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BUILDING THE FUTURE OF TOURISM

EDITORS

Prof. Dr. Badaruddin Mohamed
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Preface

Greetings,

The International Conference on Tourism Development 2013 with the theme 'Building the Future of Tourism' is a sequel of the same event held on the 9-11th January 2005. The previous conference carried the theme 'Tourism: Vehicle for Development' triggered another angle of tourism research in this year's affair. The conference organiser plans to make this academic activity an annual occasion since it was well received by participants. The proceeding compiles papers that are presented at this year's conference. All presented papers went through strict peer-review before final papers are selected. It is hoped that the proceedings present high quality papers and worthy of discussions in line with the conference's theme. This year's event is organised by the Sustainable Tourism Research Cluster in collaboration with the Responsible Rural Tourism Network.

The editors would like to express their utmost gratitude to the Scientific Committee and the Secretariat for their tireless efforts and contribution in ensuring this conference runs smoothly. Hopefully, all papers presented in the conference would be translated into meaningful and fruitful ventures afterwards.

Badaruddin Mohamed
Editor-In-Chief

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Barriers To Integrating Tourism In The Development Planning: The Perspective Of The Malaysia Local Authorities

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This paper discusses the barriers faced by the local authorities in Malaysia in integrating tourism in their development planning. This study undertook a quantitative survey. The questionnaires were sending out to 99 local authorities in Peninsular of Malaysia and 50% respondent rate were obtained. The findings show that 49 percent of Malaysia's local authorities have formulated policies related to tourism development in their area of jurisdiction. Financial restriction, which is high cost, has been identified as the major barrier for those LAs in integrating tourism in their development planning and policy formulation. The findings also revealed that time constraints and view that tourism activities as not being an important contributor to their revenue are among the factors that prevent them from integrating tourism in their development planning.

Key words: local authorities, tourism industry, development planning, Malaysia

Introduction

The Malaysian government has identified tourism as one of the national key economic area (NKEA). This is part of the government policy to diversify the Malaysia income and less depending on the export. Consequently, by 2011, revenue from tourism increased significantly (RM 37.4 billion) and tourism had become the seventh largest contributor to the nation's Gross National Income (GNI) (ETP, 2011). Malaysia also ranked 9th among the top most visited countries in the world, with 24.6 million international tourist arrivals (the Star, 2012).

Despite its economic contributions towards national development, tourism has not enjoyed the recognition it deserves from the policymakers and world leaders (UNWTO, 2010). Even though the tourism activities have generated positive results in terms of development of destinations and host country's incomes. Uncontrollable tourism development also created negative impact towards the local cultures and environment (Javier & Elazigue, 2011). It such, a need to develop a safer approach towards tourism is needed, which leads to the integration of tourism in the

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government development plans. Thus, one of the government agencies which played a major role in ensuring the sustainability of tourism development is the local authorities (LAs) (Javier & Elazigue, 2011).

The local authorities play important roles on the success of its local tourism industry, as well as have a strong influence in conserving the environment (Dredge & Moore, 1992; Inskeep, 1994). Thus, proper planning and decision making by the LAs in order to maintain the success of local tourism industry without neglecting the environmental preservation is necessary. Despite LAs' responsibility in facilitating the tourism development in their area of jurisdiction, they are also challenged and burdened in fulfilling other core responsibility which is serving the local community (Javier & Elazigue, 2011).

In Malaysia, the main responsibility of the local authorities is serving their community in terms of facilitating and maintaining public amenities. However, at the same time they also required to be responsible to generate incomes from the tourism activities by the federal government (Hamzah, 2004; Awang & Azizi, 2011). Hence, local authorities need to be more proactive in the planning, management and promotion of tourism. However, LAs have several major barriers from integrating tourism in their development planning which are the lacks of funding and qualified personnel (Hamzah, 2004).

Even though LAs is one of the key governmental agencies that played a role in ensuring the sustainability of tourism industry, less research has been done in identifying and understanding the problems being faced by them in integrating tourism in their development planning. Therefore, knowing the constraining factors that restrained the LAs from strategically integrating tourism in their development planning will help to identify what are the exact causes of the problem and indirectly provides the way to resolve this issue. For that reason, the objective of this paper is to discuss the barriers that faced by the Malaysian local authorities' in integrating tourism in their development planning.

The first section of the paper discussed the previous literature about the barriers faced by the local authorities in integrating tourism in their development planning. The second section continues with the explanation of research method used in this research. Then, follow with the main findings section. The last two sections will end up with discussion and conclusion.

Literature Review

While there is an increasing trend for councils and regional tourism organizations to develop tourism strategies, it appears that most of development plans adopt a more traditional marketing perspective with a view to promoting tourism in a region rather than creating clear links to the development policy by recognizing tourism impacts and the benefits of planning to control negative effects and maximize positive ones (Connel et al, 2009). Page and Hall (1999) argued that local authorities might not be well equipped to assess the effects of tourism. This is because tourism monitoring is not a major area of focus for the local authorities given that their main focus is on delivering services to local people, which is often done under severe budgetary constraints. However, because the implementation of tourism planning is within the hands of local councils, the effective translation of principles into policy and action is essential to progress the sustainability agenda.

Tourism was seen to be isolated and development plans tended not to be integrated into an overall comprehensive approach for locality (Javier & Elazigue,

2011). There is a wide range of concerns that local authorities could address in making decisions towards developing the tourism industry. Besides the strategic position to plan and facilitate tourism development in the LAs' areas of jurisdiction, they are also challenged by the realities of expanding roles and responsibilities. There are several researches that examined the barriers that lead the LAs not to integrate tourism policy in their development planning. For example, Leslie & Hughes (1997) found that local authorities and tourism in U.K often ignored tourism in their development plans and do not view the tourism as a main contributor on the employment potential and opportunities for economic growth. In general, lack of resources (i.e. financial, expertise, time and partnership) and poor in tourism management skills have hinder the local authorities in U.K to integrate tourism in their development planning. In other research done by Connel et al. (2009) at New Zealand local authorities found that the importance of tourism had decreased since tourism is not pushed as a beneficial economic activity by the local authorities and lack of effective leadership.

Among all, budget pressures, program prioritization, constraint in resources, as well as governance issues are the main barriers that hinder the LAs to integrate tourism in their development planning (Javier & Elazigue, 2011). As supported by Richins (2000) study regarding the factors that influencing the local government tourism decision making in Australia showed that factors of community needs have the greatest influence on tourism decision making in local governments. The same study also revealed that structural influence factors (including mandates, information and direction) have the second greatest influence. In other studies, Dredge et al. (2006) have identifies and list out the barriers that faced by the Australian local authorities in engaging with tourism. Below is the list of the major barriers hindrance local authorities' to integrate tourism in their development planning;

- Lack of resources (time, expertise, financial)
- Lack of leadership skills
- Lack of clearly a articulated vision and set of goals
- Volunteer fatigue
- Industry fragmentation
- Lack of clearly articulated relationships between politicians, public officers, business and the community
- Lack of reporting systems and processes
- Lack of understanding of legislative environment / legal authority and responsibilities

In Malaysia, local authorities do not regard tourism as their core business since their establishment under the Ministry of Housing and Local Government is for the purpose of providing and maintaining public facilities such as recreational areas, landscaping and garbage disposal (Hamzah, 2004). Besides of lack of funding and qualified personnel, another main reason for their reluctance to be actively involved in tourism is the lack of mechanism for direct revenue capture given that almost all income from tourism are channeled back to the Federal government coffers through taxation requirements (Hamzah, 2004). Based on the previous studies in different countries shown a similar pattern of problems, for example, financial limitation, lack of expertise, time constraint and others are the of barriers that faced by the local authorities in integrating tourism in their development program.

Methodology

This study used a quantitative survey to explore the sustainable development practices in local authorities in Malaysia. The previous study conducted by Vandegaer et al. (2008) about the barriers faced by local authorities in integrating sustainable element in the development planning authority's development policy has been adopted in this study. Then the adoption of research done by Connel et al. (2009) in identifying strategic impact of tourism and tourism development also adopted in developing the survey's questions. The questionnaire consists two sections. Section one is dealing with the demographical questions and sections two consists of questions that evaluate the implementation of tourism in the local authorities' development planning.

Between February to April 2012, self-complete questionnaires were mailed to all local authorities in peninsular of Malaysia. A pre-paid envelope was included for ease of return. The total respondents were covered all types of LAs which are 34 Municipality Councils (Majlis Perbandaran), 8 City Councils (Majlis Bandaraya), and 57 District Councils (Majlis Daerah). The survey was mailed directly to secretary of the councils, who can identify the most appropriate person to respond to the survey's questions.

Findings

Demographical information

This section revealed the findings about the respondents' demographical properties. The respondent rate for this study is approximately 50%. However, out of 50% respondent rate, 55% coming from district councils, 37% from municipal and 8% from city councils as illustrated at figure 1.

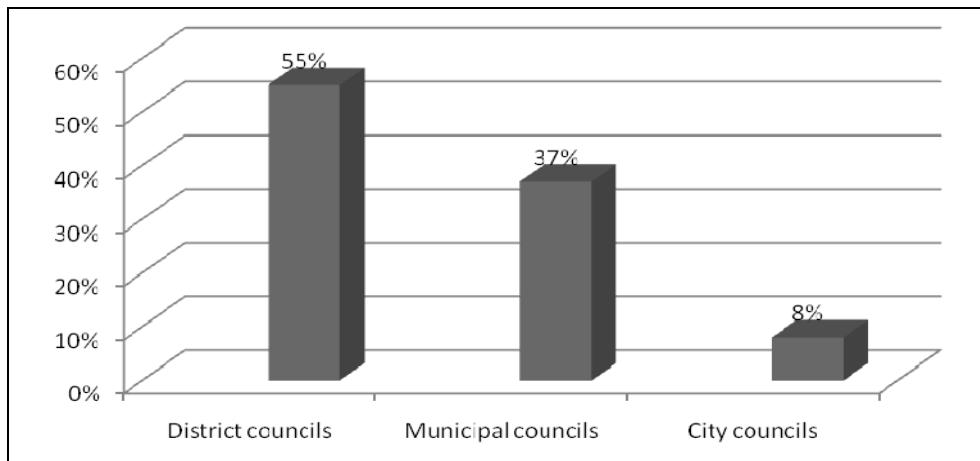


Figure 1: The percentage of councils returned the survey

Given that this figure represents half of all local authorities, the information that the survey is considered to be valid in providing a general picture of public sector responses to tourism development and planning in Malaysia, although non-responses deserve further consideration. The overall response rate is satisfactory and often a 30% response rate is deemed reasonable for such surveys (Connel et al., 2009).

