interviewees have improved their knowledge of English and of other cultures as a result of their work in tourism. Other factors are, most likely, at play. For example, several interviewees mentioned that they already learned English in high school. One may wonder how proficient the interviewees were in English before commencing their work in tourism, and more importantly, their work on behalf of Footprint Travel. Moreover, are there other factors that might have played a role in the improved knowledge of the interviewees of other cultures? For instance, did they learn about other cultures in school? And what is the role of television and the internet in both the acquisition of knowledge of English and of different cultures? Are there other, maybe, latent factors that might have played a role in this matter?

It was already maintained earlier in this paragraph that the foreign tourist is the key constituent in the bringing about of this particular impact. Footprint Travel has the competence to deliver a substantial number of such foreign tourists. **Having said that, without neglecting other factors, this research reckons that Footprint Travel contributes to some extent to the personal development of people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia.**

#### **6.1.8 Empowerment of women**

Earlier in this thesis (subparagraph 3.2.2), it was stated that the smaller-scaled forms of tourism seem to make less of a distinction when it comes to gender. Accordingly, tourism activities with the emphasis on small scales and communities provide the best potential to augment the lives of women.

The greater part of the interviewees held the view that women have at least equal chances, if not better chances, to become employed in tourism. However, some interviewees suggested that this indeed may be the case, but it remains still not accepted or inappropriate for women to occupy certain tourism positions. For example, the position of driver is widely perceived as a job not appropriate for women. One interviewee added that the context in which women are embedded is important in this matter. To illustrate, people in the countryside have the tendency to be conservative and women are expected to stay home and take care of the children whereas people in the city tend to be more progressive and open-minded when it comes to this matter.

Unfortunately, this research can't ratify that smaller-scaled forms of tourism make less of a distinction based on gender than the conventional economic growth- driven approaches to tourism (as discussed subparagraph 3.1.2.3). This, considering the fact that this research merely generated data on tourism activities that can be positioned in the alternative development paradigm and no data was generated on tourism activities that can be construed as conventional economic growth- driven approaches to tourism. In addition, when analyzing the results of this empirical research, one can maintain that women can't occupy all tourism positions due to certain cultural conventions that prevail in places. However, this research dares to contend that tourism initiatives with the emphasis on small scales and communities may empower women as they also get the opportunity to engage in activities in the tourism sector and make their own living. Two fundamental comments have to be made here. First, the above statement is solely applicable to people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel. This, because the interviewees talked about the issue of women's empowerment in relation to people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel. They did not speak about this issue regarding people indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel. Hence, it is not feasible to extrapolate the above statement to people other than people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel. Second, this research has not been able to delve much deeper into what the consequences for women are to be employed in tourism as the interviewees were only asked whether women have equal opportunities as men to become employed in tourism. One interviewee elaborated upon this (see subparagraph 5.3.4) by insisting that working in tourism makes women more independent and consequently less reliant upon the income of their husband. However, more research has to be undertaken in order to better detect what the exact implications are for women who become employed in tourism.

Now, it is attempted to gauge Footprint Travel's role with respect to the engendering of the empowerment of women as described above. First, it is of sheer significance to make reference, once again, to the formerly called sectoral contribution which means that other tourism organization also play a role in the bringing about of tourism activities that can empower women. Second, it is also essential to highlight the previously cited tourists' contribution. Correspondingly, women will not be able to retain their job in tourism in case the demand for their tourism services terminates. Third, it is crucial to take the abovementioned reciprocity between local partners and Footprint Travel into consideration. Appropriately, the local partners also play a part in the engendering of tourism activities that can empower women. In addition, the local partners are, most likely, responsible for the recruitment of their employees. For that reason, the local partners of Footprint Travel play a particularly big role as they decide whether to apply affirmative action of women or not (see paragraph 5.1). Thus, Footprint Travel is highly dependent upon their local partners when it comes to the empowerment of women. **Given all the above, this research believes that Footprint Travel contributes to some extent to the generation of tourism activities in Indonesia that can empower women.** Footprint Travel has the ability to deliver a substantial number of clients which contributes to the preservation of jobs for women. This way,



Footprint Travel plays a role in the sustaining of the empowerment of women. As stated above Footprint Travel is highly dependent upon its local partner in this matter. That is why this research reckons that Footprint Travel contributes to some extent to this matter, rather than that it contributes substantially. However, Footprint Travel still has the agency to exert influence by deciding whom to choose as a local partner (more on this in paragraph 7.3.2).

### **6.1.9 Insufficient or inconsistent evidence**

An effort was made in the preceding paragraphs to determine the extent to which the gathered evidence (chapter 5) backs a conclusion of contribution. This has yielded a rather extensive analysis about the number of eight themes. Nonetheless, another number of themes were addressed during the empirical research of this thesis which either did not yield sufficient data or yielded contradictory results. It is impossible to make credible contribution claims on these themes due to this. That is to say, at the moment no inferences are made on these themes. Be aware that this does not imply that this research believes that Footprint Travel does not have any impact on these particular themes. Simply put, this research was unable to generate sufficient and consistent evidence on these themes which consequently means that, based on the evidence of this empirical research, neither impact of Footprint Travel on this theme can be ratified nor can impact of Footprint Travel on this theme be rejected. These particular themes are briefly covered in this subparagraph.

