

**TCD FIELD RESEARCH GRANT**  
**ACTIVITY REPORT**

Name : Muhammad Ikbal Putera  
Advisor : Dr.Taylor V. Stein  
Co. Members : (1) Dr. Marilyn Swisher (2) Dr. Brijesh Thapa  
Research Title : Investigating Tourists Motivation for Visiting National Park: Case of Komodo National Park, Indonesia

## **1. Introduction**

Tourism is widely considered one of the world's largest and rapidly growing industries (Mutanga *et al.*, 2017; Jarvis *et. al.*, 2016; Murphy, 2013). There are many tourism types and forms were introduced to global population. For example, McKercher and du Cros (2014) used the term of cultural tourism, which refer to a form of tourism that relies on a destination's cultural heritage assets and transforms them into products that can be consumed by tourists. Timothy (2011) explained heritage tourism as people visiting heritage places or viewing historical resources and it encompasses all elements of the human past and the visitor experience as well as desires associated with them. These term was formed to differentiate various kind of tourism activity based on their unique attributes. In addition to various types of tourism, this study is mainly focus on ecotourism.

Ecotourism defined as responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment, sustains the well-being of the local people and involves interpretation and education (The International Ecotourism Society (TIES), 2015). Reimer and Walter (2013) stated that ecotourism aim to promote ecological sustainability, preserving the natural attraction that draws in tourists. Ecotourism is a powerful market force with between 5% to 10% of global travel market place which becomes one of the fastest growing sectors in tourism industry. It provides an annual global growth rate of 5% (Verdugo *et al.*, 2016; Lu and Stepchenkova, 2012). Investigation of the travel experiences and the satisfaction of ecotourists is crucial for the long-term success of ecotourism products and destinations. Ecotourists are likely to perceive ecotourism site visits in terms of their expressive experience rather than merely as utilitarian transaction (Verdugo *et al.*, 2016; Chan and Baum, 2007b). In order to be able to determine experience and satisfaction as ecotourism outcomes, it is required to examine the tourist motivation.

Motivation refers to a state of needs that impels an individual toward certain types of actions that are seen as likely to bring satisfaction (Moutinho, 1993; Schiffman *et al.*, 2011). Griffiths (2012) defines motivation as a driving force that originally rooted from physiological or psychological needs that are at times unknown to the individual. A triggering question posed by Lundberg (1972) that asked "why do people travel?" had been widely influenced researchers globally to investigate people motivation in the field of tourism as the basis of tourist behavior. Identification of motivations is the first step towards generating destination plans, because this explains why tourist plan a trip and

decide which type of experience, destination or activity they want (Caber and Albayrak, 2016; Kim, Lee and Klenosky, 2003).

Previous research on ecotourism has focused on travel behavior patterns, market segmentation, ecotourism benefits, travel motivations, ecotourism activities (Lu and Stepchenkova, 2012) as well as research on psychological factors towards ecotourists' experience and satisfaction (Verdugo et al., 2016). In addition, many studies had been conducted to explore tourists' motivations in various events such as motivation for participating in festivals (Schofield and Thompson, 2007), visiting rural settings (Devesa et al., 2010), visiting national parks (Kim et al., 2003), participating in white-water rafting (Fluker and Turner, 2000) and enjoying rock climbing activity (Caber and Albayrak, 2016).

The purpose of this research was (1) to investigate differences of tourist motivations based on socio-demographic variables; (2) to investigate the relationship between tourist motivations with socio-demographic variables; (3) to investigate the relationship between tourist motivations with destination image; (4) to investigate the relationship between tourist motivations with World Heritage brand and values; (5) to investigate the relationship between tourist motivations with tourist overall satisfaction. This research operationalized push and pull framework (Dann, 1977), destination image theory (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991), World Heritage concept (UNESCO, 1976), tourist overall satisfaction and socio-demographic variables. The research was conducted at Komodo National Park, Indonesia from May – August 2018 (4 months). The findings were expected to be beneficial for park managers in identifying tourists accordingly and provides inputs for the park's marketing management plan. This research was expected to add to the body of knowledge by providing evidence in order to extend the domain of theories that were being used within this research in different research settings.

## **2. Theoretical Framework**

### **2.1 Push and Pull Framework**

This theory proposed by Dann (1977). It is comprised of push factors (motivations) and pull factors (site preferences). Push factors reflects the psychological drivers of behavior (Wu and Pearce, 2014) such as the desire for escape, relaxation, or adventure. Meanwhile, pull factors are considered to be external, situational, or cognitive motivations such as destination attributes and leisure infrastructure (Devesa et al., 2010). Push factors could be identified such as desire to escape from everyday environment, novelty, social interaction and prestige (Kim et al., 2003). Push factors are related to tourists' desire (Hsu et al., 2009) and influence them to travel (Mehmetoglu, 2012). On the other hand, pull factor is which tourist wishes to experience something personally. It can be beautiful scenery, unique culture, events, unique environment. Mutanga et al. (2017) added climate, history and sport as example of pull factors. Pull factors enable researchers to figure out when, where, and how people travel (Prayag and Ryan, 2011). It also includes environmental features that attract people to specific destinations (Dann, 1977; Klenosky, 2002;

Chen and Chen, 2015). Push and pull framework is proved to be an effective and user-friendly approach to observe travel behaviors (Kim and Lee, 2002; Kim, Lee and Klenosky, 2003, 2002; Prayag and Hosany, 2014; Chen and Chen, 2015).

