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The Dynamics of Gender Differences on Tourism Governance in Indonesia

Cover Page Footnote

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The Dynamics of Gender Differences on Tourism Governance in Indonesia

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Abstract. Research on gender and tourism is very important at least because of three reasons. First, processes involved in tourism are constructed out of gender ideologies in the society. Second, gender relations contribute to the dynamics of the fluidity of gender identity in tourism. Finally, gender perspective is a tool for understanding the relationship between tourism and social process. Unfortunately, there have been limited studies on gender in tourism. This study offers empirical evidence of gender in tourism governance from Indonesia's experience. It assesses the gender differences in tourism governance by proposing three variables, namely involvement, competence, and barriers to women and men involvement in tourism governance. The study was conducted in Karangayar regency in Indonesia, with the survey method as a data collection technique. No less than four hundred respondents were recruited in the survey, comprising of two hundred men and two hundred women. Mokken scale analysis was employed to analyze the collected data. Using the gendered perspective framework, the findings show three results. First, there is significant difference in the involvement of men and women in Indonesia's tourism governance. Secondly, there is no significant difference between the competence of women and men in tourism governance. Lastly, it is found that there is no significant difference between the barriers of women and men in tourism governance. Therefore, while gender ideology still occurs in tourism governance, it has increasingly reduced.

Keywords: tourism governance, competence, involvement, barriers, gender, tourism development.

Abstrak. Riset tentang gender dan pariwisata sangatlah penting sekurang-kurangnya karena tiga hal. Pertama, proses keterlibatan perempuan dan laki-laki dalam pariwisata dibentuk oleh ideologi gender di masyarakat. Kedua, relasi gender berkontribusi terhadap dinamika dari cairnya identitas gender dalam pariwisata. Ketiga, perspektif gender merupakan suatu alat untuk memahami hubungan antara pariwisata dengan proses sosial. Sayangnya, studi tentang gender dalam bidang pariwisata sangatlah terbatas. Penelitian ini mengkaji bukti-bukti empiris tentang gender dalam tata kelola pariwisata dari pengalaman Indonesia, khususnya mengkaji tentang perbedaan gender dalam tata kelola pariwisata dilihat dari tiga variabel, yaitu keterlibatan, kompetensi dan hambatan perempuan dan laki-laki dalam tata kelola pariwisata. Penelitian ini dilakukan di Kabupaten Karangayar, Indonesia, dengan metode survei. Jumlah responden penelitian adalah 400 orang, terdiri dari 200 perempuan dan 200 laki-laki. Data yang terkumpul dianalisis dengan menggunakan analisis skala Mokken. Dengan menggunakan kerangka perspektif gender, hasil penelitian menemukan tiga hal. Pertama, ada perbedaan signifikan antara keterlibatan perempuan dan laki-laki pada tata kelola pariwisata di Indonesia. Kedua, tidak ada perbedaan signifikan antara kompetensi perempuan dan laki-laki dalam tata kelola pariwisata di Indonesia. Ketiga, tidak ada perbedaan signifikan antara hambatan perempuan dan laki-laki dalam tata kelola pariwisata di Indonesia. Secara singkat, ideologi gender masih terjadi dalam tata kelola pariwisata namun telah mencair.

Kata kunci: tata kelola pariwisata, kompetensi perempuan, keterlibatan perempuan, hambatan, pengembangan pariwisata

INTRODUCTION

Tourism development has the potential to contribute to the regional economy and to support the protection and preservation of the environment (Silva and Khatiwada, 2014; Merce et al., 2014; Kelkit et al., 2010). At the same time, it might cause pollution and environmental damage (Wearing et al., 2014). Therefore, it is important to develop good tourism governance.

Good tourism governance means the development of tourism on the basis of good governance principles, one of which is equality. According to Munshi (2004), good governance

indicates the exercise of political will for ensuring the material welfare of society and sustainable development with social justice. If this term is implemented in tourism development there would be equality between men and women in receiving equal benefit of tourism development.

Gender differences have rarely been studied in tourism research. Hall and Page (2014) indicate that gender is a marginal topic in tourism research. The discussion of tourism in gender related journals were mostly gender blind and only accounted for about 35 papers compared to those 228 papers in hospitality, leisure, sport and tourism journals (Figueroa-Domecq et al., 2015). This figure may indicate the lack of

gender issue perspective in tourism research. Meanwhile, research on gender and tourism is very important at least because of three reasons. First, processes involved in tourism are constructed out of gender ideologies in the society. Secondly, gender relations contribute to the dynamics of the fluidity of gender identity in tourism. Finally, gender perspective is a tool for understanding the relation between tourism and social process (Hall, Swain & Kinnaird, 2003).

This article aimed to examine tourism management from a gender perspective. The study focused on aspects of the involvement, competence and internal and external barriers of women and men in tourism development. This study used an ecofeminist perspective which purports that humans are interconnected with one another, and also related to nature. But every human being is not always aware of that connectedness, resulting in selfishness and violence between humans as well as human exploitation of nature.