One theme that was addressed during the empirical research was the influence of tourism on the cost of living in communities. There was a big discrepancy in views on this issue among the interviewees (see subparagraph 5.2.5) which makes it not possible to make a credible contribution claim with regard to the influence of Footprint Travel on the cost of living in the communities in which it is active.

Another theme that was raised during the empirical research was the impact of tourism on the authenticity of local cultures. The disparity of views with respect to this issue was also great among the interviewees (see subparagraph 5.3.3). Some interviewees claimed that tourism did not change the local culture at destinations, others maintained that some aspects of the local culture is rejuvenated due to tourism, while again others argued the opposite – the authenticity of local culture diminishes because of tourism. Hence, this research can't make a credible contribution claim as to Footprint Travel's influence on the authenticity of local cultures in which it is operative.

A different theme that was brought up during the empirical research was the effect of tourism on the prosperity of local communities. More concretely, the interviewees were asked whether the rise of income caused by tourism has perhaps spillover effects such as access to better education and better healthcare. Sadly, this issue turned out to be rather intricate which led to a poor response on this subject. The responses that were provided by the interviewees deviated greatly. Some interviewees noted that one or more spillover effects were achieved as a result of their work in tourism, others claimed the opposite, while again others argued that other factors were the reason of the increase in prosperity (see subparagraph 5.3.5). All in all, it is very difficult to determine the extent to which Footprint Travel has

an influence on the local prosperity based on the results of this empirical research and therefore, no contribution claims are made by this research.

The adverse effects of tourism on the natural environment was another theme that was addressed during the empirical research. A small minority of interviewees made reference to some negative impacts of tourism on the natural environment. Issues that were mentioned by this small group of interviewees were, amongst others, changes in landscape due to the construction of hotels in Senggigi, the generation of vast amounts of waste on the Rinjani volcano and the privatization of public beaches in Senggigi. Nonetheless, only a miniscule part of the interviewees referred to akin problems which makes it hard to determine what part Footprint Travel plays in similar issues. Interestingly, this small minority of interviewees all argued that the scale of tourism is of sheer importance when negative effects of tourism on the natural environment are concerned. This strongly corresponds with the vision of Archer et al., (2005) who state that the size and kind of environmental damage rendered by tourists is related to the degree of development, the quantity of visitors and the concentration of consumption.

Another theme that was raised during the empirical research was the impact of tourism on the improvement of infrastructure and local amenities. Sadly, this research was not able to obtain sufficient data about whether better roads and better facilities are developed in order to cater to the tourists they receive. The vast majority of interviewees held the view that better roads are built by the government at places that are visited by tourists. However, it remains rather opaque what Footprint Travel's contribution is in this. That is why this research is not able to make a credible contribution claim with respect to this matter.

In a similar vein, another theme that was brought up during the empirical research was the impact of tourism on the preservation of the local built environment. More concretely, the interviewees were asked whether traditional buildings and cultural heritage are conserved as a result of the reception of tourists. Unfortunately, this research was unable to collect sufficient data with regard to this matter and is therefore not able to make a credible contribution claim with regard to this matter.

## **6.2 Reflection on empirical research**

This research has been far from flawless, despite the good intentions to carry it out in the most appropriate way possible. For that reason, this paragraph is dedicated to discussing the most prominent limitations of this research and the influence of these limitations on the quality of the inferences that are made in this thesis. The limitations of this research are described here in a concise manner, as they are important in order to place the research findings in context, to interpret the validity of the work, and to ascribe a credibility level to the conclusions of the research (Ionnidis, 2007). In addition, not only the limitations are discussed in this paragraph. It is also reflected which actions have been undertaken in order to ensure methodological rigor.

Although the concepts validity and reliability have commonly been associated with quantitative research, they are perceived as significant terms in qualitative research more and more as well (Anderson, 2010). Brink (1993) for instance, holds the view that these two factors can make the difference between good and poor research and can be of help to persuade others to accept that your findings are credible and trustworthy.

The internal validity (i.e. credibility) is frequently defined as the extent to which inferences made in a research are meticulous and legitimate (Morse, 2015). When reflecting on the credibility of the empirical research of this research, it is critical to acknowledge that the contribution claims made based on the empirical research can't, with a 100% certainty, be labeled as a true reflection or representation of reality. It has proven to be quite an ordeal to answer first part of the main research question of this thesis namely – ‘what is the impact of the business activities of Footprint Travel at its destinations in Indonesia?’ In chapter 4 it has been elaborately scrutinized as to how to tackle the question of attribution which is inherent to measuring impact. In retrospective, this research still reckons that the choice to shift from attribution to contribution was mandatory especially when considering the limited amount of time, money, expertise, and the lack of baseline data available to this research. However, it already became lucid (subparagraph 4.5.1) that the mapping of the extraneous variables is a challenge as there is no operational framework that explains how to do this. This was certainly also the case in this research. As recommended by Ellis (2005), the interviewees were asked to think of other factors at play that might have an influence on the corresponding impact. This approach yielded only limited explanations of possible other influencing factors which has repercussions on the validity of the contribution claims (made in chapter 6). Also the fact that the vast majority of interviewees were not aware of the existence of Footprint Travel has negatively influenced the credibility of the contribution claims. This research was compelled to inquire interviewees about the impacts of tourism in general on them and on the community in which they are active, rather than asking them about what the impact of the business activities of Footprint Travel is. As a reaction and (partial) solution to this issue, this research has composed some general background questions with which this research could gauge the extent to which the interviewee was affiliated with Footprint Travel.