## 2.2 Tourists perception of destination image

According to Echtner and Ritchie (1991), destination image is defined as

*“The perceptions of individual destination attributes...[and] the holistic impression made by the destination”. It ... consists of functional characteristic, concerning the more tangible aspects of the destination and psychological characteristics, concerning the more intangible aspects. Furthermore, it ... can be arranged on a continuum ranging from traits which can be commonly used to compare all destinations to those which are unique to very few destinations”.*

Tasci et al. (2007), defined destination image as an interactive system of thoughts, opinions, feelings, visualizations and intentions toward a destination. There are 3 main component exists, cognitive (refer to what we know about an object), affective (refer to how we feel about what we know) and conative (refer to how we act on this information) (Boulding, 1956). Gunn (1988) argue destination image evolves at two levels, an organic image and induced imaged. Organic image is which for each person derives from a long history of non-touristic-direct communication, while induced image is an image derived from a conscious effort of development, promotion, advertising and publicity (Gunn, 1988). Gunn suggests that image building should aim at promoting the modification of an induced image instead of organic image. The variables for which image is found to be effective are region of residence, origin of visitors, distance from destination, time spent at a destination/length of trip, enjoyment, positive evaluations of the destination or satisfaction with the destination, revisit intention, willingness to recommend the destination, intention to visit, support for tourism development, desirability of the destination, trip-planning time frame, budgeted travel costs, the likelihood of repeat travel, and the likelihood of choosing the designation for the next vacation (Tasci et al., 2007). The findings of destination image would be useful for site managerial improvement, theoretical and methodological support also provide future research suggestions (Tasci et al., 2007).

## 2.3 World Heritage brand and value

Branding plays a key role in the sustainability of protected areas (King et al., 2012) as well a fundamental role in the sustainability of heritage sites and destinations (King et al., 2012). The World Heritage is a tool that can be used to assist branding and shaping destination image of an area, particularly national park. It was originally proposed in 1972 at the ‘Convention concerning the Protection of the World’s Cultural and Natural Heritage’, which later adopted by UNESCO and came into force in 1976 (Leask and Fyall, 2006). The purpose of the Convention is to ensure the identification, protection, conservation, presentation and transmission to future generations of cultural and natural heritage of outstanding universal value (UNESCO, 2005a). In addition, World Heritage Committee was established later on in order to coordinate

the inscription process, which aim to encourage conservation of the resources within the designated sites and surrounding buffer zones on a local level and also to foster a sense of collective global and responsibility via international cooperation, exchange and support (Leask and Fyall, 2006). However, many sites were popular even prior to the inscription and empirical testing has not fully substantiated the effectiveness of the designation in generating income, tourism or site protection (Baral et al., 2017; Buckley, 2004; Dewar et al., 2012; Fyall and Rakic, 2006; Hall, 2006; Hall and Piggin, 2002; Hazen, 2008, 2009; Jimura, 2011; Thapa, 2007; Timothy and Boyd, 2006; Tucker and Emge, 2010; Yan and Morrison, 2007; Yang et al., 2010). Moreover, many researchers have noted that most visitors to World Heritage Sites are unaware of the designation, and even those who are aware are often unsure of what it actually means in practice, calling into question the value of the World Heritage label (Baral et al., 2017; Dewar et al., 2012; Hall and Piggin, 2002; Hazen, 2009; King, 2011; King and Halpenny, 2014; Leask and Fyall, 2006; Nicholas and Thapa, 2010; Poria et al., 2011a, 2011b, 2013; Wang et al., 2015; Williams, 2004; Yan and Morrison, 2007). In addition, recent managers in this particular study site were also not fully comprehend in how to employ the label, how the label could be given and what tasks need to be fulfilled as its responsibility to hold the prestigious label. There was no transfer knowledge from the previous or even older managers related to the inscription process of the site. Moreover, Borges et al. (2011) stated that the use of World Heritage emblem is not well done in many natural areas. In order to ensure the consistency in how sites are inscribed and managed, the World Heritage program has identified outstanding universal value, integrity (and the related idea of unimpaired condition) and authenticity as important guiding values to assess the quality of nominated sites (Baral et al., 2017). Thus, it is imperative to assess for effective site management and protection in order to maintain outstanding universal values based on visitor expectations, perspectives and behaviors (Baral et al., 2017; Boyd and Timothy, 2001; Gu et al., 2013; Li et al., 2008; Nicholas and Thapa, 2010; Pederson, 2002; Shackley, 1998; Wang et al., 2015).