Formulation policies related to tourism in the LAs' development planning

This part describes the percentage of local authorities who have formulated policies related to tourism in their development planning. The result demonstrates that not all local authorities have formulated policies related to tourism in their development planning. However, majority of local authorities have formulated policies related to tourism into their development plans. As shown in the following figure 2;

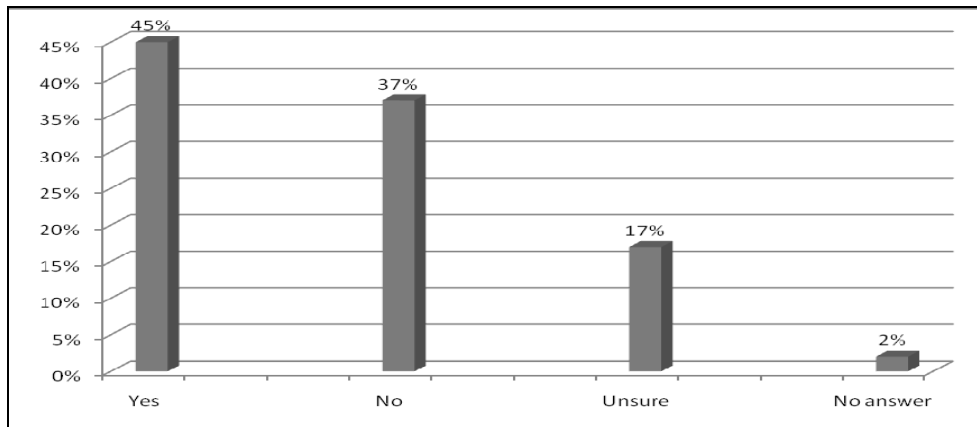


Figure 2: The percentage of LAs who have formulate policies related to tourism in their development planning

The finding revealed that almost 45% of the local authorities have formulated policies related to tourism in their development planning process. Meanwhile, 37% of them do not formulate tourism in their development planning. The remaining 17% were not sure and 2% have no answer for the question asked.

The main barriers in integrating tourism in the LAs's development planning

The analysis of the findings has identified eight main barriers that hinder the local authorities in integrating tourism in their development planning as depicted in figure 3.

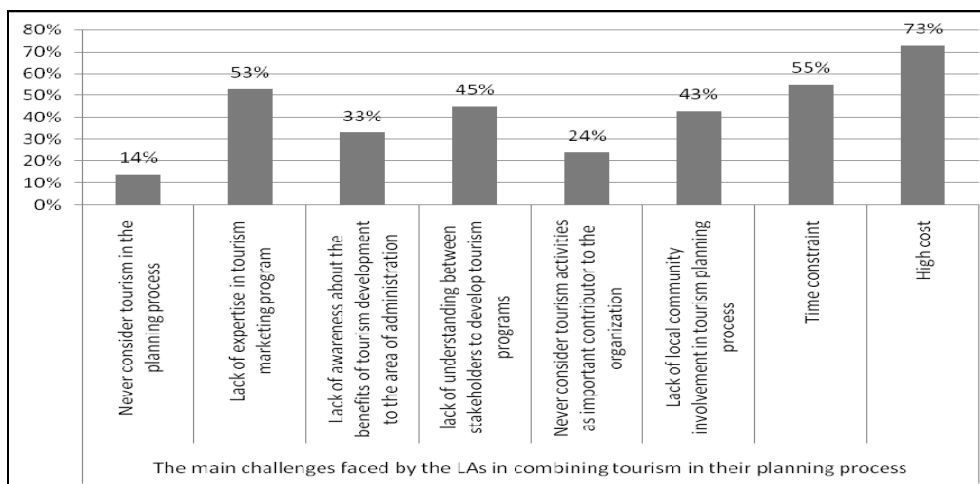


Figure 3: The main challenges faced by the LAs in combining tourism in their strategic planning process

As illustrated in the figure 3, 73% of the LAs felt that high cost as a main barrier for them in implementing tourism in their development planning. Meanwhile, 55% local authorities have chosen the time constraint as the second major factors that hinder the local authorities to consider tourism in their development planning. Then, 53% of local authorities identified lack of expertise as the third barriers that make the LAs unable to incorporate tourism in their planning setting. Furthermore, 45% of local authorities indicated that lack of understanding between the stakeholders in developing tourism programs as the fourth major barriers that hinder the integration between tourism and development planning. Lack of community involvement in tourism planning process has been identified by 43% of local authorities as among the top five main barriers faced by the LAs in integrating tourism in the development programs in their area of jurisdiction. However, a minority of local authorities (14%) indicated that never consider tourism in their planning process as the lowest among all the barriers that affected the LAs in considering tourism in their development planning.

Discussion

This study provides useful information regarding the barriers faced by the Malaysian local authorities in integrating tourism in their development planning. Thus, the results of this study had recognized eight major barriers that faced by the local authorities in integrating tourism in their development planning. Of all the problems that are identified, there are top five barriers identified by local authorities as the main barriers that hinder them from integrating tourism in their development planning.

First, majority of the local authorities have indentified that high cost is the main obstacles faced by the local authorities in integrating tourism in their development planning. The findings of this study are consistent with Leslie & Hughes (1997) study who found most of local authorities do not consider that tourism can generate employment opportunities and economic growth leads the LAs less emphasize on allocating budget and effort on tourism development programs.

Second, time constraint is secondly identified by the Malaysia local authorities that deter them to consider tourism in their development planning. This finding is in agreement with Dredge et al. (2006) study that most of local authorities suffered from lack of resources such as time constraint that drive them to ignore tourism in their development planning. This result may be explained by the fact that the local authorities main responsibility is providing service to the public the LAs are focusing more on the areas where they can utilize the time and money to accomplish their main purpose of providing and maintaining public facilities such as recreational areas, landscaping and garbage disposal rather than allocating those amounts of budget and time to the non-core activities such as tourism development (Hamzah, 2004).

A third main barrier is lack of expertise in tourism marketing program. These results are consistent with those of other studies and argued that lack of qualified personnel in managing tourism activities was derived from the less empowerment and authorization regarding the tourism administration given by federal government to the local authorities (Awang & Aziz, 2011; Dredge et al, 2006; Hamzah, 2004). It seems possible that these results are due to the Malaysia LAs establishment is under the Ministry of Housing and Local Government and their main purpose is providing and maintaining public facilities such as recreational areas, landscaping and garbage disposal, the needs for qualified staff that specifically facilitating the tourism activities is not seen as a main thing to be focus with.

The fourth main barrier is regards with the issue related to the lack of awareness between stakeholders to develop tourism program. This also accords with the earlier research done by Porter and Hunt (2005), which showed that the involvement of stakeholders' is highly depending on the vitality of discursive democracy and less standard bureaucratic boundaries between LAs and its stakeholders. Another possible explanation for this is that Malaysia decentralize governmental operating style is still dominating the government agencies working procedures, is very difficult for community voice to be heard and no common ground can be established to better off the tourism development agenda if the gap is too big between local government and its stakeholders.

The last but not least, the fifth barrier that hinder the process of integrating tourism in the LAs' development planning is lack of awareness about the benefit of tourism development to the LAs area of administration. The explanation of this fifth barrier can be viewed as an outcome resulted from other barriers discussed earlier. There are several possible explanations for this result, resource limitation such as time, financial and expertise as suggested by Dredge et al. (2006) might derived the LAs to ignore the potential of tourism industry in their development planning. Besides that, the LAs are required to focus on their core responsibility which is maintaining and facilitating public facilities. For that reason, less time and financial contributions were placed in tourism development. These arguments might answer the reason why the local authorities consider tourism is less beneficial to them.

Conclusion

This paper has argued that local authorities played a major role in facilitating and developing tourism industry in their area of jurisdiction. However, the local authorities also faced many challenges and barriers in integrating tourism in their development planning. The identified barriers faced by the LAs in integrating tourism in their development planning assists in understanding of the challenges that hinder the LAs to play more active roles in enhancing the tourism industry in their area of jurisdiction. The findings might help the central and/or state government in Malaysia to identify the real causes of hindrance for the LAs in integrating tourism in their development planning. Consequently, they could provide a solution to overcome the barriers in order to ensure the tourism industry is continuously able to contribute to the national's incomes and job opportunities.

The purpose of this study set out to determine what is the barrier faced by the Malaysia local authorities in integrating tourism in their development planning. The results of this study indicate that the local authorities in Malaysia faced many obstacles in integrating tourism into their development planning. The study has shown that 1) high cost; 2) time constraint; 3) lack of expertise in tourism marketing program; 4) lack of understanding among between stakeholders to develop tourism and, 5) lack of awareness about the benefits of tourism development to the area of administration are among the top five barriers that faced by the LAs in integrating tourism in their development planning.

It is recommended that further research be undertaken in this area is needed especially comprehensive qualitative research or case study based research to obtain an understanding of the challenges faced by the LAs in integrating tourism in their development planning. By doing so, the data generated from this kind of research may provide more practical solutions and suggestions to the LAs in helping them to be more proactive in sustaining the tourism industry in their area of jurisdiction.

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The Effect Of Landmarks On Visitors' Attachment Towards The Historic City Of Banda Hilir, Melaka

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Landmarks are strongly associated with tourism activities as they are regarded as the main attraction of a city. Due to the increase in new development, the attraction of landmarks is diluted. A similar threat is observed in Banda Hilir, Melaka, whereby new commercial buildings have dominated the overall structure of the historic city. As a result, its sense of place is diminishing, which may affect the visitors' sense of attachment and belonging. This paper discusses the visitors' attachment to the landmarks in Banda Hilir. Face-to-face interviews are conducted with visitors to understand their sense of attachment to the landmarks identified in the study. The results indicate that the visitors' attachment differs and is influenced by the physical characteristics of the historical landmarks, the length of engagement and familiarity with the places. They are more attached to landmarks with dominating physical appearance that make them more memorable. The findings indicate the importance of visitors' attachment in enhancing the attraction of landmarks within tourism attraction sites and as a guide when managing the redevelopment project for a historic town or city.

Key words: place attachment, landmarks, tourism attraction

Introduction

A landmark is one of the key elements in establishing a city's image and identity (Lynch, 1960). It identifies the structure of a city in the eyes of pedestrians (Lynch, 1960), influences their perception towards the city as well as giving meanings to places. Landmarks are also strongly recognizable, both visually and symbolically. They blend with aesthetic and social significance. In most cases, landmarks become the attraction of a city, especially among visitors. A similar situation is observed in the historic Banda Hilir, Melaka, where many of its landmarks attract visitors from all over the world. St. Paul Church, A. Famosa and Stadhuys are a few significant buildings that exist since the colonial era. On the other hand, Menara Taming Sari and Muzium Samudera are built during the recent development projects. They continue to become the attractions in Banda Hilir, especially after the city was crowned the 'World Heritage City' in 2008.

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There has been a continuous effort by local authorities to improve the image of the city and to sustain the 'World Heritage City' title. This effort includes programs, advertisements and campaigns to ensure that the landmarks are promoted for tourism. The landmarks become popular destinations for visitors. However, popularity does not ensure that the attachment among visitors towards these places is strong enough to encourage repeated visits and longer stays in the city. The characteristics of landmarks are argued to influence attachment towards a city.

In the recent years, new public spaces and commercial buildings have been developed in the central section of Banda Hilir. Dataran Pahlawan, Mahkota Parade, Menara Taming Sari and Muzium Samudera are a few of the new attractions that provide comfort and attractive facilities to visitors. However, these structures are observed as being unsympathetic to the existing city structure and the historical character of Banda Hilir. In this case, the landmarks should be built to strengthen the historical values of the surroundings as well as the sense of place and attachment imbued in the visitors' experience of the places. This paper examines the influence of landmarks on visitors' attachment towards the historic city of Banda Hilir, Melaka.

Literature Review

Lynch (1960) defines landmarks as elements in a vertical form that are visible from far by an observer and are used as a guide in wayfinding (Figure 1). These landmarks can be any three-dimensional objects that are prominent or conspicuous to the observer in an area as opposed to nodes, which are areas that an observer can enter and experience within. In contrast from its background, clear form and prominence of spatial location, a landmark can become more identifiable (Shuhana, 2011).



Figure 1: Landmark is visible from far and could function as a reference point.