The ecofeminist theory begins with the existence of environmentalists' views centered on humans and on the earth. Human-centered environmentalists claim that we will endanger ourselves if we endanger the environment. Therefore, we must have innovations to ensure that what we do is able to protect all forms of life and not endanger the ecosystem. According to these environmentalists, environmental values are instrumental and the environment exists not for itself, but for humans (Tong, 2014). These environmentalists survived until the late 1940s, and then a new generation of environmentalists centered on the earth emerged.

Earth-centered environmentalists position nature as organisms that have intrinsic and instrumental values and offer the term "environmental ethics". According to them, it is true if it is able to maintain the integrity, stability and beauty of the biotic community. These environmentalists also posit that small environmental systems are intertwined with each other, which then results in a very large ecosystem, where humans only become one of the parts. The largest ecosystem is nature, and morality is a problem for sentient (minded) beings to maintain its integrity, stability and beauty (Tong, 2014).

Using the ecofeminists' perspective, this article discusses whether the gender bias in the development of good tourism governance still occurs or has undergone a change in line with the implementation of gender mainstreaming both at the international level and in Indonesia. If the role division between men and women in good tourism governance is oriented towards the public role of men and the domestic role of women, and therefore there is still a gender bias and vice versa. In short, this study contributes to the body of knowledge in several ways. First, it contributes positively to literature on gender tourism. Second, it provides insight on how gender differences affect tourism development. Such insight will provide a deeper understanding of the different roles of men and women in the tourism development process (Overholt et al., 1991). Third, it will help in understanding the implementation of gender equality regulation in the tourism sector in Indonesia.

The study has some novelties compared to similar studies. Several studies have been carried out previously on tourism and environmental development in Indonesia (Khotimah, 2005; Pamulardi, 2006; and Nugroho & Aliyah, 2012). Most of those studies discussed about developing tourism strategy and managing tourism attraction. Although these studies are useful in understanding the development of tourism, they do

not specifically examine the role of gender in the development of tourism and the environment.

Meanwhile, earlier studies on gender and tourism largely focused on the income inequality between men and women (Seguino, 2000, Perks, 2012, Gupta et al., 2015). Women played multitasking roles (Szameitat et al., 2015), working in the tourism sector while performing their domestic responsibilities (Garcia-Ramon et al., 1995); others discussed the impacts of women's multitasking roles on their quality of life (Sabina and Nicolae, 2013), and the impact of developing ecofeminism concepts on environmental policy shifts that integrate gender equality and environmental sustainability in the 1970s (Buckingham, 2004).

Integration of gender equality into development is known as the term 'gender mainstreaming'. Gender mainstreaming requires the integration of gender perspectives in all policies and development programmes, including environmental development (Arora-Jonsson, 2014). To mainstream gender means to integrate gender concerns into every aspect of organization's priorities and procedures. For many, gender mainstreaming means integrating gender perspectives in all aspects of the development process, i.e. in the planning, budgeting, implementing, monitoring and evaluation of policies/programs/activities (March et al., 2005). 'Mainstreaming' means making gender concerns the responsibility of all in an organization, and ensuring that they are integrated into all structures and all work. In general, mainstreaming is understood as a welcome departure from an integrationist approach, which is simply concerned with allowing women access to development activities and bureaucracies. Gender mainstreaming is both a technical and political process, which requires shifts in organizational culture and ways of thinking, as well as in the goals, structures and the government resources allocation (Kardam, 2005).

The importance of gender integration in development is in line with the perspective of Hunter et al. (2004) who suggested that naturally, women have stronger engagement with their nature surrounding than men (Hunter et al., 2004), which in the long-run may have a positive impact in preserving tourism development. This might be based on fact that environmental damage gave more negative effect on women than on men (Shiva et al., 2005). Concrete examples of adverse effects of environmental damage on women include: increase in time taken to find clean water, which mostly affects women since finding water is considered their responsibility. Environmental issues become a certain danger to women in their reproductive functions such as during pregnancy or breastfeeding. Thus, having different perspectives on gender in tourism studies will contribute to some new insights on gender and tourism studies.

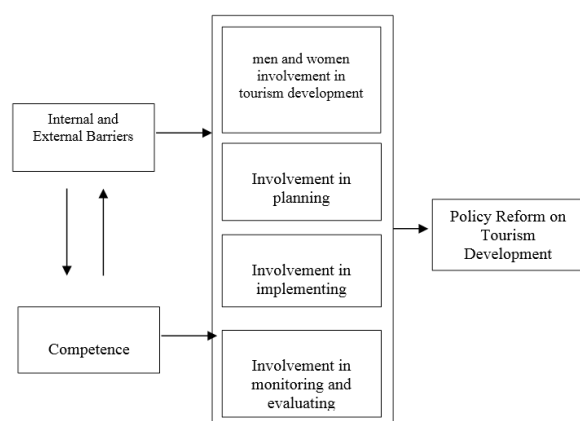
Such insight will help decision makers, politicians and researchers to obtain significant restructuring in tourism governance as suggested by Ferguson (2015). Tourism restructuring also needs the participation of all community members around the tourism site as their participation affects the result (Jordan et al., 2013).