#### 2.4 Tourists satisfaction

Satisfaction is the key survival of any type of business, which has driven a profound investigation into satisfaction, in the areas of both marketing and tourism (Castellanos-Verdugo et al., 2016). Satisfaction is defined as a pleasurable feeling or fulfilment resulting from the customer's comparison of product performance to some pre-purchase standard (Mutanga et al., 2017; Oviedo-Garcia et al., 2014) and an overall post-purchase evaluation (Devesa et al., 2010, Sun et al., 2013; Yoon et al., 2010). Tourists' satisfaction is an individual emotional state after experiencing the trip (Baker and Crompton, 2000). Hill and Alexander (2006) further point out that tourist satisfaction can be best achieved if destinations strive to fulfil or even exceed their clients' expectation. The higher the level of satisfaction with the tourism product consumed, the greater the likelihood that tourists will visit that destination repeatedly and or recommend the destination to someone else (Kim et al., 2014). Tourist

satisfaction is important in marketing a destination as it is used to promote repeat visits to a tourism destination (Mutanga et al., 2017; Tsiotsou and Vasioti, 2006). Thus, it important to measure satisfaction, because it is derived from services and experiences the tourists receive from various tourism destinations (Yilmaz & Bititci, 2006). In this study, tourist satisfaction is the dependent outcome which determined from wildlife experience and interaction.

## 2.5 Socio-Demographic Variables

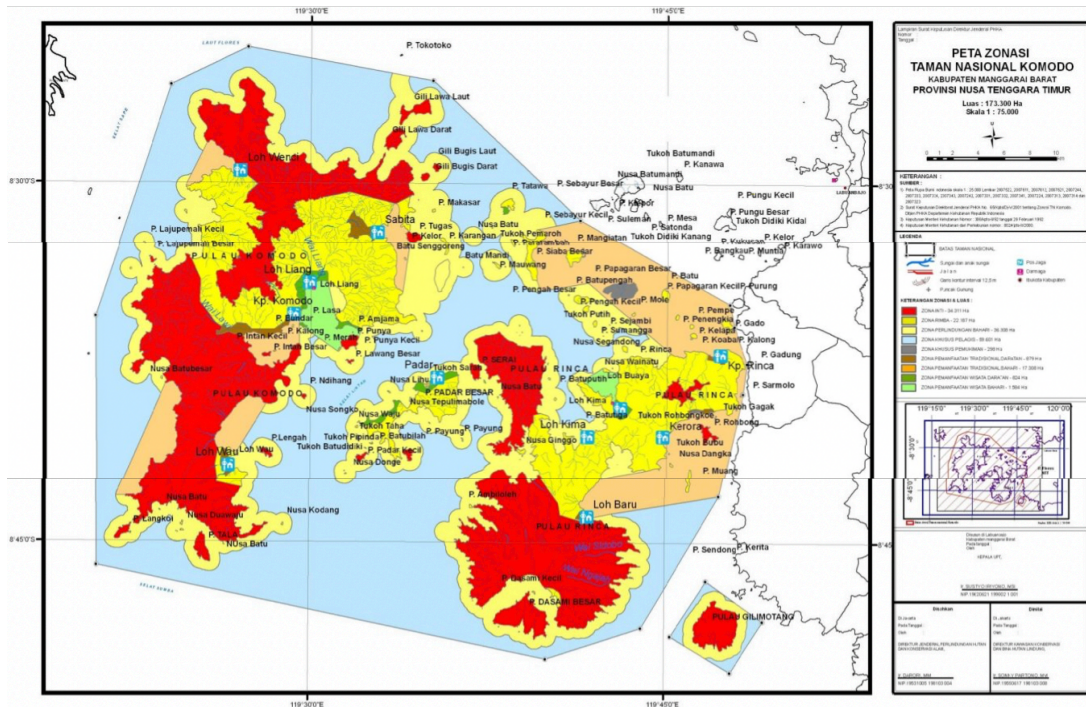
Socio-demographic variables that were being assigned within this research were comprise of nationality, country of origin, gender, age, marital status, educational background, occupation and income (USD) per year. These variables will be used in order to provide robust description and characteristic of the samples that will be collected on-sites.