In contrast with Lynch's definition, Hasanudin (2003) defines landmark as any urban landscape feature that is different from its contextual characteristics, with manifested or inherent attributes, which are physically or spiritually unique, influential and impressive. This means that a landmark must not necessarily be a vertical or three-dimensional object. Based on previous studies, landmark has been categorized into four groups, namely natural landmarks, constructed landmarks (Moughtin et al., 1999), distant landmarks and local landmarks (Lynch, 1960). Hasanudin (2003) includes constructed open-spaces as an additional category of landmark (Figure 2).



Figure 2: Open spaces that are distinguishable from its immediate context could become a landmark

In addition, place markers can also be considered as local landmarks. According to Shuhana (2011), place markers are physical irrespective of their size and height, which are used to help visitors to identify places. This is due to their function as reference points for visitors upon their arrival in a place although they are not visible from far. Landmarks are often used interchangeably with focal points as elements that attract the eye when a place is viewed at street level. Hence, a focal point can also become a place marker that becomes a landmark as long as it is distinct from its immediate context.

In this study, combinations of these definitions are used. Landmarks are visible and recognizable elements, either from far or in a space within in an area or a place as long as they are distinctive from their surroundings and their spatial locations are remarkable. Elements, such as buildings, open spaces, structures, features and natural elements are considered as landmarks. Open spaces are often doubted as landmarks; however, in this study, they are regarded as place markers that mainly function as nodes or focal points at street level.

Place attachment is associated with people and their feelings as a result of their experience being in a place. It may develop meanings and memories that vary according to the frequency of visits and length of engagement. Visitors may translate their feelings into the feeling of being comfortable, bonding or being attached to the place.

Place attachment is defined as the development of affective bond or link between people or individuals and specific places (Norsidah & Shuhana S., 2008 from Hidalgo and Hernandez, 2001) as well as their dependence on the places. Place attachment is also reflected in the functional connection between people and places (Stokol and Shumaker, 1981). Norsidah (2012), states that place attachment is strongly associated with familiarity and length of engagement once the user starts to feel comfortable with the place. This study supports the findings of Moore & Graefe (1994), which states that the more frequently people visit a place, the stronger their attachment is to the places. Hence this indicates that familiarity gains from a place will influences emotional or functional attachment to a place.

A positive affective relationship between people and places can generate attachment because of people's satisfaction with, evaluation of, and identification with a specific place (Bonnes and Secchiaroli, 1995). Attachment of a person may vary since it depends on his or her personal experience. Hence, there is a need to collectively examine the form of place attachment among the visitors. This study explores the qualitative attachment among visitors through face-to-face interviews on random samples. Qualitative measures are used to offer insights into meanings that

the places entail, which consist of verbal measures with their content analysed later (Maria, 2011 from Van Patten & Williams, 2008).

In this study, several variables are identified to determine the attachment, which include physical characteristics of the landmarks, the length of engagement and familiarity to the historical places. This is also supported by previous research, which states that the variables used to measure place attachment include familiarity, length of association, place identity, sense of belonging and sense of place (Relph, 1976; Stokols and Shumaker 1981; Proshansky et al., 1995; Shamai 1991; Steadman, 2003).

Shamai (1991) develops a seven-level scale to determine the attachment and sense of place or feelings towards different scales of places (country, province and metropolitan area). Relevant to this study, the measurement scales include those who do not have any sense of place as Level 0, knowledge of being located in a place as Level 1, a sense of belonging to a place as Level 2, a sense of attachment to a place as Level 3 and the ability to identify with the goal of a place as Level 4. These levels are used to indicate the attachment among the visitors towards Bandar Hilir through the landmarks. Level 5 and 6 indicate higher levels of a sense of place which are involvement in the place and sacrifice for the place.

The World Tourism Organization defines tourists as people who are "travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes". Visitors, in this study, refer to people who come to Banda Hilir for short vacation, work and/or leisure. This is relevant because landmarks may not function, for example, for wayfinding, if people become too familiar with a place and the surrounding, as in the case of the local people.

Landmarks assist in visitors' wayfinding that may contribute to the development of a sense of familiarity and attachment. This paper discusses the way landmarks influence visitors' attachment towards Banda Hilir and how the attributes and characteristics of these landmarks attract the visitors.

Methodology

In this study, face-to-face interviews are conducted to determine the form and level of the attachment among the visitors of Banda Hilir, Melaka. Respondents are allowed to respond to the questions without restriction, which can increase their tendency to provide detailed answers. Qualitative method is adopted to understand the respondents' behaviour, feeling and attachment instead of forcing them to answer objectively.

The results are based on preliminary interviews, which are conducted with ten respondents. These respondents are randomly selected among the visitors of Banda Hilir, Melaka. This method allows all visitors to have equal opportunity of being selected as a sample which later leads to have more holistic answers. The random samples are later group into three groups: (a) visitors who come to visit Banda Hilir for the first time, (b) visitors who come to visit Banda Hilir several times and (c) frequent visitors.

The purpose of their visits, such as for holiday, work or leisure, are considered as well. This means that both local people and foreigners, who are either tourists (people who travel and stay in Bandar Hilir) or workers (who do not live in Banda Hilir for a longer period as long as they are not from Banda Hilir), can be the respondents. Furthermore, the sample chosen are not necessarily interviewed while they are in town but the interview can also be done among frequent visitors who are

out of town. This is because anyone who has visited the town before may still have the memories or attachments to the landmarks and, therefore, they are relevant to be examined since they have the experience of being there. Hasanudin (2003) states that, in order to identify the influence that familiarity has on perception, it is also necessary to include a sample from those who live outside the central area and those who used to live or work there but have migrated away. Other than that, the respondents' age, types of work and genders are also noted.

Shamai's (1991) Sense of Place Measurements introduces the criteria to indicate levels of visitors' attachment. At Level 1, visitors are considered having the lowest level of attachment to the place. However, the form of attachment may vary, depending on other influencing factors such as familiarity to the places.

Respondents are asked about their understanding on the landmarks, their familiarity with the surrounding context of Banda Hilir, the physical or spatial characteristics of the landmarks, meanings of the landmarks, their awareness of the goals and issues of the city and also their willingness to contribute to this city if they were given opportunities.

Apart from the problem in terms of English command and the difficulty to find suitable samples that are willing to cooperate, the researcher manages to obtain answers after continuous effort and attempts. The outputs from this interview are analyzed after transcribing the data from the interview and categorize them into related themes.

Results and Discussion

The preliminary results are based on 10 respondents, who are six men and four women. They are both local and foreign visitors with the age range of twenty four to sixty nine years old. Four of them represent those who visit Bandar Hilir for the first time. On the other hand another four are visitors who visit Banda Hilir a few times while the remaining two are frequent visitors. They have different working backgrounds, which include government servants, engineers, students and pensioners.

In terms of the definition of a landmark, 5 out of 10 respondents agree that a landmark is a potentially iconic significant element, which people can relate to, a site or item that makes a place special, as well as something that differentiates places and acts as a reference point. These responses do not differ much from the definitions given by the scholars mentioned earlier. Four respondents are unable to define a landmark although they understand what a landmark is. They are unable to give correct examples of elements that they consider as landmarks. One of the respondents do not even understand landmark until examples are given by the interviewer. This might happened because they are not familiar with the term of landmark.

When asked to identify the landmarks of Banda Hilir, all of the respondents are able to identify elements that are considered as landmarks. The elements include St. Paul Church (including the hill area), Santiago Port, the red building (including its surrounding areas), Stadhuy's and St. Xavier Church, A. Famosa, Menara Taming Sari, Muzium Samudera, Jonker Street (including the buildings therein), Dataran Pahlawan and Mahkota Parade.

Physical Characteristics of Landmark

In the opinion of the respondents, the landmarks are visually attractive. They associate their attraction with various physical and spatial characteristics of the landmarks. The

characteristics include colours, architectural styles and façades of building they consider as landmarks (see Figure 3). The following responses indicate the respondents' identification of landmarks and their characteristics:

“When people talk about Christ Church Melaka, they recognize them as the red building.” (Respondent 1: Foreign visitor, who has visited Malacca a few times, considers the red buildings as a landmark).

“The appearance and the façade are interesting. The materials as well [sic].” (Respondent 6: Foreign visitor, who is on his first day in Banda Hilir, considers Jonker Street and A.Famosa as landmarks).



Figure 3: The red building is always referred as landmark due to its colour and architectural styles which is contrast from the surrounding.

Location and size are also used to describe the landmarks. This refers to big and tall landmarks, which are emphasized by their look, scale and proportion (Figure 4). The characteristics are found to suit the definitions of landmarks as discussed earlier in this paper. Their descriptions are reflected in the responses below:

“It’s high up, it’s big and it’s old.” (Respondent 5: Foreign visitor, who is on his first day in Banda Hilir, regards St. Paul Church and the surrounding hills as well as the Malacca River area as landmarks).

“The Taming Sari Tower is significant to be a landmark because it is very high” (Respondent 9: Local visitor, who visits Malacca frequently, considers Menara Taming Sari as a landmark).

“I am not very familiar with the area outside of the [sic] Jonker Street but it is not hard to find the places because it is just a straight road.” (Respondent 7: Local visitor, who has visited Malacca a few times, considers the Dragon sculpture at the entrance of the Jonker Street including the street itself as a landmark).



Figure 4: Menara Taming Sari (left) and St. Paul Church (right) as landmarks to visitors for its distinctive characteristics such as tall and physically dominant.

One of the respondents mentions that the landmarks' historical character attracts him the most. The well-known history of Malacca helps in promoting its urban features, including landmarks, such as A.Famosa and St. Paul Church (Figure 5). This response is probably influenced by his knowledge on the history of the city. In this regard, a local visitor, who visits Malacca frequently, expresses his familiarity with the history of the historical buildings.

“It gives historical values. Ever since we were in school time we learned [sic] that A. Famosa is a historical building...” (Respondent 10: Local visitor, who visits Banda Hilir frequently, regards A. Famosa as a historical landmark).



Figure 5: A. Famosa often associates with historical values.

The above responses indicate that visitors are more likely to identify with landmarks that have dominating physical and spatial appearances. These characteristics contribute to the attractiveness of the landmarks, which may influence how the visitors feel when visiting the city. In measuring the meaning of an environment, there is a need to identify the attributes of the physical environment that may influence thoughts, feelings, attitudes or behaviour (Hasanudin, 2003 from Hershberger, 1972). He, further, categorizes the attributes of landmarks into scale, proportion and size, colours, singularity/unique/different/contrasting, location/strategic position, symbolism and architectural value. The landmark may be characterized by one or more of these attributes. Hence, this explains the responses of the visitors' identification on the characteristics of landmarks in Banda Hilir, Melaka.

Familiarity and Place Attachment

Familiarity may be obtained from frequent association or engagement with a place. The visitors' repeated mentions about landmarks that they are attracted to or engaged with indicate place attachment due to their familiarity with the places. Their identifications on memorable characteristics help them to familiarize with the places and the city as a whole. Based on the study, being familiar to a place is influenced by the length of engagement to that particular place. The longer visitors stay or engage with a place, the more familiar they are. This emphasizes the importance of the length of stay or duration of a visit.

As mentioned earlier, the visitors in this study are able to identify significant items that can be considered as landmarks. Referring to Shamai (1991), the recognition of the symbols of a place can be categorized as Level 1: Knowledge of being located in a place. The results show that all of the respondents are able to distinguish and understand the landmarks and their attributes although some may not have feelings that bind them to the places or the city.