This research has opted to employ the technique of triangulation in order to strengthen the accuracy and credibility of the contribution claims. This technique, which encompasses making use of two or more research methods, is suitable to substantiate the validity of research findings (Anderson, 2010). This research has made use of the research methods named qualitative interviewing and participant observation with which triangulation was obtained to some extent. To some extent is added to the last sentence, since the method participant observation was only applied for a very limited amount of time and the high degree of subjectivity of this method (see paragraph 4.4.4.1).

Diverting from validity to reliability, reliability is generally depicted as the consistency, dependability, and repeatability of a research's data collection, interpretation, and analysis. In essence, reliability is the capacity to obtain the same findings if the research were to be repeated (Morse, 2015).

Davies and Dodd (2002) extend this view by contending that a research should aim for reliability in his or her data which is based on the consistency and accountability in the application of research procedures. In turn, the consistency and accountability is reflected in the transparency of the research practices and is reflected in an open account that remains conscious of the partiality and the limitations of the research findings. When contemplating the reliability of the empirical research of this thesis, one can adamantly note that several actions have been undertaken with the purpose of increasing the reliability of the empirical research. First, an interview guide was prepared prior to visiting Indonesia. This interview guide functioned as a general outline for the conversation. Questions were formulated so as to circumvent common risks inherent to qualitative research such as response bias (Yin, 2003). This was done by trying to pose questions in a non-suggestive manner. Second, all interviews were recorded. Third, all these recorded interviews were literally transcribed. Fourth, all the generated raw data was coded with the help of ATLAS.ti and by making use of a sequence of coding steps proposed by Creswell (2009) (see 4.4.7 Data analysis). In addition, the field notes generated from the participant observation were carefully elaborated and were used in order to obtain a better understanding of the context. All the coded primary data generated during the empirical research of this thesis is available upon request.

## 7. Concluding chapter

Respectively the policy and impact of Footprint Travel with regard to its business activities at its destinations in Indonesia have been scrutinized in the preceding chapters of this thesis. In the closing chapter of this thesis, it is contemplated whether the actual impact of Footprint Travel's business activities in Indonesia is consistent with the policy that Footprint Travel aspires to have with respect to its business activities in Indonesia. Moreover, it is a tried to put the results of this research in a broader perspective. Ultimately, the recommendations based on this research are presented in the last paragraph of this thesis.

### 7.1 Juxtaposing Footprint Travel's impact with its policy

The following main research question was postulated in the beginning of this thesis (paragraph 1.4):

**What is the impact of the business activities of Footprint Travel at its destinations in Indonesia and is this coherent with its policy?**

To briefly recap, this main research question was split into two sub-questions (see paragraph 1.5). Accordingly, the first sub-question was formulated with the aim to scrutinize the policy that Footprint Travel strives to have with regard to its business activities at its destinations in Indonesia. The theory of change approach was used as a method to expound the policy of Footprint Travel (chapter 2). The second sub-question was drafted so as to examine the impact of the business activities of Footprint Travel at its destinations in Indonesia. The contribution analysis (chapter 4) was employed in order to operationalize the measuring of the impact of Footprint Travel's business activities in Indonesia.

**This research can conclude, grounded on the development of the theory of change model of Footprint Travel and the findings of the contribution analysis, that the impact of Footprint Travel's business activities at its destinations in Indonesia is, as far as this research can rule, generally consistent with the policy that Footprint Travel desires to pursue with respect to its business activities at its destinations in Indonesia.** This research is obliged to add 'as far as this research can rule'. This, because no credible contribution claims could be made with regard to several themes which came forward in the theory of change of Footprint Travel. That is to say, the above inference is solely valid for the themes about which this research could make credible contribution claims (see paragraph 6.1.1-6.1.8).

In the remainder of this paragraph, it is amplified which impacts (contribution claims) are coherent with the policy (see figure 2) that Footprint Travel endeavors to pursue concerning its business activities at its destinations in Indonesia and it is elucidated which impacts of Footprint Travel at its destination in Indonesia are not consistent with Footprint Travel's policy (unintended positive or negative impacts). Moreover, it is illuminated which components of the policy of Footprint Travel and which components that were added to the empirical research as a result of the literature study could not

be verified by this research due to the lack of empirical data, or the lack of consistent empirical data. Lastly, some closing thoughts are provided on the larger significance of this thesis. Here, it is briefly reflected on what the social responsibility is of Footprint Travel with regard to its business activities in Indonesia based on the findings of this thesis.

### **7.1.1 Contribution claims compatible with Footprint Travel's policy**

The contribution claims that are coherent with the policy that Footprint Travel aspires to pursue with respect to its business activities at its destinations in Indonesia are deliberated in this subparagraph. However, prior to starting this it is important to accentuate, once again, that the contribution claims can't be extrapolated given the lack of variety in sample size of the empirical research of this thesis. The implications of this have been abundantly addressed in chapter 6.