## 3. Methodology

### 3.1 Study Site

Komodo National Park is located nearby the town of Labuan Bajo, Flores Island, Province of Nusa Tenggara Timur, Indonesia. It is astronomically located between 119<sup>00</sup>9'00" – 119<sup>00</sup>55'00" Eastern Longitude and 8<sup>00</sup>20'00" – 8<sup>00</sup>53'00" Southern Latitude while geographically bordered with Flores Island-Province of Nusa Tenggara Timur (East), Banta Island and Sumbawa Island-Province of Nusa Tenggara Barat (West), Sumba Strait (South) and Flores Sea (North). Komodo National Park is managed by Komodo National Park Bureau under Indonesian Ministry of Environment and Forestry. It consists of more than 173.300 hectares of areas (40.728 of lands and 132.572 of marine territories). Komodo National Park was established in March 6<sup>th</sup> 1980 along with the other 4 first national parks designation (Ujung Kulon National Park, Gunung Gede Pangrango National Park, Gunung Leuseur National Park and Baluran National Park) by the decree of the Indonesian Minister of Agriculture (Laporan RENSTRA Balai Taman Nasional Komodo, 2010). The status of Komodo National Park also being strengthen by the decree of the Indonesian Minister of Forestry through Letter of Decree No. 306/Kpts-II/1992 on February 29<sup>th</sup> 1992 for the park's appointment as well as Letter of Decree No. 172/Kpts-II/2000 on June 29<sup>th</sup> 2000 for its marine territory determination (Laporan RENSTRA Balai Taman Nasional Komodo, 2010). The main purpose of this designation was to preserve the existence of Komodo dragon (*Varanus komodoensis*) as the Indonesian national creature along with its environment including marine biodiversity which becoming of the most touristic interest by the coral reefs and presence of manta rays (*Manta birostris*). According to Komodo National Park Extension Officer, there are 3 villages included inside the park, they are Pasir Panjang Village (Kampung Rinca and Kampung Kerora) which consist of 1,579 head households, Komodo Village (1,735 head households) and Papagarang Village (1,252 head households). Most of the villagers work as fisherman, sculptors and local guides.

Komodo National Park was not only being strengthen nationally but also internationally which was designated as Man and Biosphere Reserve (MAB) on 1977 and also designated as the World Heritage Site on 1991 by the UNESCO. Komodo National Park also being chosen as The Real Wonder of the World (The Real WOW!) by Indonesian Marketers in 2011, The New 7 Wonder of Nature by the New 7 Wonders Organization in 2012 and World's Top 10 Destinations by National Geographic Magazine in their special issue of '100 Best Destinations Around the World in Four Seasons" in July 2017 (Komodo National Park Public Affair Data).



**Fig.1 Komodo National Park Zone Map**

(Source: Decree of Director General of Forest Protection and Natural Conservation)

The main attractive destination sites in Komodo National Park are the Rinca Island, southern Padar Island, Komodo Island, Pink beach, Gili Lawa shores and Batu Bolong diving site. The unique object that can be found both in Rinca and Komodo Islands is the Komodo dragon itself. Even though, those islands have their own characteristics such as savannah ecosystem in Rinca Island, while beach and lowland ecosystem in Komodo Island. Visitors who usually have shorter time of visit will prefer to visit Rinca Island which usually takes 2 hours from nearby town by wooden boat than Komodo Island which will spend at least 1-2 hours longer. Padar Island, particularly its southern part is famous because of the phenomenal panorama that can be seen from the peak. Visitors usually takes pictures from above and produce marvelous photos. Komodo Dragons are rarely seen in a whole Padar Island area. Nearby Padar Island, there is a shore with pinkish colored sands called Pink beach which is located in Komodo Island as well as Gili Lawa

shores. Gili Lawa shores also often provides unique panorama for visitors. Komodo National Park has more than 50 diving sites, but there is particularly one that well known called Batu Bolong which is the easiest spot to observe the gentle manta rays.

Komodo National Park has attracted more than 107.000 tourists from more than 65 countries across the world in 2016 and generated non-tax state revenue for the country about 22,000,000,000 Indonesian Rupiah or equal as US\$ 1,700,000 in 2016 (Komodo National Park Public Affair Data, 2016). It was collected from park ticketing fees such as entrance fee, tracking and wildlife observation fee, diving fee, snorkeling fee, boat fee, etc.). The park also provided benefits for local people lives inside the park, local people lives on Labuan Bajo, also offered tourism opportunities for tour operators locally and even globally. Local people can learn about ecotourism and offered vacancies by business operators which will enhance their income. Therefore, the existence of Komodo dragon, marine biodiversity and Komodo National Park Bureau were very important and correlated each other to produce advantages for all related stakeholders.

Komodo National Park was the top five revenue producer within Ministry of Environment and Forestry on 2017. The enhancement of tourist visitation annually given positive impact for the national foreign exchange as well as to the local economy. On 2016, there were 107.000 tourists came, while on 2017 there were 119.000 tourists came. Most of the tourists that came into this park were foreign tourists. This is interesting due to Komodo National Park neither has any particular marketing management framework nor performed large scale promotion and advertisement. The distance from Jakarta, the capital city of Indonesia also quite far. It takes more than 2 hours by flight from Jakarta to Labuan Bajo. Most of the foreign tourists flew from Singapore transit to Bali (which the nearest largest airport located and well-known world tourism destination) and then to continue flew to Labuan Bajo. Nowadays, domestic tourists' visitation was having a high fluctuation compared than years ago. This makes Komodo National Park as an interesting place to investigate factors that influence tourist motivation for visiting national park.