It is obvious that visitors, who are in Malacca for the first time or for a short period, are less familiar with the places. Therefore, the attachment to the landmarks is considered low. However, despite being unfamiliar with the places, they are still able to identify the historical elements and the history of the city. This can be seen from the response below:

“I'm not sure about the landmark, we just arrived today... I think the history is a good point. The central of the city are [sic] good too.”(Respondent 8: Foreign visitor, who is in Malacca for the first time on his first day).

However, among the first timers, familiarity can be obtained as well but may depend on their duration of stay or length of engagement in the city. Visitors who are interviewed on the second day of their visits are quite familiar with the places. This is reflected in the response below:

“This is my first time coming here and this is my second day here... I think so now [sic] (referring to the question whether he is familiar with the city and the city's landmarks).” (Respondent 4: First-time foreign visitor, on his second day, regards Stadhuy's and St. Paul Church as landmarks).

The result proves that the landmarks mentioned above have strong characteristics that make them easily recognizable and identifiable. This supports the development of place familiarity to a place within a very short period of time. The landmarks are observed as strongly legible and memorable.

When asked for idea and feedback for the betterment of Banda Hilir, including the landmarks, majority of the respondents responded positively. Some of them share their expectations on the places and suggest ideas for the improvement of the city. Other than knowing the names of places and their symbols for the place, they start to have feelings of concern as first-time visitors. It is doubted that first-time visitors would express concerns but it is possible with the knowledge of the place and non-physical association with the place prior to the visit. This is reflected in the following response of a first-time visitor when asked about his familiarity with the surrounding context of Banda Hilir:

“Yes, I am quite familiar. I have done some study and collected detail [sic], so we know what are places that we going [sic] to see and visit.” (Respondent 2: Foreign visitor, who visits Malacca for the first time on his second day, considers Dataran Pahlawan and the red buildings as landmarks).

The knowledge on landmarks makes it easier for the visitors to be familiar with the urban structure and understand the issues in a place. The longer they stay, the more they are exposed to the actual condition of a place. This supports in the development of place attachment. At this stage, they are said to have a sense of togetherness or belonging to the place (Shamai, 1991). This situation is mainly expressed not only by visitors who have visited the places for a few times but also those who are there for the first time. This is evident in the following responses:

“As a visitor, I can contribute within that few days of visit in some kind of program [sic] where visitors are invited and can do [sic] some welfare activities [sic] for this place.” (Respondent 2: Foreign visitor, who visits Malacca for the first time on his second day).

“Well I would [sic] obviously share my opinions.” (Respondent 4: Foreign visitor, who visits Malacca for the first time on his second day).

“If there is a form maybe I can write my recommendation and maybe to have [sic] Facebook to specifically collect feedback.” (Respondent 7: Local visitor, who visits Malacca for the first time).

From the interview, five of the respondents agree that the landmarks have strong historical values. They express their appreciation towards the people who preserve the historical landmarks to be as they are today. According to Shamai's (1991) when a person experiences a place that gives meaning and symbols to create a 'personality' to them, they are considered to have attachment to the place. This is categorized as Level three. At this level, the sense of place involves an emotional attachment to a place. Their responses are stated as below:

“It is just about the history of the place, the heritage. It reflects the world heritage city. So that's the kind of significant of the heritage or public heritage of the city[sic].” (Respondent 5: Foreign visitor, who visits Malacca for the first time on his first day, regards St. Paul Church including the surroundings hills area and the Melaka river area as landmarks).

“They give historical values.” (Respondent 1: Foreign visitor, who has been in Banda Hilir for a few times, considers the red buildings as a landmark).

However, there are contradictory statements from three respondents although they are familiar and aware of the issues relating to the city. This leads to an idea that there may be cases where the length of engagement may not ensure a visitor's sense of attachment to develop accordingly. This situation may occur due to the lack of concern and actual knowledge of the place. It may also as a result of the lack of familiarity and engagement with the place once they experience it. This can be a potential topic for future research in the area.

Majority of the respondents are not aware about the goal of this city. According to Shamai (1991), Level four of the sense of place measurement is where people are able to identify with the goals of a place. The sense of attachment of the visitors is reflected in the following themes:

- a) Familiarity: Knowledge about a place and the degree of legibility
- b) Emotional attachment: Feelings about a place, meaning of a place, description of a place
- c) Functional attachment: Attractive activities, feeling of comfort and satisfaction, opinion on changes, suggestion for improvement and engagement

The respondents share not only their knowledge and familiarity, but also their opinions on the characteristics of landmarks, which have influenced their sense of attachment.

Conclusion

The study found that landmarks influence visitors' attachment. The visitors' identification on landmarks is strongly associated with the physical and spatial characteristics of landmarks as well as their locational factors. Familiarity contributes to a stronger attachment towards a city. This study denotes the importance of attachment in making historical cities more meaningful and memorable for visitors. The findings also indicate the importance of attachment that needs to be considered in enhancing the development of historic city. This is to preserve the 'World Heritage City' title that been given to this town. Hence, there is a need to ensure that any forms of intervention within the city will not threaten place attachment. These findings can benefit those who are involved in the planning, designing, conservation and tourism in redeveloping historic cities in Malaysia.

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Application Of 'Scenario Strategic Planning' As Development Tool In Community-Based Tourism

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This research was a study on the Scenario Strategic Planning and its application for community-based tourism. The study aimed to apply the Scenario Strategic Planning to reinforce the strength of a community-based tourism management. This research was a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods which was conducted at the Ban Phamon Village, Chomthong district, Chiang mai province, and Ban Santichon Village, Pai district, Mae Hong Son province. Both of the villages used the Scenario Planning as instrument for the development of Community-based tourism. The villagers had helped each other to carry out, perceive, and use the plan together. Tourism industry is one of the very important industries in Thailand that continuously create jobs and revenues for people in the country. However, the changing of tourism industry is very dynamic and competitive with the float of globalization which impacts the local level tourism industry, especially, the non-prepared community which could not support these changes concerning political, economic, socio-cultural and technological thoughts. These effects cost community's benefit to decrease and the lack of growing with negative impacts, also, the community may have loosened their local culture as well. The aforementioned problems, however, could be solved or prevented by applying planning techniques in which this research found that the Scenario Planning is one of the most practical techniques and instrument to be used in development planning such that it can decrease the negative impacts of the community and simultaneously assist the community to support tourism industry as well as to identify the problems and determine solutions for equitable distribution of profits. Results in both of the research sites proved that the application of the Scenario Planning for Community-based tourism could be very useful. Result of study further reveal that solutions seemed to be the unity and the readiness of the community to solve the problems via strengthening of the community through participatory activities as a development activity, where the application of Scenario Strategic Planning becomes very effective. In conclusion, this research article would bring the presentation of the Scenario Strategic Planning to strengthen the power of the community towards tourism management. In short, the community would manage to organize the natural and the cultural resources for the tourism industry.

Key words: Scenario Planning, Community-based tourism, PEST analysis, trends, Ban Phamon Village, Ban Santichon Village

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Introduction

Tourism industry is one of the leading service industries which contribute a lot of income to a nation in terms of foreign currencies, thus, it is considered a means to improve economy through value-added on tourism products, goods, and services. Moreover, tourism industry creates job for the local people and provide additional developments such as construction of infrastructures, transportation system, electricity, and communication schemes for convenience and comfort of tourists and travelers as well as the host community. As the industry expands, successively, other enterprises like hotels and restaurants, gift shops, traveling agencies, and development of important and possible tourist attractions are established to provide additional amenities.

Essentially, the country of Thailand has always been recognized all along the way for its tourism industry. Prominence of tourism, however, grew after the Tomyam Kung Economic Crisis in the year 1997 where the Thai government ascribed tourism industry as a part of the mechanism to boost the Thai economy. Therefore, in the year 1998 to 1999, there was a big promotion of tourism industry aimed with a main theme called, "Amazing Thailand" which has produced continuously and increased constantly the number of tourists and travelers to Thailand. Based on the statistical numbers of the Ministry of Sports and Tourism, the average increase in the number of tourists was found to be 7.5% from 1998 to 2010, whereas in 2011, the total number of tourists that visited Thailand was 19,089,323 persons or 19.84% increase in comparison to the same period of the previous year. Meanwhile, the gross total income from tourism industry amounted to 734,519.46 million Baht which was considered to be beneficial to the country's economy as a whole.

According to earlier researches, however, it was found out that revenues from tourism industry seemed to be focused only on the entrepreneurs who dealt with tourism hotel business and travelling enterprises including the restaurants and transportation business, while, those people who lived in the host communities seemed to have very little profit. Mostly, income of the local people came from selling cheap gifts and souvenir items or inexpensive hotels and guesthouse accommodations. Furthermore, tourism had brought social impacts and problems, particularly, on the local culture and the domestic traditional affairs of the local residents.

An important criterion of a successful and meaningful tourism activity should be based on the participatory activities of the local community where distribution of profit and revenues could be scattered from tourism industry to the local community members. Consequently, the people in the community will help in the preservation of the community's natural resources and their values that will result in the protection of the tourism hold back. On the other hand, the private sector investment that would be appropriate to the strength development of tourism management in the community is also a significant indicator to the success of the tourism development activity. It could be stated that community tourism would be the mechanism to create the strength or the power source of the villagers who would manage to control their own natural and cultural environment through the process of participatory activities in the community. In this aspect, the community must be able to control the direction of tourism and to make progression upon the tourism of the community, thus in order to be accomplished, the community has to ascertain its readiness and strength in terms of tourism opportunities. Nonetheless, the villagers have to make a campaign or movement in the society to determine the different types of tourism that would be

appropriate in their specific community. The motivation and empowerment have to be applied to in the development so that people in the society would be able to make an exchange and sharing of culture and knowledge between the villagers and the visitors.

In brief, any tourism development activity should emphasize and stress on the strength of the community, especially, on the matter of tourism direction determination. Such requires a vital recognition and understanding of the role of the local community towards the preservation of natural resources, and this type of attitude should be continuously preceded and supported on the aspect of natural resources' protection. Subsequently, the sustainable tourism resources would be determined by the community's scenario or the circumstances in the community which is directly influenced through a Scenario Planning for the community.

Objectives

1. To study the application of the Scenario Strategic Planning in order to organize the natural and the cultural resources and attributes for a community-based tourism industry.
2. To make assessment on the strengthening and empowerment of the community for the development and management of a community-based tourism industry.

Methods

This research study was blended with a combination of the qualitative and quantitative research methods. The researcher have managed to make arrangements to apply the Scenario Strategic Planning in the surrounding areas of Ban Phamon Village, Chom-thong district, Chiang mai province, and Ban Santichon Village, Pai district, Mae Hong Son province, respectively. The final assessments had been made through the following steps.

1. Taking into consideration of research related documentary activities such as the community tourism ideology, the community empowerment or the community strengthening methodology, the formulation and designing of Scenario Strategic Planning, the analysis of non-participation observation formats and participation observation forms, and the formal and informal interviews, as well as in-depth interview.
2. Workshop meeting - the researcher had organized an academically workshop meeting which consisted of community leaders, government officials, representatives of entrepreneurs from the tourism industry as well as Tourism Associations, , private developmental organizations and officers from the Tourism Authority of Thailand, representatives from the Ministry of Sports and Tourism in Chiang Mai and Mae Hong Son provinces, members of the Sub-district Administration Organization, local residents, and the local educators. During the meeting, the researcher had presented the Tourism Management Strategy including the problems and obstacles in the developmental planning.
3. PEST Analysis – the political, socio-economic and technological environment analysis (PEST) was utilized as a criterion during the meeting to determine the community influence of tourism as driving force in the vicinities of Ban Phamon Village, Chom-thong district, Chiangmai province, and Ban Santichon Village, Pai district, Mae Hong Son province. The determination of the trend had been handled during the meeting which aimed at the analysis on political, socio-

economic and technological environment as the key aspects. Thereafter, final considerations were focused on the appropriateness of the PEST analysis.