'The offering and promotion of travels' was categorized under the activities in the theory of change (see figure 2). It was alleged that Footprint Travel persistently promotes travels and excursions to places that are less known with the purpose to sustain demand. This perfectly corresponds with what was argued in the first paragraph of the analysis *viz.* Footprint Travel's main competency is its ability to function as a platform that promotes and delivers a substantial amount of clientele to places which are not yet well known. For this reason, Footprint Travel can be understood as the pivot between demand and supply. Consequently, economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts stem from Footprint Travel's ability to sustain the demand of small scale tourism activities in Indonesia.

One long-term effect that prominently appeared in the theory of change was 'the generation of structural employment'. It was insisted that Footprint Travel induces a steady influx of tourists to places where previously no tourism activities took place. Jobs are created by Footprint Travel and locals can generate an income as a consequence of this. Moreover, it was claimed that other locals anticipate on this steady influx of tourists by offering products or services to these tourists. It was reckoned, in the analysis of this thesis that Footprint Travel substantially contributes to the expansion of employment opportunities and subsequently the generation of income to those people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia. This, considering the quantity of clients it delivers. This contribution claim that was made with regard to theme 'employment and income generation' corresponds with the claims that were made in theory of change. Unfortunately, this research can't extrapolate this inference to people indirectly involved with Footprint Travel's business activities based on the gathered evidence.

The short-term effect 'locals become aware of the possibility to generate (extra) revenues from tourism' emerged from the theory of change. It was suggested that the influx of clients of Footprint Travel plays a role in the diversification of local economies. Subsistence farmers or fisherman may expand activities in the tourism sector which diminishes their dependency on farming and fishing. It was inferred, in the analysis of this thesis that Footprint Travel substantially contributes to the engendering of tourism activities which can function as a diversification strategy for people directly

involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia. It was previously argued that people are most likely less dependent upon the income of their other job as a result of the extra income that can be acquired from the work they do on behalf of Footprint Travel. This contribution claim that was made with respect to theme ‘diversification strategy’ is compatible with the assertions that were made in the theory of change.

The short-term effect ‘locals and travelers potentially learn from each other through encounters’ was connected with the intermediate effect ‘locals acquire knowledge, particular skills, and English through the encounter with travelers of Footprint Travel’. With regard to the theme ‘demonstration effect’, this research thinks that the abovementioned short-term effect should, together with the short-term effect ‘locals become aware of the value of nature and culture’, also be linked to the intermediate effect ‘locals deal with nature and culture properly; in a way so that it is preserved’ (and thus should also be linked to the long-term effect ‘sustainable preservation of cultural heritage and nature’). This, because the empirical research demonstrated that the interaction between locals and travelers incites the so-called demonstration effect which ultimately has a positive impact on the environment. This research surmised, considering the number of clients it delivers, that Footprint Travel contributes to some extent to the creation of the demonstration effect which increases the environmental awareness of people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia. This contribution claim that was made with respect to theme ‘demonstration effect’ corresponds, with a few minor deviations as shown above, with the claims that were made in the theory of change (figure 2).

It was advocated in the theory of change that locals cultivate knowledge, skills and English through the confrontation with clients of Footprint Travel. Consequently, the encounters with the tourists may be beneficial for the personal development of local people. This closely corresponds with what was discussed in the previous subsection and with what was found in the empirical research. The empirical research demonstrated that people directly involved with Footprint Travel’s business activities improve their English and acquire knowledge about different cultures through the encounters with tourists. However, deviating from what was stated in the theory of change (see subparagraph 2.2.1), the empirical research also indicated that people directly involved with Footprint Travel’s business activities are incentivized to obtain specific knowledge and skills so that they are better able to cater to the tourists. This research reckoned, given that it has the ability to deliver a substantial number of clients, that Footprint Travel contributes to some extent to the personal development of people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia. This contribution claim that was made with regard to the theme ‘personal development’ is compatible, with a minor discrepancy as mentioned above, with the assertions that were made in the theory of change.

One long-term effect that prominently surfaced in the theory of change was ‘the empowerment of women’. It was stated in the theory of change that women may become empowered as they also engage in activities in the tourism sector. In addition, it was argued that at many places there is still a stigma around women being employed in tourism. This last point was ratified by the empirical research

of this thesis as it became clear that it is still inappropriate for women to occupy certain jobs in tourism. It was reckoned, in the analysis of this thesis that Footprint Travel contributes to some extent to the creation of tourism activities in Indonesia that can empower women as it has the ability to deliver a substantial number of clients. This contribution claim that was made with respect to the theme ‘empowerment of women’ corresponds with the claims that were made in the theory of change. Be that as it may, it seems as though the claim made in theory of change is more resolute than the contribution claim that was made in the analysis.

### **7.1.2 Unintended contribution claims**

In the beginning of this thesis (subparagraph 1.2.2), it was maintained that Footprint Travel may become aware of any unintended consequences of their business activities in Indonesia when conducting an impact analysis. The unintended consequences that were found in the empirical research of this thesis and which are not consistent with Footprint Travel’s policy are contemplated in this subparagraph.

The unintended (negative) contribution claim with respect to theme ‘the volatility of the supply of clients’ was made in the analysis of this thesis. The volatility of the number of clients that people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia receive surfaced prominently in the empirical research of this thesis. In turn, people directly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia perceive and cope in a variety of ways with this volatility of the supply of clients which is seemingly inherent to their work. It was inferred, in the analysis of this thesis, that Footprint Travel is an intrinsic part of the issue of seasonality. Which is why this research believes that Footprint Travel substantially contributes to the volatility of the supply of clients. This volatility of the supply of clients has negative repercussions on the long-term effect ‘the generation of employment (not temporal, but structural)’.