Indonesia has diverse natural and cultural tourism potentials. However, regional development has potentially damaged the environment. Tourism, therefore, must be managed properly in order to be able to support the sustainability of existing resources as tourist attractions. The problem is that the involvement of women in the development of tourism

that supports environmental conservation is often overlooked. As a result, policies to empower women in the region have not been able to touch on the need to increase the capacity of women in the development of good tourism governance based on ecological-friendly tourism.

The theoretical framework that is at the basis of this study is elaborated. The framework is based on Farsari and Prastacos (2001), Overholt, Anderson, Cloud, & Austin (1991), and Camilleri (2017), and then it is adjusted to the Indonesian context. The indicators in the framework used in assessing the involvement of men and women in the development of good tourism governance based on ecological-friendliness (Farsari and Prastacos, 2001), are divided into three components: involvement in planning; involvement in implementation; and involvement in monitoring and evaluation (Overholt, Anderson, Cloud, & Austin (1991). They refer to Camilleri's

Figure 1. Theoretical Framework



Source: Adapted from Farsari & Prastacos (2001), Overholt, Anderson, Cloud, & Austin (1991), Camilleri (2017) & processed by Author.

theory (2017) in making a classification of tourism products. Further components are competence, internal and external barriers. The relation between these components is shown in the theoretical framework in Figure 1.

The framework was validated in discussions with experts. The first discussion was with relevant stakeholders in tourism development, women's empowerment, environmental development and government institutions in the region. The next discussion was with experts from universities in Indonesia. The results of these discussions were integrated and used as the basis for improving the framework and its indicators.

DATA COLLECTION & RESEARCH METHOD

This study was conducted in the area of Mount Lawu Karanganyar Indonesia. The area has been selected because it has natural tourism potentials that are impact-prone. Therefore, the region needs to be subjected to good tourism governance based on an environmentally-friendly manner and because tourism governance cannot merely be viewed from a biological perspective, but as an entity, it should be viewed from the perspectives of its history, mythology and culture. Besides, the parks in this area are a good representation of the way parks in Indonesia are organized and managed.

We gathered 400 surveys, from 200 women and 200 men. They worked in five different parks in the area,

namely sub district Jenawi, sub district Karangpandan, sub district Matesih, sub district Ngargoyoso and sub district Tawangmangu. Sub district Jenawi represents religious tourism in the form of temple tour and hill tour. Sub district Karangpandan represents agribusiness tour and home industry. Sub district Matesih represents tomb of the King's Mangkunegaran tour and Batik tour. Sub district Ngargoyoso represents tea garden tour, natural tourism and dances tourism and sub district Tawangmangu represents waterfall tour, breeding monkeys, carrot and strawberry industries. In each area, a sample quota of 40 women and 40 men is assigned, so in all five research locations, a sample of 200 women and 200 men were obtained. The necessary data were collected using a questionnaire with closed questions. Involvement indicators in sustainable tourism development were developed by combining the opinion of Farsari & Prastacos (2001); Overholt, Anderson, Cloud, & Austin, (1991) and Camilleri (2017), and then were validated by gender experts in Indonesia. Farsari's theory was used to develop sustainable tourism indicators, the theory of Overholt, Anderson, Cloud, & Austin, (1991) was used to develop gender roles in development project cycles, and Camilleri's theory (2017) was used to make classification of tourism products.

Farsari & Prastacos (2001) developed an indicator of tourism sustainability by integrating tourism into environmental, economic and socio-cultural contexts. The principles of sustainable tourism include: (1) using resources sustainably; (2) reducing over-consumption and waste; (3). maintaining diversity; (4) integrating tourism into planning; (5) supporting local economies; (6) involving local communities and consulting stakeholders and the public; (7) training staff; (8) undertaking research (Farsari & Prastacos , 2001).

Overholt, Anderson, Cloud, & Austin (1991) classify gender roles in development projects into categories, namely: (1) activity profiles (differentiated into the productive activities of goods and services, reproductive activities and human resource maintenance), (2) access and control profiles; (3) analysis of factors affecting activity, access and control, as well as (4) analysis on the project cycle (covering women's dimensions on project identification, women's dimensions on project design, women's dimensions on project implementation and women's dimensions in project evaluation).

Camilleri (2017) developed components of tourism products, including access, attractions, activities, and amenities. Access is an ease for tourists to reach the tourist attractions (such as facilities of road, transportation, and pedestrian track). Attractions are tourism interests, such as natural wonders, man-made attractions, special events, cultural or historic sites, arts and crafts, sports, music or dancing, unusual or unique flora and fauna, night life (etc.). Activities include activities that can be conducted while at the destination, including shopping, eating out, using sports facilities and doing outdoor leisure trips. Amenities are destination facilities, such as the provision of electricity and water, sanitary facilities, safe drinking water, roads, police and emergency services, postal and communication facilities, media, and others.