4. In the workshop meeting, procedures were established in applying the Scenario Strategic Planning in the locality of Ban Phamon Village, Chom-thong district, Chiang mai province, and Ban Santichon Village, Pai district, Mae Hong Son province. Consequently, there was a working session dealing with vision, mission, strategy, and development guidance. The goal was to strengthen the community power for sustainable tourism of the community.
5. Pre- and post-assessment on the Scenario Strategic Planning in terms of administration and management of community-based tourism were done with primary consideration on the indication criteria in the four (4) aspects of community tourism

Results and Discussion

The Application for Community-based tourism in Ban Phamon Village

Ban Phamon Village is situated in the Intanon National Park region or located in the North Eastern direction of Chom-thong district, Chiang mai province. The local residents were the Karen people with farming as their main occupation cultivating paddy rice fields in veranda cultivation terrace. The village was located formerly in a jungle where tourists visited regularly. The Karen local residents, however, did not get involved in tourism activities for they did not know how to deal with tourism. Thus, the application for Community-based tourism had helped them recognized the importance of tourism industry and how their lives would be changed accordingly as indicated in figure 1 & 2.

The Ban Phamon Village is full of natural resources in conjunction with religion and native belief in rituals and ceremonies throughout the year. The way of life of the Karen people could be modified due to tourism industry and the usage of community history, community cultivation, community tradition and natural environment including herbal medicine, and the local handicrafts as a mean for tourism attractions. Additionally, there are some folklores and tales and chronicles of the Karen tribe that could attract tourists and visitors.

Currently, the Application for Community-based tourism and the Scenario Strategic Planning made on Ban Phamon Village, Chom-thong district, Chiang mai province became one of the sight-seeing venues for tourists and travelers. Such development has encouraged financial assistance from the private and government sectors to be made available to assist the tourism industry in the area.

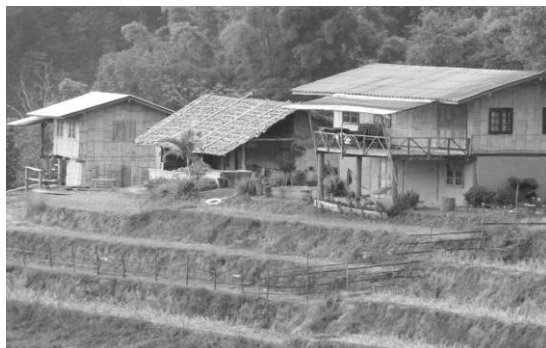


Figure 1: Home stay cottages in Ban Phamon Village, Chom-thong district, Chiang mai province; their customers were European tourists.



Figure 2: Ban Phamon Village, Chom-thong district, Chiang mai province, is a Karen community whose terrace cultivation could be participated by the tourists and travelers who visit the village.

The Application for Community-Based Tourism of Ban Santichon Village

Ban Santichon Village is situated in the near vicinity of Ban Num Hu village, Pai district, Mae Hong Son province or approximately 4.5 kilometers away from the Pai district. In fact, the Pai district, Mae Hong Son province, was considered to be one of the most attractive tourism locations in Thailand. Ban Santichon Village is actually a Yunnan's village which was a closed-town due to narcotic problems. Tourists and travelers were afraid to enter the village for fear that narcotics charges would be made upon them. But after the year 2003, when the narcotics law was declared as an enforcement policy of the Thai government, Ban Santichon Village considered itself as a source of the narcotic problem so the local residents tried to find solutions to their problems such as uneducated citizens, illiteracy, and low price of their domestic crops, hence, tourism industry was considered as a means to generate livelihood income for the family units.

Ban Santichon Village has plenty of natural resources such as crops, herbal medicinal plants, wild animals and variety of forestry products as it was full of multi-biological products. Ban Santichon Village also possessed a variety of Chinese traditions and Yunnan's folklores as tourism attractions for they had Yunnan's festivals all year long. The festivals revealed their history and their backgrounds including local wisdom and local knowledge, especially, on Chinese medicinal herbs and the healing of diseases as well as health care, and the identity of their domestic textile and clothing decoration as indicated in figure 3 and 4.

Furthermore, the local residents of Ban Santichon Village could perform their musical instrument playing beautifully. Not to mention about their cooking and the Yunnanese foods with their local ingredients and recipes. The food processing methodology is very interesting and the food products could encourage profit earning. Briefly, tourism industry made Ban Santichon Village became one of Thailand's most attractive tourists locations, hence, it became a prototype community in Mae Hong Son province.



Figure 3: Ban Phamon Village, Chom-thong district, Chiangmai province, constructed cottages for welcoming the tourists and the travelers to the village with their own administration management.



Figure 4: Ban Phamon Village, Chom-thong district, Chiangmai province, has Yunnanese traditions and festivals throughout the year as part of the tourism industry.

The Scenario Strategic Planning

Under the change of the political, socio-economic and technological environment as the key elements in the alteration in the vicinity of Ban Phamon Village, Chom-thong

district, Chiang mai province, and Ban Santichon Village, Pai district, Mae Hong Son, the tourists and the visitors to the villages were still flown into the villages regularly and constantly both for Thai and foreign visitors during the 5 month high season period. The attraction was focused on goods particularly coffee which is the identity of the community, and services in terms of local products and handicrafts.

The social media and the online internet system played an important role in the welcoming tourists to the Ban Phamon Village, Chom-thong district, Chiang mai province, and Ban Santichon Village, Pai district, Mae Hong Son province. Therefore, foreigners could visit Karen and the Yunnanese villages; while the local residents could be able to travel out of their residence and land price became higher and higher for entrepreneurs invested their money in the tourism industry. Thus, it would be a good thing to make the industry become sustainable

The Strengthening of Community Power through the Usage of the Scenario Strategic Planning

The population sample of Ban Phamon Village, Chom-thong district, Chiang mai province, and Ban Santichon Village, Pai district, Mae Hong Son province, consisted of 240 samples. The questionnaires had been constructed before the pre- and the post-of the Scenario Strategic Planning. The Scenario Strategic Planning was designed according to the 4 aspects of tourism industry as illustrated in tourism resources as index 1, and the development of the convenient and service facilities as index 2, and the tourism marketing as index 3, and the integrated administration as index 4,

Based on the results of this research, the usage of the Scenario Strategic Planning in the community development was found to be effectively evaluated on the strength development and the tourism administrative management capability and skills. Findings in this study reveal that most of the measurement values were below 4.0, except the tourism resources had the average value of 4.30 which indicated that local residents would not understand and could not recognize the importance of Scenario Strategic Planning. But after the community had been educated on the Scenario Strategic Planning, the indicators of every index seemed to be higher in values than before. For example, the strengthening of community power before the training was 2.88, but after the training the value increased to be 4.30. The strongest or the maximum strengthening power as illustrated in figure 5 was evidently to identify the region and the activities in tourism industry as to lead to the development of the tourism areas due to the criteria and the conditions specified in the figure 5 which was the overall image of the assessment before and after the strengthening development.

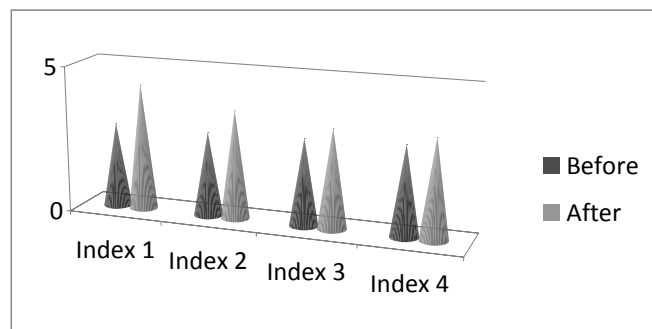


Figure 5: The overall image of the assessment before and after the strengthening development.

Based on the study of the tourism attractions and resources, it was found out that before the usage of the Scenario Strategic Planning, the strength and the skill of the local residents on tourism was found to be very low as the community strength which afterwards increased to 33.90% from the development as the detailed in table 1.

Table 1: The assessment on community strength before and after the application of the Scenario Strategic Planning, classified according to the index on tourism attractions and tourism resources.

Index	5	4	3	2	1	Average
1. Convenient items assimilated in the old environment	11.11 21.88	15.36 39.16	33.58 28.41	26.32 9.45	3.73 1.05	3.21 4.12
2. Tourism classification and activities for the development criteria of the areas	9.35 24.95	16.92 28.21	30.64 25.44	30.66 10.16	12.73 11.24	3.53 4.64
3. Administrative and development plan - According to the socio-cultural community tourism	6.93 26.41	13.35 35.34	24.40 38.51	35.64 0.26	19.68 -	2.47 4.28
4. Maintenance on the tourism resources - Constantly on the controlling criteria and restoration	8.11 24.38	16.42 31.07	29.11 30.33	36.68 10.16	9.68 4.06	2.98 4.17
5. The people who got involvement in the sustainable tourism to preserve the tourism standardization	- 30.17	9.38 35.74	26.55 29.14	30.26 3.42	33.45 1.53	2.19 4.28
Average (Total)	5.1 25.56	14.29 33.90	22.86 30.37	31.98 6.01	45.77 4.16	2.88 4.30

On the aspect of convenient facilities and services, the average percentage values before and after the application of Scenario Strategic Planning were 2.86% and 3.68% which did not very much increased. The maximum value was 4.22%. The controlling criteria were socio-economic standards and the environmental as the detailed in table 2.

Table 2: The assessment on community strength before and after the application of the Scenario Strategic Planning, classified according to the index on convenient items and services

Minor Index	Strength levels before and after Development					Average
	5	4	3	2	1	
	%	%	%	%	%	
1. Convenient items must be incorporated with the former geographic environment	10.16 22.52	15.11 24.18	30.14 36.11	30.49 11.58	14.10 5.16	2.63 4.22
2. Products or Activities of Tourism must open the opportunities for the visitors to learn and to understand as well as to recognize the value of	17.35 21.11	18.63 28.39	21.93 39.18	35.13 9.16	6.96 1.71	2.46 4.18

tourism attraction.						
3. The development of the convenient items must be within the community objectives when the participation get along with the capabilities of every development plan aspect .	9.38 17.64	18.19 30.19	30.53 36.18	25.60 10.17	26.48 5.10	2.69 3.19
4. Tourists have safety in life and assets during the visitation or during the stay.	18.11 20.08	17.93 19.14	35.64 34.38	18.11 16.15	10.21 10.25	3.42 3.49
5. to provide the informative definition data, tourism service center, and local tour guide service	19.93 21.64	21.15 29.53	30.32 31.92	29.14 10.48	0.54 6.43	3.09 3.32
Average (Total)	14.99 20.60	18.20 26.43	29.38 35.55	27.69 9.60	9.44 7.82	2.86 3.68

Owing to the tourism marketing, the average percentage values before and after the application of Scenario Strategic Planning were 2.6% and 3.38% which was considered to be not a very much, whereas, the continuous development should be made on traveling business and tour guides development. The basic data should be focused on the background and the demand and supply based on the tourist satisfaction. The satisfaction was considered as a mechanism in judging the community tourism development as well as its assessment on the tourism industry investment and the responsible persons including the attractions as indicated in table 3.