### 3.2 Study Design

This research was conducted based on cross-sectional research design. Questionnaires were administered for data collection which comprises of closed-ended questions and open-ended questions. Random sampling was assigned to recruit the samples during research by intercepting tourists on sites and asked whether they would be willing to participate voluntarily. Samples had the right to refused to participate in this research. There were 289 samples collected during this research. The response rate of this research is 71%. Screening criteria that was being employed was range of age. The samples' age was limited only from 18 until 101 years old. Anonymity was maintained to embody participants' secrecy. Pilot test was conducted prior to the actual data collection for 3 weeks at Loh Liang Resort, Komodo Island. The samples collected during pilot test were 41 respondents. Reliability and validity test was performed in order to identify whether the items and questions were appropriate and has strong internal validity power.

The result was being used to improve the main questionnaire prior actual data collection. This research will be analyze using statistical analyses approaches.

### 3.3 Data Collection

The research was conducted at two sites, Loh Buaya Resort-Rinca Island and Loh Liang Resort-Komodo Island. This study was conducted for 4 months started on May to August 2018, which was the peak season of tourists' visitation to the park. The data collection was started from 06.00 am until 05.00 pm. Field assistants were employed since the beginning of data collection in order to better improve efficiency and effectiveness of this research.

### 3.4 Data analysis

The data analysis was calculated using SPSS software. Data analyses consist of three different statistical approaches, univariate, multivariate and bivariate. Univariate analysis was performed to create descriptive interpretation and frequency distribution of all questions within the questionnaire. Multivariate analysis was assigned in order to create dendrogram through cluster analysis. The responses that were being gathered were clustered into 3 groups; low, middle and high. Mean scores were calculated for each groups created. In order to prove that clustering the responses into 3 groups were appropriate, ANOVA test was employed to observed whether the groups have a strong predictive ability and significantly different one another. Duncan test was used to observe the significance level of each group. The result concludes that by clustering into 3 groups were appropriate and they proved significant. Chi-Square test as part of bivariate analysis was performed in order to observe the significance between tourist motivation with other variables. Spearman correlation was also assigned to observed the correlation between motivation, world heritage and destination image variables.

## 4. Results

The results were still on process and need further observation prior to final interpretation.

## 5. Difficulties

While conducting data collection on-sites, there were many problems that could be identified. It was stretched out from infrastructure and technical issues until nature disturbance happened during research periods. During May – August 2018, Komodo National Park was having many heavy constructions on sites which causing researcher and the assistants had no place to live. This made the research was not going well as planned. Furthermore, Komodo National Park was being assigned to be one of the primary locations for the International Monetary Fund Annual Meeting, thus managing the permission to conduct research was strict and difficult. The weather was not good for some moments during this research periods, due to four massive earthquakes that stroke Lombok, an island town that located not far from Komodo National Park position. These natural disasters had caused high tides and waves on the surrounding ocean, which



locked the researcher and assistants to stay on-sites for couple weeks and could not do much. Electricity was also being shut down since the electricity tower was having disturb. Those unexpected events had caused the tourist numbers to decrease for some weeks not as many as usual condition.

## References

- Alexander, J., & Hill, N. (2006). Handbook of Customer Satisfaction and Loyalty Measurement.
- Andereck, K. L., & Nyaupane, G. P. (2011). Exploring the nature of tourism and quality of life perceptions among residents. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(3), 248-260.
- Baker, D. A., & Crompton, J. L. (2000). Quality, satisfaction and behavioral intentions. *Annals of tourism research*, 27(3), 785-804.
- Ballantyne, R., Packer, J., & Falk, J. (2011). Visitors' learning for environmental sustainability: Testing short-and long-term impacts of wildlife tourism experiences using structural equation modelling. *Tourism Management*, 32(6), 1243-1252.
- Baral, N., Hazen, H., & Thapa, B. (2017). Visitor perceptions of World Heritage value at Sagarmatha (Mt. Everest) National Park, Nepal. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 25(10), 1494-1512.
- Boemah, D. L. (2011). Factors determining the interpretive effectiveness of ecotour guides in South African national parks: an environmental interpretation model (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria).
- Borges, M. A., Carbone, G., Bushell, R., & Jaeger, T. (2011). Sustainable tourism and natural World Heritage: Priorities for action. IUCN.
- Boulding, K. E. (1956). General systems theory—the skeleton of science. *Management science*, 2(3), 197-208.
- Boyd, S. W., & Timothy, D. J. (2001). Developing partnerships: tools for interpretation and management of World Heritage Sites. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 26(1), 47-53.
- Caber, M., & Albayrak, T. (2016). Push or pull? Identifying rock climbing tourists' motivations. *Tourism Management*, 55, 74-84.
- Chalip, L., & Fairley, S. (2001). Positioning the Gold Coast in international tourist markets. Gold Coast visioning report. Gold Coast, Queensland: CRC for Sustainable Tourism.
- Chen, M. J., & Miller, D. (1994). Competitive attack, retaliation and performance: An expectancy-valence framework. *Strategic Management Journal*, 15, 85-102.
- Chikuta, O. (2015). The development of a universal accessibility framework for National Parks in South Africa and Zimbabwe (Doctoral dissertation).
- Chon, K. S. (1990). The role of destination image in tourism: A review and discussion. *The tourist review*, 45(2), 2-9.
- Dann, G. M. (1977). Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of tourism research*, 4(4), 184-194.
- Davis, D., Banks, S., Birtles, A., Valentine, P., & Cuthill, M. (1997). Whale sharks in Ningaloo Marine Park: managing tourism in an Australian marine protected area. *Tourism Management*, 18(5), 259-271.
- Devesa, M., Laguna, M., & Palacios, A. (2010). The role of motivation in visitor satisfaction: Empirical evidence in rural tourism. *Tourism management*, 31(4), 547-552.