‘Promotion of local businesses’ was another theme that conspicuously emerged in the empirical research of this thesis. The unintended (positive) contribution claim regarding the theme ‘promotion of local businesses’ was made in the analysis of this thesis. It was argued that people indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel (see subparagraph 4.4.3 for characteristics) get the opportunity to promote their product or service. It was deduced in the analysis of thesis that Footprint Travel substantially contributes to the promotion of local businesses considering Footprint Travel’s ability to deliver a considerable number of tourists. However, the credibility of this contribution claim is not strong, given the relatively small number of interviews that were conducted with people indirectly involved with the business activities of Footprint Travel. More research should be done in the future in order to enhance the credibility of this contribution claim.

Both abovementioned unintended contribution claims should be incorporated in Footprint Travel’s contribution story (subparagraph 1.2.2).



### **7.1.3 No verification – no contribution claim**

It became visible earlier in this thesis (subparagraph 6.1.9) that this research was not able to gather sufficient or consistent data on several themes. This made it impossible to verify certain themes that emerged from the theory of change of Footprint Travel and certain themes that were added to the empirical research as a result of the literature study (see introductory subsection chapter 3). This incapacity to verify certain themes of the theory of change makes it impossible to make credible contribution claims on these particular themes. As already contended earlier, this does not mean that this research reckons that Footprint Travel does not have any impact on these particular themes. It merely implies that, grounded on the generated empirical data, neither impact of Footprint Travel on this theme can be confirmed nor can impact of Footprint Travel on this theme be denied. Considering the unfeasibility to make contribution claims, this research highly recommends Footprint Travel to be prudent with regard to the themes that are discussed in this subparagraph when drafting its contribution story (see subparagraph 1.2.2). That is to say, do not make contribution claims without having gathered evidence as these contribution claims will most likely be construed as not credible.

One long-term effect that emerged prominently in the theory of change was that the tourism activities of Footprint Travel may lead to an increase in prosperity in local communities. The increase in income engendered by, amongst others, the tourism activities of Footprint Travel possibly generate spillover effects. For instance, locals obtain better access to health care and can better deal with setbacks. In addition, it was maintained in the theory of change that the rise of local prosperity is reflected in the development of facilities and amenities so as to cater to the clients of, amongst others, Footprint Travel. Unfortunately, this research could not make any inferences with regard to the above issues due to rather poor response of the interviewees on these issues. Hence, it is not possible to ratify or reject whether Footprint Travel plays a role in the potential increase in local prosperity. To add one minor comment; the intermediate effects ‘personal development’ and indirectly ‘demonstration effect’ were also grouped under the long-term effect ‘an increase in prosperity in local communities’ (see figure 2). Previously in this chapter, it was argued that Footprint Travel plays a role in the engendering of both the aforementioned intermediate effects. This research does not want to get involved in the semantic discussion of what an increase in local prosperity exactly entails and whether or not the aforementioned intermediate effects can be grouped under the long-term effect ‘increase in local prosperity’. Therefore, it is suggested to separate these two particular intermediate effects from the long-term effect ‘an increase in local prosperity. Rather, and corresponding to what was earlier stated in this chapter (subparagraph 7.1.1) this research reckons that the aforementioned intermediate effects fit better with the long-term effect ‘the sustainable preservation of cultural heritage and nature.’

It was stated in the theory of change that the long-term effect ‘sustainable preservation of cultural heritage and nature’ comes into being partly as a result of the business activities of Footprint Travel. The role that Footprint Travel plays in the conservation of nature was already discussed previously in this paragraph (subparagraph 7.1.1). However, the adverse effects of the tourism activities

that came forward in the literature study have not yet been discussed. Sadly, it was not possible to make any inferences as to what role Footprint Travel plays due to the lack of evidence that was generated on this issue. The intermediate effect ‘greater tolerance between locals and travelers due to the better awareness of each other’s cultures’ was grouped in the theory of change under the long-term effect ‘sustainable preservation of cultural heritage and nature’. Already discussed earlier in this paragraph (see subparagraph 7.1), locals generate knowledge of other cultures through the encounters which potentially enhances their tolerance for other cultures. In addition, it was also maintained in the theory of change that the relationship between tourists and locals remains good as a result of Footprint Travel’s elaborate briefing in advance. Unfortunately, this research was not able to detect to what extent the comprehensive ‘letter of departure’ of Footprint Travel plays a role in the obtaining of greater tolerance between travelers and tourists since the great majority of interviewees were not familiar with the existence of this letter. In addition, this research has merely spoken with Indonesian people who are employed in tourism and who provide tourism activities on behalf of Footprint Travel in Indonesia. The other side of the equation, namely the Footprint Travel clients, have remained unexamined. It is hence that this research can’t make any inferences on the impact of the business activities of Footprint Travel on its clients and, more specifically, what the role of Footprint Travel’s ‘letter of departure’ is on the tolerance of its clients. It might be interesting to illuminate, in the future, this other side of the equation when examining the impact of Footprint Travel’s business activities. Furthermore, it was asserted in the theory of change that the cultural authenticity is safeguarded by locals since they are aware of the fact that this cultural authenticity is an intrinsic component of the tourism activities. It was not possible to verify this part of the theory of change, due to the fact that there was a great disparity of views among the interviewees. In a similar vein, in the theory of change it was uttered that traditional buildings and cultural heritage are better preserved as a result of tourism activities. This research was unable to gather sufficient data with regard to this matter and is hence unable to confirm or deny Footprint Travel’s impact concerning this matter.