Table 3: The assessment on community strength before and after the application of the Scenario Strategic Planning, classified according to the index on tourism marketing

Minor Index	Strength levels before and after Development					Average
	5	4	3	2	1	
	%	%	%	%	%	
1. The development of tourism business system and the tour guide	8.35 8.59	16.32 19.38	26.17 30.68	30.11 30.24	19.05 11.11	3.15 3.28
2. The development of tourism network and the other tourism network communities	11.92 19.32	21.55 22.49	30.91 29.48	31.24 20.41	4.38 8.30	3.08 3.92
3. The development of the tourism background , demand, and the satisfaction of the travelers and tourists for use in the tourism planning and decision on the tourism project	6.49 7.77	19.33 18.56	29.41 35.83	34.41 30.44	10.36 7.40	2.91 3.11

4. The assessment and the inspection as well as the research on problem solving methods and the quality-added to the tourist attractions, the tourism investment and development	8.35 9.74	9.11 11.32	24.32 30.11	34.71 38.42	23.51 10.14	2.71 3.19
Average (Total)	8.78 11.36	16.58 17.94	27.70 31.53	32.61 29.88	14.33 9.31	2.96 3.38

On the aspect of the integrated administration, the average percentage values before and after the application of Scenario Strategic Planning were 3.07% and 3.38% which was considered to be not very much. It was stated earlier that the index on the linkage and the coordination of the plan and the involvement of the neighboring units should be applied. For example, the local administration organization should have a policy and the plan for environmental development at the provincial levels and the development has to be done continuously as indicated in table 4.

Table 4: The assessment on community strength before and after the application of the Scenario Strategic Planning, classified according to the index on the integrated tourism administration and management

Minor Index	Strength levels before and after Development					Average
	5	4	3	2	1	
	%	%	%	%	%	
1. The community must have vision and policy in the tourism administration management	10.21	23.32	30.11	26.15	10.21	3.09
	12.34	28.51	34.56	14.39	10.20	3.54
2. The community must participate in the tourism administration via the establishment of the personnel management organization	9.66	14.93	39.11	20.28	16.02	3.19
	10.48	20.52	36.87	18.66	13.47	3.38
3. The justice in the distribution of tourism benefits	20.11	30.48	30.09	11.78	7.54	3.28
	19.35	31.31	34.18	10.38	4.78	3.46
4. Must have a plan on the integrated tourism promotion strategy	5.38	9.33	21.19	38.70	25.4	2.68
	19.38	28.45	34.14	10.16	7.87	3.45
5. Must have a strategic plan for tourism networking together with some other tourism units	4.38	15.44	40.11	28.48	11.59	3.14
	6.58	11.93	38.16	30.13	13.20	3.08
Average (Total)	9.95 13.63	18.70 24.14	32.12 35.58	25.08 16.75	14.15 9.90	3.07 3.38

Conclusion

The researcher had utilized the tourism strategic development process in the vicinity of Ban Phamon Village, Chom-thong district, Chiang mai province, and Ban Santichon Village, Pai district, Mae Hong Son province. The village population

samples had applied the usage of the Scenario Strategic Planning for the community development of the tourism administration and management. Based on the results of this research study, the following conclusions are drawn:

1. The Ban Phamon Village, Chom-thong district, Chiang mai province was a Karen community which had a high percentage of tourism resources and is considered a tourism prototype village that have aggressive marketing with the assistance of the private and government sector. Whereas, the Ban Santichon Village, Pai district, Mae Hong Son province, was a Yunnanese community which had the characteristics of the tourism prototype village in terms of tourism administration and management as shown by evaluation on the strength and the tourism skill which was below 4.00, except for the tourist attraction and tourism resources that had the average score of 4.30.
2. After the Application for Community-based tourism, the strength and the skill in tourism industry increased significantly. These could be justified by the results in index 1 where the percentage on tourist attraction and tourism resources increased from 2.88% to 4.3%. Whereas, in index 2, the percentage in terms of convenience and service increased from 2.86% to be 3.68%. Seemingly, tourism marketing increased from 2.96% to 3.38% in index 3, and finally, the index 4, the percentage in terms of integrated administration increased from 3.07% to be 3.38% in index 4.

In summary, the Application for Community-based tourism, particularly on the Scenario Strategic Planning has a dominant or leading factor which is assimilated to the nature and the trends that could be analyzed as fluctuation towards the external factors and the outside situations. In brief, the construction of Scenario Strategic Planning has to be done with shared vision and the procedure has to be done systemically with the community development.

Acknowledgement

Appreciations are likewise conveyed to the National Research Committee Team (NRCT) who served as the supportive guidance to the Ban Phamon Village, Chom-thong district, Chiang mai province, and Ban Santichon Village, Pai district, Mae Hong Son province for the Application for Community-based and the Scenario Strategic Planning that has been applied for the development of community tourism industry.

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Local Stakeholders Participation In Developing Sustainable Community Based Rural Tourism (CBRT): The Case Of Three Villages In The East Coast Of Malaysia

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This paper firstly, discusses the concept of stakeholders participation in developing sustainable community based rural tourism (CBRT) with respect to types of community participation, strengths, motivations and barriers to participation in sustainable CBRT. Secondly, a discussion on the survey of local stakeholders via questionnaires, which were, carried out in three CBRT sites in the East Coast of Malaysia. This survey was conducted to identify main reasons for local participation in CBRT, followed by an analysis of likelihood of local stakeholders to be included in sustainable CBRT's decision-making process. 78% of the respondents (a total of 85) indicated that the likelihood of them being included in decision-making process has improved. The paper also indicated two major influential factors for greater participation of local stakeholders in the decision-making process i.e. good and workable CBRT organisations and presence of strong leadership. This paper concludes by commenting on the proposed process to enhance participation of local stakeholders in developing and sustaining sustainable CBRT.

Key words: community based, leadership, participation, rural tourism, sustainable

Introduction

Gearing a sustainable community based rural tourism (CBRT) programme into practice is essentially dependent on strong participation from host communities and their stakeholders. As United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO, 2005 in Graci and Dodds, 2010: 185) point out:

“Sustainable tourism development requires the informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, as well as strong political leadership to ensure wide participation and consensus building.”

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The above statement suggested that sustainable tourism (and CBRT in this context) may not be successfully implemented without continuous support and participation of all relevant stakeholders. Therefore, determining the host communities and their stakeholders' perception and support towards sustainable CBRT development is the first crucial step in planning for sustained the tourism activities. To further address this matter, this paper will, firstly, discusses the concept of stakeholders participation in sustainable CBRT with respect to types of community participation, strengths, motivations and barriers to participation. Secondly, a discussion on the survey of local stakeholders, which were, carried out in three CBRT sites in the East Coast of Malaysia to assess the likelihood of local stakeholders to be included in sustainable CBRT's decision-making process. This paper concludes by commenting on the proposed process to enhance participation of local stakeholders in developing and sustaining sustainable CBRT.

Local Stakeholders Participation in Sustainable CBRT

Increased interest by various groups within rural communities towards sustainable CBRT programmes has led to some conflicting issues; for example, who should be involved and who should make the decisions with regards to planning and future development of sustainable CBRT? Authors such as Graci and Dodds (2010); Sebele (2009) and Hassan *et al.* (2006) agreed that the CBRT development process should include local communities as principal stakeholders and decision-makers. This is because local communities play significant roles in shaping the rural environment, utilising most of the rural resources for economic gain and are responsible for creating the local culture which becomes the main product in selling and marketing the CBRT programmes. Therefore, any attempt to exclude the "owners of their culture" could to some extent, result in serious negative impacts not only on the viability of CBRT programmes, but also on community life as a whole.

Cornell (1997:250) defines participation as "not only about achieving the more efficient and more equitable distribution of material resources: it is also about the sharing of knowledge and the transformation of the process of learning itself in the service of people's self-development". Others, such as Ashley and Roe (1998 in Aref and Redzuan, 2008:937) have described community participation as "a spectrum from passive to active involvement to full participation where there is active community participation and venture ownership". From the perspective of tourism planning, community participation can be defined as "a process of involving all [stakeholders] (local government officials, local citizens, architects, developers, business people and planners) in such way that decision-making is shared" (Haywood, 1988 in Okazaki, 2008:511).

The process in gathering people from several disciplines together with each of them participating by sharing ideas and knowledge, according to Arnstein (1969 in Okazaki 2008:511) could "expand the power redistribution, thereby enabling society to fairly redistribute benefits and costs". From the tourism point of view, Brohman (1996 in Aref and Redzuan, 2008:937) advocated community participation as "a tool to solve major problems of tourism through local participation and functional stakeholders involvement in tourism activities – which will achieve more equal distribution of the benefits, discourage undemocratic decision-making and will meet the community needs of local communities in different ways".

Types of Participation

Leksakundilok (2006 in Aref and Redzuan, 2008:937) has established a typology of community participation in tourism development with a modification on Arnstein's model for ladder of citizen participation, and each type of participation is described in Table 1.

Table 1: Types of stakeholders participation in tourism development

Types	
Self-mobilization	Local people may directly contact explorer tourists and develop tourism service by themselves. Some programs may be supported by NGOs that are not involved in the decision-making of the local community.
Empowerment	Empowerment is the highest rung of community participation, in which local people have control over all development without any external force or influence. The benefits are fully distributed in the community.
Partnership	Conciliation between developers and local people is developed in the participatory process. Local organizations elect the leaders to convey their opinion and negotiate with external developers. There are some degrees of local influence in the development process. The benefits may be distributed to the community in the form of collective benefits and jobs and income to the people.
Interaction	People have greater involvement in this level. The rights of local people are recognized and accepted in practice at local level. Tourism is organized by community organization, however, receives limited support from government agencies.
Consultation	People are consulted in several ways, e.g. involved in community's meeting or even public hearing. Developers may accept some contribution from the locals that benefit their projects, e.g. surveying, local transportation and goods.
Informing	People are told about tourism development program, which have been decided already, in the community. The developers run the projects without any listening to local people's opinions.
Manipulation	Tourism development projects are generally developed by some powerful individuals, or government, without any discussion with the people or community leaders. The benefits go to some elite persons; the lower classes may not get any benefits. This level applies to most conventional community tourism areas

Source: Leksakundilok (2006 in Aref and Redzuan, 2008:937).

From Table 1, the highest level of participation is when communities achieve self-mobilization, which allows community members to establish their own tourism operations without assistance from other ventures, especially from government or foreign business bodies. In certain cases, however, especially when communities and their stakeholders feel that they are not capable or not ready to manage the potential risks from CBRT development, maintaining a certain level of partnership and empowerment, without pushing themselves to the top of the participation ladder has gained more favour.

As the tourism activities develop in their areas, communities come to realise the importance of the tourism network and its influences on the development of local tourism products. Furthermore, tourism is a vulnerable sector and very sensitive to any global or national changes (Hamzah, 2004). Global economic downturn or the effects of diseases such as the Influenza A (Swine flu) pandemic recently, has significantly influenced global and national travel patterns. If such events continue, they will not only decrease the number of in-coming international and local tourists, which will result in lower revenue and income to local operators; in the long term, they could jeopardise the survival of sustainable CBRT itself. Due to the vulnerability of local tourism to external changes, some CBRT operators in Malaysia have found it is safer to maintain their partnership with other investors or agencies, whereby communities could enjoy tourism's benefits, although they have to bear potential costs or risks from global changes that could occur in the future (TPRG, 2009).