Dewar, K., Du Cros, H., & Li, W. (2012). The search for World Heritage brand awareness beyond the iconic heritage: a case study of the Historic Centre of Macao. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 7(4), 323-339.

Du Cros, H., & McKercher, B. (2014). *Cultural tourism*. Routledge.

Echtner, C. M., & Ritchie, J. B. (1991). The meaning and measurement of destination image. *Journal of tourism studies*, 2(2), 2-12.

Fang, C. Y. (2008). The moderating effect of impression management on the organizational politics performance relationship. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 79(3).

Fernandez, E. J., Tamborski, M. A., Pickens, S. R., & Timberlake, W. (2009). Animal–visitor interactions in the modern zoo: Conflicts and interventions. *Applied Animal Behaviour Science*, 120(1), 1-8.

Fluker, M. R., & Turner, L. W. (2000). Needs, motivations, and expectations of a commercial whitewater rafting experience. *Journal of travel research*, 38(4), 380-389.

Fredline, E., & Faulkner, B. (2001). *International market analysis of wildlife tourism*. Gold Coast: CRC for Sustainable Tourism.

Fuster, H., Oberst, U., Griffiths, M., Carbonell, X., Chamarro, A., & Talarn, A. (2012). Psychological motivation in online role-playing games: A study of Spanish World of Warcraft players. *Anales de Psicología/Annals of Psychology*, 28(1), 274-280.

Fyall, A., & Rakic, T. (2006). The future market for World Heritage sites. *Managing world heritage sites*, 159-175.

Goodwin, H. (1996). In pursuit of ecotourism. *Biodiversity & Conservation*, 5(3), 277-291.

Gribble, P. A., Hertel, J., Denegar, C. R., & Buckley, W. E. (2004). The effects of fatigue and chronic ankle instability on dynamic postural control. *Journal of athletic training*, 39(4), 321.

Gu, Y., Du, J., Tang, Y., Qiao, X., Bossard, C., & Deng, G. (2013, May). Challenges for sustainable tourism at the Jiuzhaigou World Natural Heritage site in western China. In *Natural Resources Forum* (Vol. 37, No. 2, pp. 103-112).

Gunn, C. A. (1988). *Vacationscape: Designing tourist regions*. Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Hall, C. M. (2006). Implementing the World Heritage Convention: what happens after listing?. *Managing world heritage sites*, 20-34.

Hall, C. M., & Piggin, R. (2002). Tourism business knowledge of World Heritage sites: A New Zealand case study. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 4(5), 401-411.

Hall, C. M., & Piggin, R. (2002). Tourism business knowledge of World Heritage sites: A New Zealand case study. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 4(5), 401-411.

Hazen, H. (2008). “Of outstanding universal value”: The challenge of scale in applying the World Heritage Convention at national parks in the US. *Geoforum*, 39(1), 252-264.

Hazen, H. (2009). Valuing natural heritage: park visitors' values related to World Heritage sites in the USA. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 12(2), 165-181.

Hector, C.L. (1996). *Tourism, ecotourism, and protected areas: The state of nature-based tourism around the world and guidelines for its development*. Vermont: IUCN Publication.

Hsu, T. K., Tsai, Y. F., & Wu, H. H. (2009). The preference analysis for tourist choice of destination: A case study of Taiwan. *Tourism management*, 30(2), 288-297.

Jarvis, D., Stoeckl, N., & Liu, H. B. (2016). The impact of economic, social and environmental factors on trip satisfaction and the likelihood of visitors returning. *Tourism Management*, 52, 1-18.