Referring to the three experts' opinions, and discussing with gender experts, the aspects analyzed in this paper are

classified into three dimensions, namely the dimensions of planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluation (Overholt, Anderson, Cloud, & Austin, 1991). Furthermore, the three dimensions are integrated by productive activities (goods and services), reproductive activities and human resource maintenance activities (Overholt, Anderson,

scaling is a nonparametric probabilistic version of Guttman scaling. Three key assumptions made by the Mokken scaling model of monotone homogeneity include: (1) a unidimensional latent trait (e.g., an ability or an attitude); (2) a monotonically non decreasing item response function; (3) locally and stochastically independent answers by the same subject.

Table 1. Involvement indicators of women and men in planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluation

Involvement Indicator	References
Involvement in Planning (Overholt et al. 1991)	
Developing tourism attractions	using resources sustainably (F&P), attraction (C)
Developing tourism infrastructure	integrating tourism into planning (F&P), accessibility (C)
Developing tourism potentials	reducing over-consumption and waste, (F&P), accessibility (C)
Exploring tourism potentials	supporting local economies, undertaking research (F&P), amenities (C)
Socializing charms of tourism	training staff (F&P), amenities (C)
Expressing opinions in meetings	training staff (F&P), activity (C)
Socializing tourism development	maintaining diversity (F&P), attraction (C)
Decision making	involving local communities and consulting stakeholders and the public (F&P), accessibility, amenities, attraction, activity (C)
Involvement in Implementing (Overholt et al. 1991)	
Physical Development	
Constructing gazebos	productive activity (O), accessibility (C)
Constructing public toilet	productive activity (O), accessibility (C)
Constructing infrastructure	productive activity (O), accessibility (C)
Providing trash cans	productive activity (O), amenities (C)
Making information boards	productive activity (O), amenities (C)
Providing Services	
Selling souvenirs	productive activity (O), supporting local economies (F&P), activities (C)
Curbing trash	productive activity (O), reducing over-consumption and waste (F&P), amenities (C)
Maintaining security	productive activity (O), amenities (C)
Lodging services	productive activity (O), amenities (C)
Communication services	productive activity (O), amenities (C)
Selling parking tickets	productive activity (O), activity (C)
Selling admission tickets	productive activity (O), activity (C)
Health services	productive activity (O), amenities (C)
Organizing the shops and merchandises	productive activity (O), activity (C)
Transportation services	productive activity (O), accessibility (C)
Becoming shopkeepers and serving buyers	productive activity (O), supporting local economies (F&P), activity (C)
Food service in the tourist sites	productive activity (O), supporting local economies, amenities (C)
Guarding parking lots	productive activity (O), accessibility (C)
Maintaining Functions	
Providing hospitable tourism services	productive activity (O), using resources sustainably (F&P), amenities (C)
Maintaining cleanliness	productive activity (O), amenities (C)
Maintaining beauty	productive activity (O), amenities (C)
Giving positive memories	productive activity (O), amenities (C)
Maintaining coolness	productive activity (O), amenities (C)
Maintaining order	productive activity (O), amenities (C)
Maintaining security	productive activity (O), amenities (C)
Cleaning tourist sites	productive activity (O), using resources sustainably (F&P), amenities (C)
Controlling merchants	productive activity (O), supporting local economies (F&P), amenities (C)
Involvement in Monitoring and Evaluation ((Overholt et al. 1991)	
Giving suggestion for the improvement of facilities & service	involving local communities and consulting stakeholders and the public (F&P), amenities (C)
Monitoring tourism activities	undertaking research (F&P), amenities (C)
Assessing tourism activities for improvement	undertaking research. (F&P), attraction, amenities, activities (C)

Source: Adapted from Overholt et, al (1991), Farsari & Prastacos (2001) and Camilleri (2017)

Cloud, & Austin (1991), sustainable tourism development (Farsari & Prastacos, 2001), as well as components of tourism products (Camilleri, 2017). The collection of the three theories is illustrated in Table 1.

Mokken scale analysis (Van Schuur, 2003; Mokken, 1971) is used to find the indicators that are mentioned in the framework. The Mokken model is used to measure a unidimensional latent trait (an ability or an attitude) based on (in its original form) dichotomous variables. In this study, the Mokken model is used to construct the indicators mentioned in the theoretical framework. After that, we can test whether men and women take different positions on the indicators.