While some authors agree that community participation can be a positive force towards achieving sustainable CBRT development (Okazaki, 2008; Aref and Redzuan, 2008; Hassan et al., 2006), others seemed to differ (Sebele, 2009; Liu, 2006; Taylor, 1995 in Okazaki, 2008:511; Rattanasuwongchai, 2001). A community and stakeholders' participation approach may, according to George (2004) and Njoh (2002), sometimes fail to identify the influences of elites within the communities in the participation process. For many areas such as in Africa (Sebele, 2009), in Thailand (Rattanasuwongchai, 2001) and in Malaysia (Liu, 2006), tourism projects in rural areas are driven by foreign ownership or the private sector or even by powerful and wealthy individuals within the community and do not contribute much to the community itself. Community and stakeholders' participation are only discussed in superficial terms but the primary goal is to make a profit for such commercial entities, and for a few powerful individuals and families within the community (Sebele, 2009; Yaman and Muhd, 2004). Indeed, it causes displacement, increased costs, economic leakages, loss of access to resources and socio-cultural disruption among the locals.

Strengths of Participation

Despite all the criticisms that have been described above, there is still a growing interest and awareness among social scientists to implement a community participation approach in planning and development of sustainable CBRT. Okazaki (2008:512), in summary, has listed four strengths of a community participation approach (Table 2).

Table 2: Strengths of community participation.

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. <i>Local issues</i> – have a direct influence on the tourist experience: a backlash by the local's results in hostile behaviour towards tourists (Pearce, 1994). Thus, tourists environments should be created in harmony with the social climate, where residents will benefit from tourism and not become the victims (Wahab and Pigram, 1997).2. <i>Local assets</i> – the image of tourism is based on the assets of the local community, including not only the local people but also the natural environment, infrastructure, facilities and special events or festivals; therefore, the cooperation of the host community is essential to access and develop these assets appropriately (Murphy, 1995).3. <i>Local driving force</i> – public involvement functions as a driving force to protect the community's natural environment and culture as tourism products, while |
|---|

simultaneously encouraging greater tourism-related income (Felstead, 2000).

4. ***Tourism vulnerability*** – because the tourism industry is sensitive both to internal and external forces, many tourism development plans are often only partially implemented or not at all (Bovy, 1982). Moreover, even those that are fully implemented are not always sustainable. Thus, to increase the feasibility and longevity of projects, all plans should be linked with the overall socioeconomic development of the community.

Source: adapted from Okazaki (2008: 512)

To encourage a greater level of participation among local communities and their stakeholders in sustainable CBRT planning and decision-making process, Smith (1984 in George, 2004:58) presents four prerequisites: 1) the legal right and opportunity to participate; 2) access to information; 3) provision of enough resources for people or groups to get involved; and 4) genuinely public – broad rather than selected (sometimes elite) involvement. Besides factors which directly related with locals, Yaman and Muhd (2004) have suggested that sustainable CBRT planning and development must be strengthened through education for local host populations, industry and visitors as well as respect for the quality of natural environment, resources and sustainable use of energy and investment in alternative modes of transport (Yaman and Muhd, 2004).

Motivation for Taking Part in Sustainable CBRT

Dunn (2007) in community-based tourism (CBT) research in Thailand and Sebele (2009) in CBT research in Botswana have identified that one of the many motivations to get involved in tourism is because the members of a community wanted to help with conservation of the environment and improve their management skills. They were also interested in meeting new people both in their community and outside their community. Some members of the community, especially women, stated their motivations were driven by interest to learn English and improve their skills mainly in language for communication (Dunn, 2007).

Another motivating factor is earning supplementary income from local tourism activities, especially when their current jobs offer flexible time which enables them to participate in SCBRT activities (Dunn, 2007) and it is applicable for tourism projects in seasonal areas (Logar, 2009) (refer to Figure 1).

Barriers to Participation

This section discusses barriers to sustainable CBRT participation under two different points of view; that is from those of the host communities and the government. The identification and organisation of these barriers are based on review of the literature and by examine previous research works by Dukeshire and Thurlow (2002), Krank *et al.* (2010) and Stone and Stone (2011). However, such barriers are unique to particular CBRT sites including those in Malaysia and most of the barriers have been eliminated through well-planned, well-developed and good management of CBRT programmes accompanied by experienced and motivated host communities. Nevertheless, these list of barriers may be useful in understand common issues surrounding the communities participation in sustainable CBRT programmes in general.

There are seven main barriers to host communities' participation of sustainable CBRT identified: lack of understanding, lack of resources, reliance on volunteers, lack to access to information, absence of representation in decision-making process, the negative perceptions among government representatives towards local communities and finally, tourism policy timeline restrictions (Figure 1).

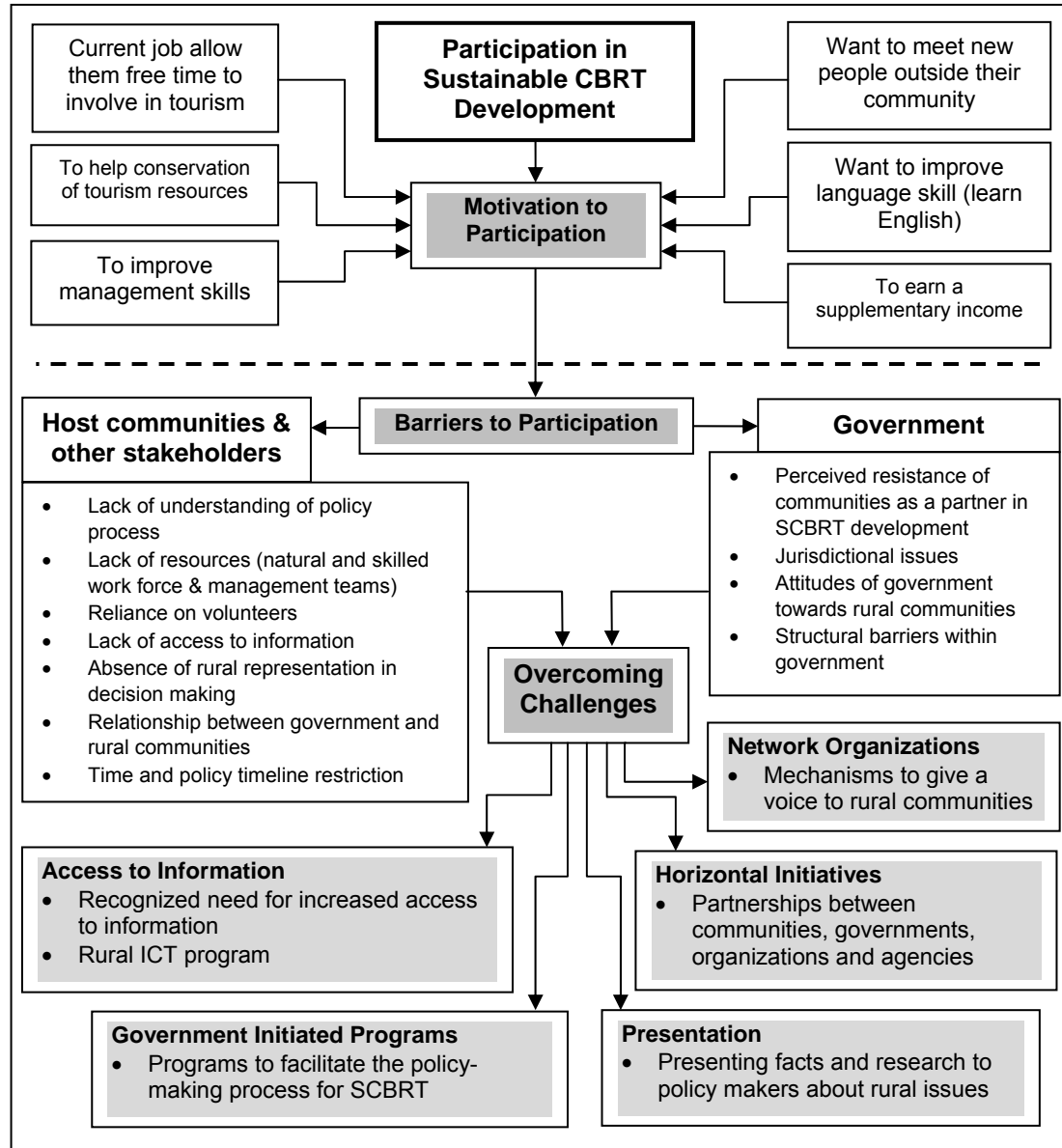


Figure 1: Motivation, barriers and overcoming challenges in local participation and stakeholder's involvement. Source: adapted from Aref and Redzuan (2008); Dunn (2007); Dukeshire and Thurlow (2002)

Survey of Local Stakeholders and Presentation of Result

This section describes the background of the CBRT sites selected for this study, i.e. Kuala Medang village in Pahang; Teluk Ketapang in Terengganu and; Seterpa in Kelantan (Figure 2), followed by presentation of results from survey of local stakeholders. The information regarding sustainable CBRT for every site is derived from the survey of local stakeholders using questionnaires, and interviews with CBRT coordinators (during site visits in October until December 2009 and during an

extended field survey visit in October 2010) as well as from unpublished village's annual reports, TPRG's consultancy project reports on Kampungstay and Homestay programmes (2009) and other additional materials provided in the MOTOUR and MRRD websites. During the survey, 85 respondents took part, i.e. 58 CBRT participants and 27 non-participants.

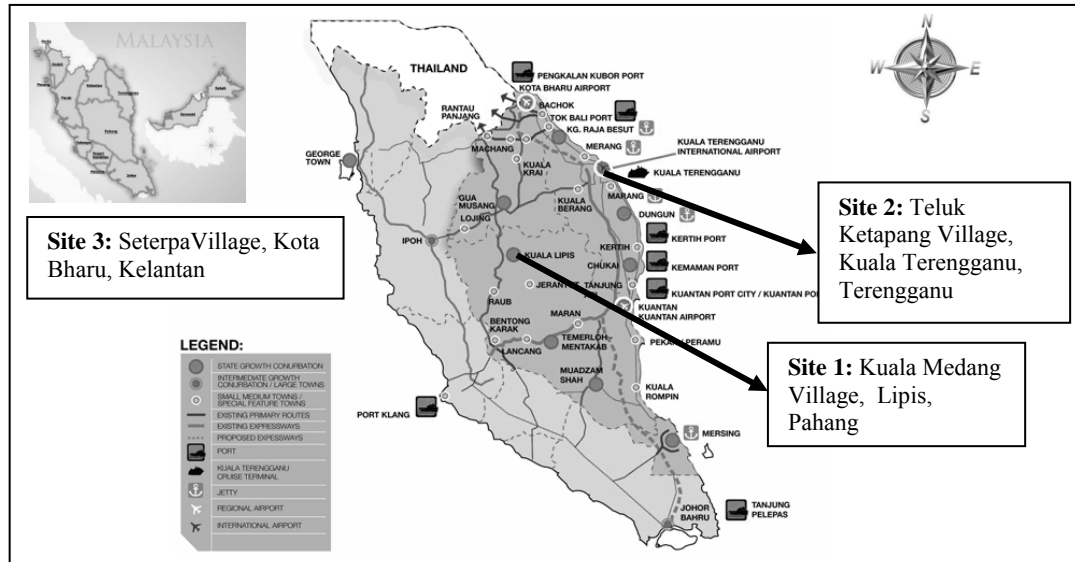


Figure 2: Locations of the three villages in the East Coast of Malaysia. Source: adapted from ECERDC (2008)

Principal Reasons for Participating in Tourism Activities

The interviews (using open-ended questions) were carried out to identify, from the economic and entrepreneurship, socio-cultural and leadership, and environmental point of view, reasons why respondents participated in the local tourism activities (Table 3). As suggested by literature reviews in earlier section, the participation of local stakeholders is very important since many tourism activities have various impacts (direct and indirect) on the local community wellbeing. The respondents' reasons for participating in tourism activities are very important in this research as this helps to identify if there were any specific needs and, maybe, levels of tolerance regarding certain aspects of local tourism activities, which might affect their lives when tourism activities are further developed in their village.