- Jimura, T. (2011). The impact of world heritage site designation on local communities—A case study of Ogimachi, Shirakawa-mura, Japan. *Tourism Management*, 32(2), 288-296.
- Job, H., & Paesler, F. (2013). Links between nature-based tourism, protected areas, poverty alleviation and crises—the example of Wasini Island (Kenya). *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, 1, 18-28.
- Kamri, T., & Radam, A. (2013). Visitors' visiting motivation: Bako national park, Sarawak. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 101, 495-505.
- Kim, E. E. K., Mattila, A. S., & Baloglu, S. (2011). Effects of gender and expertise on consumers' motivation to read online hotel reviews. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 52(4), 399-406.
- Kim, S., & Lee, C. (2002). Push and pull relationships. *Annals of tourism research*, 29(1), 257-260.
- Kim, S. S., Lee, C. K., & Klenosky, D. B. (2003). The influence of push and pull factors at Korean national parks. *Tourism management*, 24(2), 169-180.
- King, L. M. (2011). Investigating the role of the World Heritage brand in attracting visitors to protected areas in Queensland, Australia (Doctoral dissertation, James Cook University).
- King, L. M., & Halpenny, E. A. (2014). Communicating the World Heritage brand: visitor awareness of UNESCO's World Heritage symbol and the implications for sites, stakeholders and sustainable management. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 22(5), 768-786.
- King, L. M., McCool, S. F., Fredman, P., & Halpenny, E. (2012). Protected area branding strategies to increase stewardship among park constituencies. *Parks*, 18(2), 54-63.
- Komodo National Park Public Affair. 2016. Data Pelayanan Publik. Labuan Bajo: Balai Taman Nasional Komodo, Indonesia.
- Kruger, M., & Saayman, M. (2010). Travel motivation of tourists to Kruger and Tsitsikamma National Parks: A comparative study. *South African journal of wildlife research*, 40(1), 93-102.
- Laporan Rencana Pengelolaan 25 Tahun Taman Nasional Komodo. 2000. Labuan Bajo: Balai Taman Nasional Komodo, Indonesia
- Leask, A., & Fyall, A. (Eds.). (2006). *Managing world heritage sites*. Routledge.
- Leiper, N. (1979). The framework of tourism: Towards a definition of tourism, tourist, and the tourist industry. *Annals of tourism research*, 6(4), 390-407.
- Leiper, N. (1990). Tourist attraction systems. *Annals of tourism research*, 17(3), 367-384.
- Li, M., Wu, B., & Cai, L. (2008). Tourism development of World Heritage Sites in China: A geographic perspective. *Tourism Management*, 29(2), 308-319.
- Lian Chan, J. K., & Baum, T. (2007). Ecotourists' perception of ecotourism experience in Lower Kinabatangan, Sabah, Malaysia. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 15(5), 574-590.
- Lu, W., & Stepchenkova, S. (2012). Ecotourism experiences reported online: Classification of satisfaction attributes. *Tourism management*, 33(3), 702-712.
- Lundberg, D. E. (1972). Why tourists travel. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 12(4), 64-70.
- Mehmetoglu, M. (2012). What determines holidaying interest? Extrinsic versus intrinsic motivations. *Journal of Social, Evolutionary, and Cultural Psychology*, 6(1), 93.
- Moscardo, G. (1998). Interpretation and sustainable tourism: Functions, examples and principles. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 9(1), 2.

Murphy, P. E. (2013). *Tourism: A community approach* (RLE Tourism). Routledge.

Mutanga, C. N., Vengesayi, S., Chikuta, O., Muboko, N., & Gandiwa, E. (2017). Travel motivation and tourist satisfaction with wildlife tourism experiences in Gonarezhou and Matusadona National Parks, Zimbabwe. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, 20, 1-18.

Nicholas, L., & Thapa, B. (2010). Visitor perspectives on sustainable tourism development in the pitons management area world heritage site, St. Lucia. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 12(5), 839-857.

Oh, C. O., & Hammitt, W. E. (2010). Determining economic benefits of park trails: Management implications. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 28(2).

Orams, M. B. (1996). A conceptual model of tourist-wildlife interaction: the case for education as a management strategy. *The Australian Geographer*, 27(1), 39-51.

Oviedo-García, M. Á., Vega-Vázquez, M., Castellanos-Verdugo, M., & Reyes-Guizar, L. A. (2016). Tourist satisfaction and the souvenir shopping of domestic tourists: Extended weekends in Spain. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(8), 845-860.

Page, S. J. & Dowling, R. K. (2002). *Ecotourism*. Chapter 9, pp. 249-254. London: Pearson Education Limited.

Pearce, D. G., & Wilson, P. M. (1995). Wildlife-viewing tourists in New Zealand. *Journal of Travel Research*, 34(2), 19-26.

Pedersen, A. (2002). *Managing tourism at world heritage sites. A practical manual for World Heritage site managers*. ICOMOS.