An elaborate answer is provided in the previous subparagraphs to the main research question of this thesis. For the sake of clarity, a new, revised version of the theory of change of Footprint Travel has been developed (see figure 10). This revised theory of change is based on the results of the empirical research. Please note, this new theory of change is a highly simplified version of the theory of change of Footprint Travel as it merely contains the, as far as this research is concerned, most important activity of Footprint Travel and the resultant contribution claims. The arrows between the contribution claims and the long-term effects demonstrate whether the contribution claim corresponds (green arrow) with the long-term effect as postulated in the theory of change figure 2 or not (red arrow).

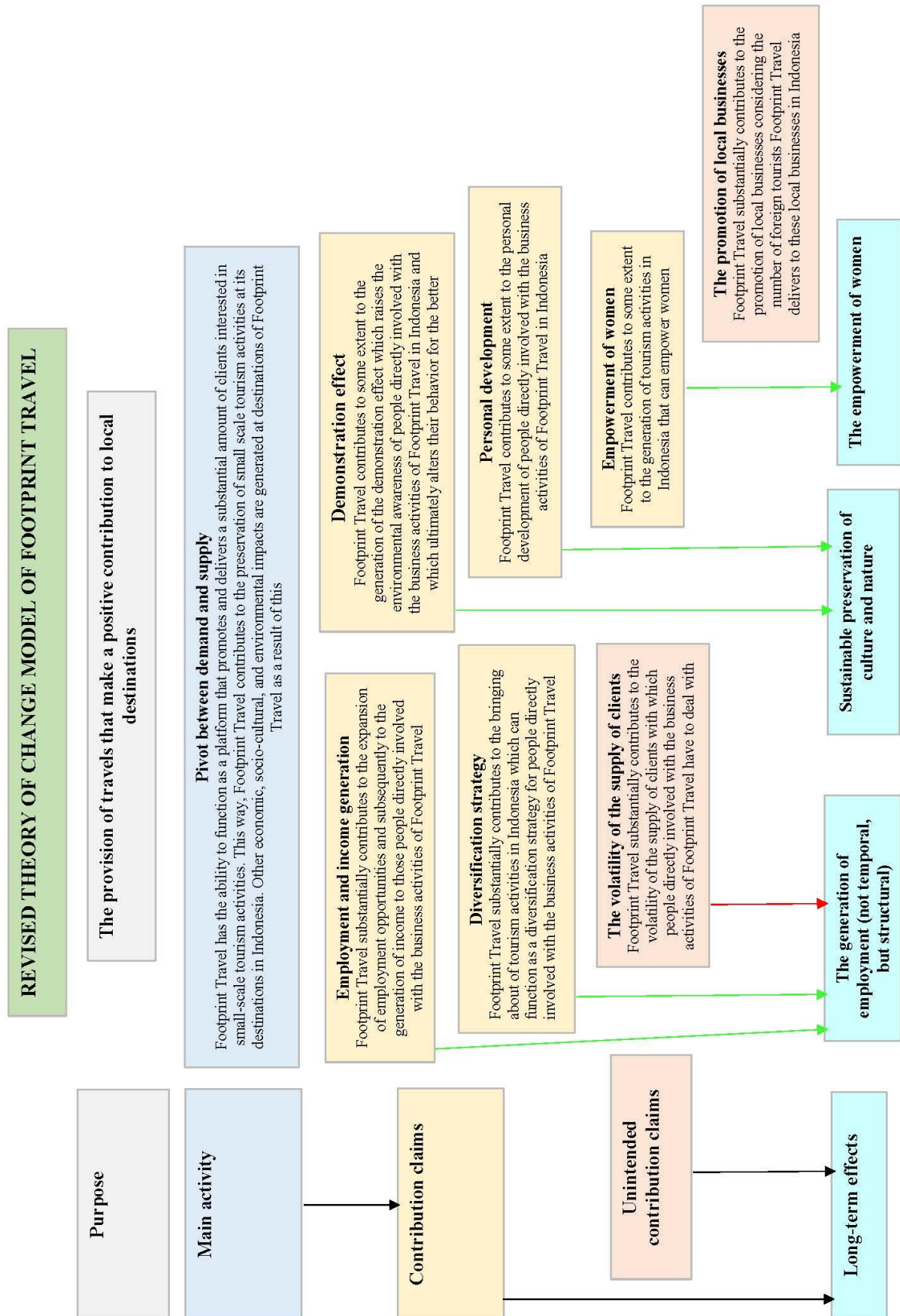


Figure 10: Revised Theory of Change model Footprint Travel. Source: own.

## 7.2 Footprint Travel's social responsibilities

In the last subparagraph of this paragraph, it is endeavored to put the findings of this research in a broader perspective.