Mokken scale analysis refers to a combination of a measurement model and a procedure commonly used to evaluate people's abilities or attitudes. It is used to analyze the pattern of responses of each respondent to a set of items designed to be a single latent variable, for example, the ability or attitude under study. Mokken

The test of monotone homogeneity is a simple nonparametric probabilistic test. Homogeneity, whether of items or subjects, is defined by relating the number of model violations observed [denoted as the number of "errors observed" or "E(obs)"], to the number of violations that can be expected under the model of stochastic independence [denoted as "E(exp)"]. Following Loevinger (1948), the homogeneity of a pair of items i and j can be defined as $H(ij) = 1 - E(obs) / E(exp)$. The Mokken scaling procedure, however, is better known by its practitioners for its bottom-up hierarchical clustering procedure, which identifies a maximal subset of items that conform to the requirements of a Mokken scale.

The scaling technique is used in a manner similar to other data reduction techniques that allow for the unidimensional measurement of latent variables. However, it has a number of advantages over other measurement models. It includes an item parameter that shows how items differ in their distribution, it is probabilistic rather than deterministic, and it can be applied in situations in which latent variables must be operationalized with only a small number of indicators. Scales are used for measuring the concepts used for each variable. If the measuring result scales on each item variable have H (i)-values greater than 0.30 on each item and the reliability (Rho) is over 0.50. Then, according to Mokken (1971), this is the minimum acceptable value. In this paper, p(i) scores refer to the probability of a positive answer (i.e., "yes") to the item and H(i)-scores refer to the homogeneity, the indication for the degree in which all constituent variables approximate a hierarchical scale. Each scale describes a component from the theoretical framework, where some components are split into various parts. Each table is followed by some comments.

RESULT & DISCUSSION

Result

Mokken Scale Analysis

In the tables below, the results of the scaling processes are presented. As mentioned previously, the three core variables of this research include involvement, competence, and barriers to men and women in tourism development. Those might contribute to the unidimensional latent trait through the following measurement scales. In a deterministic scale like the Guttman scale, a positive answer to the involvement item in tourism development potential would imply that the respondent gives a positive answer to the involvement item in tourism infrastructure development and a positive response to tourism attractions development. In this way, the hierarchical ordering of the items becomes visible. In a Mokken scale, it is probable for this to happen. The H-value for the items is an indication of this probability. In the present scale, all H-values are far

above the criterion.

The involvement in implementation comprises of four parts, namely physical development, providing services, decision making, and maintaining functions. For each part, a separate scale might be looked for. In the physical development component of involvement in implementation; three out of the five available items constitute a scale. Two items have an H-value which is below the criterion of 0.30, and therefore they are not included in the scale.

The second part of involvement in implementation is about providing services. In this part, the H-values found for five items are below the criterion. These items do not contribute to the scale.

The third part focuses on decision making. As there are only two items, a scale cannot be formed, but they might be taken together in an index. The two variables are: (1) participating in the tourism services evaluation meetings;

Table 2. Scale Involvement in Planning, Implementing, Monitoring and Evaluation (N = 400)

Label item	p(i)	H(i)	H = 0.69 Rho = 0.94
Involvement in Planning			
Involvement in discussion developing tourism attractions	0.23	0.69	
Involvement in discussion developing tourism infrastructure	0.23	0.70	
Involvement in discussion developing tourism potentials	0.22	0.70	
Involvement in discussion exploring tourism potentials	0.20	0.73	
Involvement in meeting to socialize charms of tourism	0.20	0.66	
Active involvement in expressing opinions in meetings	0.18	0.67	
Involvement in meeting to socialize tourism development	0.18	0.70	
Involvement in decision making processes	0.14	0.64	
Involvement in Implementing: Physical Development			
Constructing gazebos	0.36	0.39	H = 0.41 Rho = 0.58
Constructing public toilet	0.21	0.42	
Constructing infrastructure	0.18	0.43	
Providing trash cans	0.18	0.22	
Making information boards	0.53	0.01	
Involvement in Implementing: Providing Services			
Selling souvenirs	0.71	0.61	H = 0.48 Rho = 0.90
Curbing trash	0.62	0.30	
Maintaining security	0.61	0.60	
Lodging services	0.25	0.49	
Communication services	0.20	0.40	
Selling parking tickets	0.18	0.33	
Selling admission tickets	0.10	0.44	
Health services	0.08	0.44	
Organizing the shops and merchandises	0.14	0.13	
Transportation services	0.14	0.30	
Becoming shopkeepers and serving buyers	0.18	0.09	
Food service in the tourist sites	0.18	0.30	
Guarding parking lots	0.30	0.29	
Involvement in Implementing: Maintaining Functions			
Providing hospitable tourism services	0.83	0.69	H = 0.66 Rho = 0.90
Maintaining cleanliness	0.81	0.75	
Maintaining beauty	0.77	0.74	
Giving positive memories	0.74	0.54	
Maintaining coolness	0.72	0.70	
Maintaining order	0.70	0.67	
Maintaining security	0.67	0.67	
Cleaning tourist sites	0.17	0.49	
Controlling merchants	0.16	0.51	
Involvement in Monitoring and Evaluation			
Giving suggestion for the improvement of facilities and service	0.37	0.72	H = 0.71 Rho = 0.80
Monitoring tourism activities	0.33	0.66	
Assessing tourism activities for improvement	0.24	0.74	