Poria, Y., Reichel, A., & Cohen, R. (2011). World heritage site—Is it an effective brand name? A case study of a religious heritage site. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(5), 482-495.

Poria, Y., Reichel, A., & Cohen, R. (2011). World Heritage Site: an effective brand for an archeological site?. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 6(3), 197-208.

Poria, Y., Reichel, A., & Cohen, R. (2013). Tourists perceptions of World Heritage Site and its designation. *Tourism Management*, 35, 272-274.

Prayag, G., & Ryan, C. (2011). The relationship between the 'push' and 'pull' factors of a tourist destination: The role of nationality—an analytical qualitative research approach. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 14(2), 121-143.

Prayag, G., & Hosany, S. (2014). When Middle East meets West: Understanding the motives and perceptions of young tourists from United Arab Emirates. *Tourism Management*, 40, 35-45.

Reimer, J. K., & Walter, P. (2013). How do you know it when you see it? Community-based ecotourism in the Cardamom Mountains of southwestern Cambodia. *Tourism Management*, 34, 122-132.

Reynolds, P. C., & Braithwaite, D. (2001). Towards a conceptual framework for wildlife tourism. *Tourism management*, 22(1), 31-42.

Ryan, C. (1998). Saltwater crocodiles as tourist attractions. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 6(4), 314-327.

Saayman, M., & Saayman, A. (2009). Why travel motivation and socio-demographics matter in managing a national park. *koedoe*, 51(1), 0-0.

Schofield, P., & Thompson, K. (2007). Visitor motivation, satisfaction and behavioral intention: the 2005 Naadam Festival, Ulaanbaatar. *International journal of tourism research*, 9(5), 329-344.

Scholtz, S., Miras, A. D., Chhina, N., Prectl, C. G., Sleeth, M. L., Daud, N. M., ... & Vincent, R. P. (2013). Obese patients after gastric bypass surgery have lower brain-hedonic responses to food than after gastric banding. *Gut*, gutjnl-2013.

Seibert, J.C. (1973). *Concepts of marketing management*. New York: Harper Row.

Shackley, M. (2009). *Visitor management*. Routledge.

Sun, X., Chi, C. G. Q., & Xu, H. (2013). Developing destination loyalty: The case of Hainan Island. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 43, 547-577.

Tasci, A. D., Gartner, W. C., & Tamer Cavusgil, S. (2007). Conceptualization and operationalization of destination image. *Journal of hospitality & tourism research*, 31(2), 194-223.

Thapa, B. (2007). Issues and challenges of world heritage sites in Nepal. *BAR INTERNATIONAL SERIES*, 1698, 23.

The International Ecotourism Society. (2015). What is ecotourism? <http://www.ecotourism.org/what-is-ecotourism> (Accessed March 1 2018).

Timothy, D. J. (2011). *Cultural heritage and tourism: An introduction*. Channel View Publications.

Timothy, D. J., & Boyd, S. W. (2006). World heritage sites in the Americas. *Managing world heritage sites*, 239-249.

Tsiotsou, R., & Vasioti, E. (2006). Satisfaction: A segmentation criterion for "short term" visitors of mountainous destinations. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 20(1), 61-73.

Tucker, H., & Emge, A. (2010). Managing a world heritage site: The case of Cappadocia. *Anatolia*, 21(1), 41-54.

UNESCO (2005a) World Heritage. <http://whc.unesco.org/en/about/> (accessed March 4 2018)

Wang, Z., Yang, Z., Wall, G., Xu, X., Han, F., Du, X., & Liu, Q. (2015). Is it better for a tourist destination to be a World Heritage Site? Visitors' perspectives on the inscription of Kanas on the World Heritage List in China. *Journal for nature conservation*, 23, 19-26.

Williams, F. (2004). What matters is who works: why every child matters to New Labour. Commentary on the DfES Green Paper Every Child Matters. *Critical Social Policy*, 24(3), 406-427.

Wu, M. Y., & Pearce, P. L. (2014). Chinese recreational vehicle users in Australia: A netnographic study of tourist motivation. *Tourism Management*, 43, 22-35.

Yan, G., So, S. I., Morrison, A. M., & Sun, Y. H. (2007). Activity segmentation of the international heritage tourism market to Taiwan. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 12(4), 333-347.

Yan, G., So, S. I., Morrison, A. M., & Sun, Y. H. (2007). Activity segmentation of the international heritage tourism market to Taiwan. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 12(4), 333-347.

Yang, C. H., Lin, H. L., & Han, C. C. (2010). Analysis of international tourist arrivals in China: The role of World Heritage Sites. *Tourism management*, 31(6), 827-837.

Yılmaz, Y., & Bititci, U. S. (2006). Performance measurement in tourism: a value chain model. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(4), 341-349.

Yoon, Y. S., Lee, J. S., & Lee, C. K. (2010). Measuring festival quality and value affecting visitors' satisfaction and loyalty using a structural approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(2), 335-342.