The famous contention of Nobel Prize winner and eminent economist Milton Friedman (1970) was postulated at the very beginning of this thesis (paragraph 1.1) where it was discussed as to why corporations exist and how far their social responsibility should reach. He presumed that the only social responsibility of corporations is to use its resources and engage in activities designed to increase profits provided that it stays within the rules of the game. This research has shown that Footprint Travel's primary competence is its capacity to function as a platform that promotes and delivers a considerable quantity of clients to places which are not well known in Indonesia with the result that Footprint Travel contributes to the sustaining of small scale tourism activities in Indonesia. Superficially spoken, Footprint Travel earns a living by delivering clients to places where small scale tourism activities take place. Considering Friedman's contention, one could argue that Footprint Travel's only social responsibility is to magnify the quantity of clients it delivers so that it increases its profit. This research largely disagrees with the above-stated assertion. However, and partly corresponding with the philosophy of Friedman, this research reckons that the pre-eminent social responsibility of Footprint Travel is to deliver clients. This, because it was hypothesized in the analysis of this thesis, that other economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts are induced at destinations of Footprint Travel in Indonesia as a consequence of this main social responsibility of Footprint Travel. The above may partly correspond with Friedman's vision of the social responsibility of corporations. However, it is crucial to emphasize on two fundamental differences between Friedman's vision and the vision of this research. First, it is fundamental to add that this research thinks that the delivering of clients to places where small scale tourism activities take place is Footprint Travel's *main* social responsibility, not its *only* social responsibility. Second, another essential difference is that this research believes that Footprint Travel should not have the sole purpose to increase the quantity of clients its delivers so as to increase its profits. It was already discussed previously in this thesis (subparagraph 3.1.2.5), that Footprint Travel can't identify itself with the unprecedented growth associated with the neoliberal school of thought because this would jeopardize the small-scale character of the tourism activities that Footprint Travel desires to provide (corresponding with tourism strategies that fit in the alternative development paradigm). Taking all the above into consideration, this research surmises that Footprint Travel's second social responsibility is to relentlessly monitor and examine whether the tourism activities Footprint Travel provides in Indonesia are still compatible with the traits of alternative tourism strategies (see subparagraph 3.1.2.4 for more information on these traits).

Some recommendations are provided, based on the findings of this research, in the last paragraph of this thesis. These recommendations are directed to MVO Nederland – the commission party of this research and to Footprint Travel – the main character of this research.

## **7.3 Recommendations**

### **7.3.1 Recommendation for MVO Nederland**

MVO Nederland – the commission party of this research has been disseminating the message that it is important for enterprises to measure the impact of its business activities on society and environment. The rationale of MVO Nederland to initiate an impact study was predominantly to acquire knowledge and gain experience with the measurement of impact so that partners can be better informed when it comes to impact measurement. In retrospective, this research can firmly ratify the importance of finding out the impact of the business activities of enterprises on society and environment. After all, it was concluded that the measurement of impact is an intrinsic part of the broader process of sustainable tourism development (see paragraph 3.3). This research believes that the above-mentioned conclusion is not sector specific and is applicable to all sectors.

It became evidently clear that the most rigorous methods to tackle the question of attribution which is inherent to measuring impact are extremely costly, time-consuming and requires a high degree of expertise. Realistically, one can assume that the vast majority of partners, if not all partners of MVO Nederland, will most likely not have the resources to tackle the question of attribution. In addition, those partners that have the resources will most likely not be willing to spend an excessive amount of money and time in the tackling of the attribution problem. Hence, this research would recommend MVO Nederland to change its discourse from impact (attribution) to contribution. Thinking in terms of contribution makes it more feasible and realistic to make credible claims about the role that corporations play in a particular change. After all, what is wrong with claiming that your business activities contribute to a certain change, rather than claiming that a certain change is attributable to your business activities? The theory of change in combination with the contribution analysis are appropriate methods, as far as this research is concerned, to scrutinize the contribution of corporations in particular changes. Partners of MVO Nederland should be informed though, that this way of measuring impact also requires a great deal of time, money and commitment. It is, for example, rather intricate and time-consuming to map other possible factors that are at play which makes it a challenge to make credible contribution claims.

### **7.3.2 Recommendation for Footprint Travel**

In the previous paragraph (7.2), it was argued by this research that Footprint Travel has two social responsibilities. It was contended that Footprint Travel has the social responsibility, apart from its main social responsibility, to continuously monitor and evaluate whether the tourism activities of Footprint Travel in Indonesia are in harmony with the characteristics of alternative tourism strategies. This research could have also argued that Footprint Travel's other social responsibility would be the measurement of impacts at its destinations. However, it deliberately diverts from the measuring of impact as it is impractical, as far as this research is concerned, to persistently measure impacts at its destinations. In the theory of change model of Footprint Travel, it was articulated that a lot of time and money is being invested by Footprint Travel to conduct thorough research at potential destinations in

order to generate knowledge of future suppliers of tourism activities appropriate for Footprint Travel. In the same vein as this, this research recommends to test and evaluate, periodically, whether the tourism activities that are already in the program of Footprint Travel still correspond with the traits of alternative tourism strategies. Earlier (subparagraph 3.1.2.4), it became clear that these tourism strategies were designed so as to minimize the negative impacts and to reinforce the positive impacts. The testing and evaluating of Footprint Travel's tourism activities in the abovementioned fashion will not yield rigorous results of the impacts of Footprint Travels' business activities at its destinations. Be that as it may, this research reckons that this is a more feasible and practical way to get an indication whether the actual business activities at its destinations correspond with the vision of Footprint Travel (theory of change) of how the business activities at its destinations should be. This testing and evaluating of the tourism activities of Footprint Travel will become more difficult analogous to a possible increase of Footprint Travel's supply of tourism activities at destinations. A significant part of this evaluation is to assess whether the local partners are still suitable to remain Footprint Travel's local partner. That is to say, it is important to examine whether the visions of the local partners are still properly fine-tuned with Footprint Travel's vision. After all, Footprint Travel is, in many cases, reliant upon the collaboration with local partners and, eventually, this has influence on the impacts of Footprint Travel's business activities at its destinations.