Table 3. Competence

Label item	p(i)	H(i)
Process organic wastes	0.82	0.49
Use environmentally friendly materials	0.66	0.46
Understand the environment	0.60	0.45
Understand the concept of environmentally friendly tourism	0.34	0.62
Understand the Seven Tourism Charms	0.33	0.47
Implementing the environmentally friendly tourism principles	0.28	0.58
Receive training about environmentally friendly tourism	0.20	0.44
Understand tourism	0.76	0.37
Suggest the use of environmentally friendly materials	0.31	0.28
Sort out the wastes (organic and inorganic)	0.20	0.20
H		0.51
Rho		0.63
N		400

Source: Processed by Author

and (2) participating in the financial evaluation meeting. The last part of involvement on implementing considers maintenance of functions. All items included in this part contribute to the scale. Three items are available for measuring involvement in monitoring and evaluation. The items constitute a scale.

Table 4. Internal and External Barriers

Label Item of Internal Barriers	p(i)	H(i)
Low education level of women;	0.58	0.44
Limited creativity of women to capture job in tourism	0.55	0.53
Low income in tourism sector	0.50	0.35
Limited motivation of women to work in tourism	0.50	0.44
Limited knowledge of women about environment	0.49	0.49
Limited knowledge of women about tourism	0.49	0.50
Low enthusiasm of women to work in tourism	0.46	0.42
Limited skills of women in doing work in tourism	0.44	0.48
H		0.46
Rho		0.84
N		400
Label Item of External Barriers	p(i)	H(i)
Absence of specific empowerment policies for women	0.79	0.59
Lack of women activities to tourism	0.78	0.53
Limited budget for activities related to women empowerment	0.77	0.50
Absence of specific policies in the development of tourism	0.69	0.64
H		0.56
Rho		0.78
N		400

Source: Processed by Author

Seven out of the ten items on competence constitute a scale. The item of understand tourism is not included due to negative H-value with one of the scale items. The H-values of the other two not included items are below 0.30. All items on internal barriers constitute a scale. The same holds for the items on external barriers, as shown below.

Gender Differences in tourism management in Indonesia

From the data collected, we can present the following results. In the data, five fundamental characteristics are measured. One of the characteristics, involvement in implementing, consists of four parts, whereas another one, barriers, comprises two parts. Therefore, there were nine scales to ascertain. However, in the decision making part,

Table 5. Men and Women Differences in Tourism Development

#	Label	Mean score males	Mean score females	t-value	p
1	Involvement in planning	1.88	1.28	2.306	0.022
2	Involvement in implementing				
2a	Physical development	1.00	0.52	5.304	0.000
2b	Providing services	3.23	2.28	5.181	0.000
2c	Decision making	0.72	0.82	-1.336	0.855
2d	Maintaining functions	5.77	5.36	1.598	0.111
3	Involvement in monitoring & evaluating	1.07	0.81	2.274	0.023
4	Competence	3.28	3.18	0.503	0.615
5	Barriers				
5a	Internal barriers	3.81	4.22	-1.454	0.147
5b	External barriers	3.04	3.02	0.111	0.912
				df = 398	2 sided

Source: Processed by Author

there are only two items available. For that reason, only an index could be constructed, but no real scale. Table 5 contains the names of the characteristics, as well as the results of the t-test that is used to test whether the scores by men and women are different from each other or not.

Using $p \leq 0.05$ as a criterion for significant differences in the t-test, the results in Table 5 show that the situation of men is different from that of women with regard to the involvement in planning, physical development, service delivery, and involvement in monitoring and evaluation. In all these situations, men are more involved compared to women. As shown in Table 2, five candidate items for the service delivery scale do not fit in the scale, for four of these items, however, a significant difference (based on the outcomes of a χ^2 test) in being at order is found between men and women participants. With respect to the other characteristics, no gender differences are found between the sexes. We see an insignificant tendency that women are more involved in the decision making process and that they meet more internal barriers. From the individual items, we can see that this tendency is caused by the fact that women have less knowledge with regard to the environment, have

fewer skills in doing work in tourism, and have a lower education. When we look at the two individual decision making items, we do not find a difference between women and men.

The first hypothesis states that there is difference between the involvement of women and men to develop good tourism governance. In the sub-hypotheses, the attention is given to involvement in planning, implementation, and monitoring and evaluating good tourism governance. The findings are in line with involvement in planning, monitoring and evaluation and with two parts of the implementation: physical development and providing services. Hypothesis implementation with respect to decision making and maintaining functions is not confirmed. Looking at the individual items in the scales, we find the greatest differences between men and women as far as planning is concerned for participation in meetings on infrastructure (0.28 [mean men] - 0.16 [mean women] = 0.12) and in meetings on developing tourist attractions (0.11). In the monitoring phase, there are main differences that concern monitoring activities (0.11) and suggestions for improvement (0.08).

The second hypothesis on differences in competence and the third one on differences in internal and external barriers are also not confirmed. For women, a higher mean score is found than that for men with respect to decision making and internal barriers. The difference, however, is not significant. With respect to the individual items in the internal barriers scale, the main differences are found with respect to limited knowledge of women about environment (0.11) and low education of women (0.11). With respect to the external barriers absence of specific policies (0.05), it shows the greatest difference. Note, these differences in the mean score are not significant. A part of the last finding that all these differences between men and women for the individual items are significant, the finding is based on the outcome of a χ^2 -test. Note that the test in the hypotheses concerns the scales. It is possible that an individual item from a scale will show a real difference, while the scale itself does not show significant difference. This occurs for several items in the maintaining scale.

The third hypothesis on differences in internal and external barriers is not confirmed. We did not find differences due to such barriers between men and women. The external barriers of women empowerment in the development of environmentally friendly tourism are nearly equal to men. Based on the research, the major difference between women and men's external barriers is the lack of specific policy for women empowerment in environmental-friendly tourism. Conversely, both women and men encounter the same barrier, budget constraints, for activities related to empowerment in tourism.

Discussion

The involvement of men and women in developing good tourism governance

The first hypothesis tested whether there is a difference between the involvement of men and women to develop good tourism governance; The results of this study show that the situation of men is different from that of women with regard to services delivery and the involvement in

monitoring and evaluating. The results of this research correspond with Overholt et al., (1991) which states that has failed to recognize fully or systematically women's contribution to the development process, or in turn the effect of this process on them (Overholt et al., 1991). Assuming this is still true, the women's involvement in the planning will be less than that of men. This also follows the study of Kim et al. (2010) which found that, perceived self-efficacies and benefits of physical activity of women were significantly lower than those of men.

Tran and Walter (2014) claim that women's involvement in tourism development tends to be lower the men's development, at the stage of planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of sustainable tourism development. Internal and external barriers might also be the cause of differences in the roles men and women take. Wang (2014), for example, emphasizes the role organizations play in producing and promoting unequal treatment based on race and gender.

Although some studies have stated that women's involvement in environmental planning is lower than that of men, some experts find the opposite situation. Mohai (2008) states that women are generally more concerned about the environment in reality than men. Even though women may be somewhat more concerned about general environmental issues, they are less involved in environmental planning active on these issues than men. Koochi et al. (2014) found that women can solve environmental problems with the use of their innate abilities active, they work using their abilities and managerial talents in education and protects the environment and their rights (Koochi et al, 2014).

With respect to the implementation of the just mentioned phases, it turns out that there is a division of gender role in which men are more dominant than women, but it also holds for activities such as constructing public toilets at tourism sites, and taking part in maintaining security and order at tourist sites. On the contrary, women are more dominant than men in activities such as providing food service, organizing the merchandise and its place, and serving the buyers.

In the monitoring and evaluating phase of tourism development, men's involvement dominates in monitoring tourism activities and giving improvement suggestions. In contrast, gender equality exists in assessing tourism activity for improvement. Lower participation of women than men in giving suggestions for improvements is caused by the socio-cultural construction in which expressing opinions in a public forum is considered more suitable to be done by men than women.

Women's Competence in Tourism Development

Gender relations are context-specific; they vary considerably depending on the setting. They are shaped by other aspects of relationships between people, including economic status, race, ethnicity, or disability. All these social categories play a part in determining an individual's power and status in their particular community (March, Smyth, and Mukhopadhyay, 2005).

The second hypothesis tested was that there is a difference between the competence of women and that of men in developing good tourism governance. The results do not confirm this hypothesis but show the circulation of a

different opinion. Goldberg et al (1968) show that women consciously and unconsciously consider their own sex as inferior and this makes them view themselves as less competent than men. Although the present study gives no support to this belief, the belief drives the persistence of women in downgrading the competence - in particular, the intellectual and professional competence - of their fellow women. Questioning whether this really is a prejudice or not, Goldberg et al. state that men, women and social scientists agree that psychologically, emotionally as well as physically, women are different from men (Goldberg, et al., 1968).

According to Eliot (2019) and Ridgeway (2001), if viewed psychologically, women are not really less intelligent than men, just 'different' in a way that happens. Thus, women's brains are said to be wired for empathy and intuition, whereas male brains are supposed to be optimized for reason and action. Women will generally act more communally and less instrumentally than men in the same context that these differences will be greatest when gender is highly salient in the situation, and that gender differences will be weak or absent when people enact formal, institutional roles. Chaplin (2015) and Shields (2007) explain further that women show greater emotional expressivity, especially for positive emotions, and that they internalize negative emotions such as sadness, but men express greater levels of aggression and anger than women. Women's traits, especially emotions, are described as complementary to men's (Chaplin, 2015; Shields, 2007).