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## Appendix 1 Interview agenda

- Brief introduction of myself and the research topic.
- Provide informed consent statement and explain it.

### General background

Place, date and time:.....

Name interviewee:.....

Gender: Male/Female

Age: .....

Organization/institution: .....

Position held: .....

Number of years working in tourism:.....

Period of time at current job:.....

Average hours of work per week: .....

Availability of job: whole year/.....months a year

### General questions

- What has been the influence of tourism on your household? And on your community in general?

.....

- What are the most important benefits of tourism for your household? And for your community?

.....

- What are the most important disadvantages of tourism for your household? And for your community?

.....

- Overall, what is your opinion of tourism in your community?

.....

- Would you want more or less tourism in the future in your community?

.....

- What could be done, as far as you're concerned, in order to improve tourism in your community?

.....

Questions on economic impacts
-------------------------------

- Has your household income changed due to tourism? Please elaborate answer.

.....

- How has tourism changed your standard of living?

.....

- Are you satisfied with the compensation you get for the provision of tourism activities? (i.e. fair compensation?)

.....

- In your perception, how secure is your job in tourism? (i.e. steady job)

.....

- Has tourism created jobs in your community? Please elaborate answer.

.....

- How has tourism influenced profits, sales, jobs and tax revenue in your community?

.....

- What has been the influence of tourism on the cost of living in your community? (i.e. increase in prices for goods and services, increase in prices and land?)

.....

- Do you think that tourism can function as a diversification strategy? (meaning locals/communities are not reliant on only one industry) Please elaborate.

.....

Questions on socio-cultural impacts
-------------------------------------

- Has tourism influenced the prosperity of yourself and that of others in your community in which you are active? (Spill over effects)

.....

- Has tourism changed your lifestyle and that of others in your community? (i.e. loss in traditional lifestyle through the demonstration effect. locals can potentially adapt their lifestyle such as wearing different clothes, eating different food, etc.) Please elaborate answer.

.....

- Has tourism been of benefit to your personal development? (i.e. acquiring of knowledge, particular skills, language, etc.)

.....

- What is your attitude towards tourism? And the community's attitude towards tourism (i.e. do tourists behave properly? Attitudes can be: euphoria, apathy, irritation, antagonism towards tourism). Please elaborate answer.

.....

- To your knowledge, has tourism induced criminal activities (e.g. robbery, drugs trafficking, and violence), illegal drug use and excessive drinking in your community?

.....

- Has tourism provided opportunities for employment for women as well? (i.e. are employment opportunities in tourism evenly distributed in your community?) Please elaborate answer.

.....

- How has tourism influenced the authenticity of local culture in your community? (i.e. cultural authenticity of local culture diminishes or the contrast; rejuvenation of arts, crafts and local culture?)

.....

<b>Questions on environmental impacts</b>
---

- What effects does tourism have on the preservation of the local built environment? (i.e. are traditional buildings and cultural heritage better preserved as a result of tourism) Negative effects? (i.e. decrease of cultural and scenic environment in favour of hotels and other tourism-related businesses).

.....

- What effects does tourism have on the preservation of the natural environment (i.e. maintenance of natural sites as a result of tourism)?

.....

- Has tourism brought about advancements in transport infrastructure (i.e. better roads, public transportation, airports) Please elaborate answer.

.....

- Has tourism had negative effects on the natural environment? (i.e. has tourism engendered shortages in water, aerial emissions, generation of solid and liquid waste, depletion of forest, destruction of coral reefs, etc.). Please elaborate answer.

.....

\*\*\*\*\*END OF INTERVIEW\*\*\*\*\*

**Other comments**

## Appendix 2

### Department Geography, Planning and Environment

### Nijmegen School of Management

Thomas van Aquinostraat 3  
P.O. Box 9108  
NL-6500 HK Nijmegen  
The Netherlands

Telephone ++31 24 361  
1925/2099  
Fax ++31 24 361 2379

[www.ru.nl/nsm](http://www.ru.nl/nsm)

To whom it may concern

Our reference

Your reference

Telephone

Date

7 November 2016

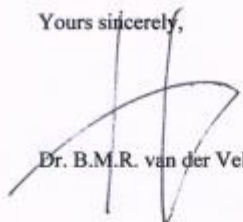
Subject

E-mail

Dear Sir/Madam

As coordinator of the Master Thesis in Human Geography at the Radboud University Nijmegen, I hereby state that Koen Verkooijen in fulfilling his internship with FootPrint Travel, is staying in Indonesia as part of a compulsory assignment required to complete the Master's program in Human Geography. Koen Verkooijen is a registered Master student in the Department of Geography, Planning and Environment of the Nijmegen School of Management

Yours sincerely,

  
Dr. B.M.R. van der Velde

Radboud Universiteit