The argument of Goldberg et al (1968) is not in line with the study of Szameitat, Hamaida, Tulley, Saylik and Otermans (2015) stating that overall more than 50% of the participants believe in gender differences in multitasking abilities. Of those who believe in gender differences, a majority (80%) believe that women are better in multitasking. This is due to an evolutionary advantage that women have, in daily live they have to perform more multitasking than men do in managing children, households and/or family and job. The argument of Szameitat, Hamaida, Tulley, Saylik and Otermans (2015) is in accordance with Stephen (2015) stating that in recent decades, women's roles have changed more dramatically than those of men, at least in Western societies and cultures. Although women are still interested in pursuing goals related to having strong relationships, marriage, and family, they are also increasingly interested in being professionally employed and having a career (Stephen, 2015).

The willingness of women to pursue a professional career in an environmental field is based on the argument that such a career is more profitable as women have been socialized from childhood to be family nurturers and caregivers, that is, to develop a "motherhood mentality." These attitudes translate into attitudes that are more protective toward nature and the environment than those of men (Mohai, 2008). According to Koohi et al. (2014), women have always been closely associated with the environment and they directly or indirectly benefit from this situation. Women can solve the environmental problems by using their innate abilities and managerial talents. They can work beyond the family's education and protect the environment and their rights.

Internal and External Barriers to Women Empowerment

The third hypothesis on differences in internal and external barriers is not confirmed. This study has found that there are no differences of internal and external barriers between women and men. This is different from Wang (2014) who points to the role that organizations play in producing and promoting unequal treatment based on race and gender. Our findings do not imply that the issue does not receive attention any more. According to MacGregor & Seymour (2017), Hand et al. (2012), Nikolaou, (2017), an (internal) obstacle faced by women in the pursuit of leadership positions in organization are among others 1) experience prejudice, stereotyping, sexual harassment, and isolation; 2) stereotypes in organizational practices; 3) assumption that being woman is incompatible with being a leader.

The external barriers of women empowerment in the development of environmentally friendly tourism are nearly similar to those of men. Based on the research, the major difference between women's and men's external barriers is the lack of specific policy for women empowerment in environmentally-friendly tourism. Conversely, both men and women encounter the same barriers such as limited budget for activities related to women empowerment in tourism. In fact, according to Sabzian et al. (2012), women can be considered as the main cultural management and reform factor, transmitter of culture, education, environment, and as the factor of transferring the moral heritage and environmental knowledge, and one of the affected community and environmental groups; women can disseminate culture in any society. Therefore, if you give suitable information and knowledge in this field you can provide a good way to turn their knowledge into behavior, and can help to preserve the environment by its management. This is in accordance with the argument of Khabari et al. (2012) that more women than men use resources optimally in action towards environmental protection whereas in the field of organization actions and participation in environmental decision-making, they are not so active.

CONCLUSION

In this study, we developed measurement instruments for the components that are necessary in developing good governance in tourism sectors. Using these instruments, we show that gender differences do matter in developing good tourism governance in Indonesia. The a analysis shows significant difference at the 0.05 level between men and women in involvement in developing good tourism governance. On the other hand, there is no significant difference at the 0.05 level between men and women in terms of competence and barriers to developing good tourism governance.

In more details, the involvement variable can be divided into three subsets: planning, implementing, and monitoring and evaluation. Among the three subsets, two (planning and monitoring and evaluation) were significantly different between men and women. Meanwhile, two out of four variables in the implementation subset were significantly different (physical development and providing services)

while the two others were not (decision making and maintaining functions).

The findings indicate that in terms of competence and barriers there is no difference between women and men in Karangayar's tourism governance. The study result on barriers opposes prior findings in Norway where structural barriers hinder women in the workplace (Skalpe, 2007). Similarly, the finding on competence also opposes prior studies where women and men's competence were different (Watson et al., 2004). On the other hand, this study reveals a significant difference between the involvement of men and women in tourism governance. This finding, in some of the measurement, is in line with prior studies finding, decision making, for example, supports Stronza's studies in Peruvian Amazon (2005) but oppose other studies in the Dominican Republic (Duffy et al., 2015) and northern Vietnam (Tran and Walter, 2014) where decision making in tourism development is male-dominated.

The results on competence and barriers indicate the equality between women and men in tourism governance in Karanganyar Indonesia, and therefore, no further action is needed in levelling different gender participation in tourism governance. In terms of involvement, this study suggests that policy makers should issue a special policy to empower women by creating equal opportunities for women and men towards better tourism governance. The policy will be around the area of services and in monitoring and evaluation. This can be a task for the government, but also for the board of tourist attractions.

The result on competence and barriers are interesting to investigate further in other Indonesia's tourism sites. Such finding will gain consistencies and patterns that may explain how a patriarchal social system creates equality between women and men in tourism governance.

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