As shown in Table 3, the main economic reason for participation is “to earn extra income” (43%), followed by “to improve the living conditions” (21%). This result was quite similar to findings from literature review whereby respondents are attracted by stable incomes offered by jobs in tourism activities, and with the sort of income that could enable them to improve their living standards. For businesspeople, participation in tourism activities helps to market their products and services through tourism road shows and exhibitions held at local and international level (17%). As for tourism coordinators, their active engagement in tourism planning and development (via local CBRT organisers) at the local level is crucial, as their performance has been the subject for a regular monitoring by the government agencies (8%). Based on the information provided by the local organisers, the government agencies can determine any future needs for improving and enhancing the development of tourism products including training, promotional and marketing, financial aid, etc. (Research fieldwork in 2010). Other economic reasons are to increase personal savings (7%) followed by

the need for income from tourism activities to pay business loans and as a means to support their family members (2% in both cases).

Table 3: Respondents principal reasons for participating in tourism activities (all villages)

	Freq. (n=)	%
<i>Economic and entrepreneurship reasons</i>		
▪ To earn extra income	25	43.0
▪ To enjoy a better living condition (stable jobs)	12	21.0
▪ To increase market opportunity for their products	10	17.0
▪ As a part of requirement by aid agencies	5	8.0
▪ To increase savings	4	7.0
▪ To pay the business loans	1	2.0
▪ To contribute more money to the family or parents	1	2.0
Total	58	100.0
<i>Social-cultural and leadership reasons</i>		
▪ To promote local and traditional cultures	26	45.0
▪ To build self-esteem and co-operation between member of the community and with tourists	11	19.0
▪ As a vital part of youth development – to become the future leaders	9	16.0
▪ As a spare time activities	7	12.0
▪ To increase the opportunities to be included in tourism continuous training and workshops	5	9.0
Total	58	100.0
<i>Environmental reasons</i>		
▪ To help keeping the village clean and beautiful	30	52.0
▪ To increase awareness of and to learn more about environmental and natural resources conservation	17	29.0
▪ Increasing the practice of waste handling (recycle, reuse and reduce)	11	19.0
Total	58	100.0

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

As for socio-cultural and leadership reasons, 45% of the respondents perceived their involvements were “to promote local and traditional cultures” followed by the need “to build self-esteem and co-operation between members of the community and tourists” (19%). Based on information derived from CBRT reports, each village has a designated committee which is in charge of promoting local culture and customs. For example, in Teluk Ketapang, the CBRT committee has divided local traditional cultures into four main activities namely; traditional games, traditional dances and performance, traditional cuisines and traditional arts. The groups interacted with other community members to educate them about their cultural attributes, which then helps them in communicating with the tourists. In addition, respondents who are involved in tourism have also explained that they were motivated by the need to develop future leadership, especially among young people in the community (16%). If local tourism can be developed and offer a better future for the younger generation, they are more likely stay (Research fieldwork in 2010). The findings have also suggested that the respondents were motivated to become involved

in tourism as their “spare time activities” (12%) as well as to increase their opportunities to be included in tourism training and workshops (9%).

From the environmental point of view, more than 50% of the respondents indicated they are driven by the need “to help in keeping the village clean and beautiful”, and the other 29% suggested the notion, “to increase awareness and understanding of environmental and natural resources conservation”. These findings have suggested that there is a positive change in attitude. During an interview, the CBRT coordinator of Kuala Medang said that it took more than five years for the CBRT committee just to educate local people not to litter. Meanwhile, the remaining 19% have indicated “to increase the practice of waste handling (reduce, reuse and recycle)” as one of their reasons.

Assessment of Likelihood To Be Included in Decision-Making Process

The greater engagement of local community and stakeholders in the decision making process is a critical element for tourism to become sustainable (Graci and Dodds, 2010). The survey also explored the likelihood of respondents to be included in decision-making process and the result was presented in Figure 3. A majority of respondents felt that the likelihood of their being included in the decision-making process is improving (78%). However, 5% believed that their likelihood is declining, while the other 17% remained unsure.

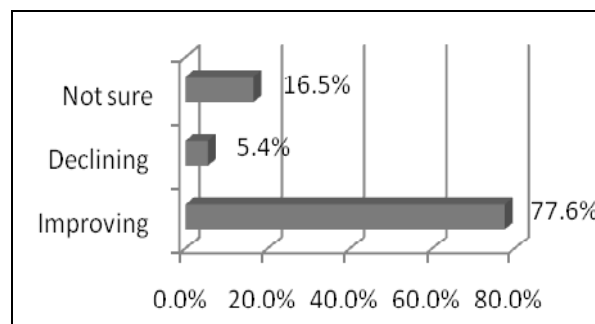


Figure 3: Respondents perceptions of likelihood of being included in decision-making process (n=85). Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

Based on the data collected during the extended fieldwork (2010), continuous support support and participation from the communities and their stakeholders (related with result in Figure 3) are influenced by two major factors:

- i. The presence of strong local leaders who command respect and are capable of inspiring a sense of ownership among the local community on CBRT programmes. As evidence in all three villages, the CBRT leader of Kuala Medang is seen to be a dedicated senior district officer who volunteers to initiate sustainable CBRT programmes. As for Teluk Ketapang, the leader is a local primary school teacher who has been appointed by the village committee. The leader of Seterpa is a lecturer who is a self-appointed spokesperson for the community. Although the local leaders, as identified, are people of different professions and backgrounds, they share, however, the same qualities, i.e. they accepted their appointments as part of their responsibilities towards the local communities and not for recognition (Research fieldwork in 2010).
- ii. Having a good and efficient CBRT organisation to carry out planning, operation, monitoring and promotion of the programmes as another key strengths. The

organisation should include every section of the community, especially youth and women's groups. In all three villages, their local organisations were initially made up of talented and dedicated individuals from within the community, with active participation by every section of the community including women and young people (Research fieldwork in 2010).

Conclusion

The scope or context of CBRT is very broad, involving multi-dimensional inputs, and many stakeholders (with various interests) need to be involved. As a response to these variety of needs, the participation of relevant stakeholders in decision-making process, as presented in the survey of respondents of three villages could coordinate discussion on raising issues in local tourism, and to protect local interest and increase stakeholders voices/shares over certain issues of interest. Furthermore, the community is the party, who often receives direct impacts from any policies or planning outcome, as imposed by other parties (especially government agencies and private investors).

The study also discovered that an active engagement with decision-making process could expand the host communities and stakeholders' learning curve through: (1) Receiving direct exposure to organisational leadership and training programmes provided by government agencies (especially by the Institute for Rural Advancement, INFRA); (2) Enhancing the stakeholders' understanding on the sustainable CBRT concept by working closely with government agencies through training and educational programmes such as discussion forum and experience sharing, motivational talks, exhibitions and educational trip visits (Research fieldwork in 2010). This new knowledge could potentially enhance the stakeholders' understanding of sustainable tourism including in CBRT development and its implementation in the local context.

As demonstrated by this study, participation is important to maintain stakeholders' continuous support towards local tourism programmes. Furthermore, with their likelihood for being included in decision-making, the local communities could share their skills and local knowledge –considered as inputs and provide direction needed to carry out planning for tourism.

Engaging the host communities in the development process, however, is not without challenges. Information on communities' perception towards their participation in sustainable CBRT and identification of enabling and constraint factors for participation are essential as the starting point of CBRT programmes. Further studies are required to determine whether the communities, especially their committees and participants are ready to carry out the full implementation of the programme (i.e. whether they possess the knowledge, skill and good leadership for the process). Similar considerations are also applicable to other CBRT sites that might share (or not) the same circumstances as these three villages.

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Tourism Crisis Management: The Mindful Learning From Tourism Crises

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The mindful learning demonstrates how, if barriers are overcome, learning can contribute to effective crisis management through not only mitigating the negative effects but also potentially averting a crisis from occurring. This paper is an attempt to examine how tourism organizations can mindfully learn from crises and disasters and encourage the adoption of a mindful culture in their organizations. The results show that there are many barriers which impede organizations to learn mindfully and adjust themselves to the new situations. It also discusses that most tourism organizations neglected mindful organizational learning and paid more attention to superficial or single loop learning from tourism crises.

Key words: crisis management, mindful learning, learning barriers, tourism crisis

Introduction

While managers, nowadays, have more advanced tools to predict and manage crises, still too often fail to recognize the early warning signals of the next ones. The occurrence of recurrent crises in one organization or a destination is a proof to this claim. As an example, the occurrence of many terrorist attacks in hotels in the past decade in different parts of the world has not led to non-negligence of hotel industry from safety and security issues, and in some cases, we see the reoccurrence of the same incident in a destination like Bali, Indonesia (Bali bombing in 2002 and 2005). However, the cause of this negligence could be found in reluctance or lack of endeavor of decision makers to the mindful or in-depth learning from managing crises.

Failure to learn mindfully from tourism crisis management creates a grave concern of unpreparedness in confronting future uncertainties amongst tourism and travel industry. Surprisingly tourism crisis management literature lacks sufficient research on the subject of mindful learning from crisis management and at the same time, no specific study from tourism perspective was done to reckon possible barriers which may hinder in-depth learning. To date, the study of tourism crisis management has concentrated on exploring crisis impacts, response strategies, recovery and turnaround with paying limited attention to learning from crises and disasters

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(Faulkner, 2001; Henderson, 2002; Ghaderi et al, 2012; Blackman & Ritchie, 2008; Ritchie, 2004; Cohen and Neal; 2010; Hall, 2010). This tendency, in turn, provides lack of hindsight and preparedness among industry players for effective crisis management.

Mindful learning, however, is an attempt that not only the effects of crises can be mitigated, but also it prevents a crisis from happening. Unfortunately tourism crisis management literature lacks in-depth research on investigating the role of mindful learning in tourism crisis management and how tourism organizations learn and apply lessons while managing crises. Using the concept of mindfulness this study attempts to discover how a mindful learning can be incorporated in tourism crisis management and identify the barriers which hinder mindful learning. It also recommends mindful learning in organizational culture rather than mindless learning.

Methodology

This study is a conceptual paper which focuses on the concept of mindful learning in tourism crisis management. The paper reviews the current literature in other disciplines outside tourism in order to adopt some theories and concepts to the study of tourism crisis management. It uses secondary research results which have been done in management, economic, business and education areas. Incorporating the current model of mindful learning into tourism crisis studies this research, offers insights for further investigations and empirical research in this area of study.

Literature Review

Mindful Versus Mindless Learning in Crisis Management

Mindfulness is defined as “a flexible state of mind in which we are actively engaged in present, noticing new things and sensitive to context”. When people are mindful, rules and routines may direct their behavior rather than predetermine it. From organizational perspective, when organizations look at issues from a single, rigid perspective and respond in an ad hoc manner, without critically questioning their strategies and actions, then mindlessness occurs (Veil, 2011). When people are in the state of mindlessness, they behave like machines that have been programmed to perform according to the sense the behavior made in the past, rather than the present (Langer, 2000). Mindfulness, however, looks carefully at the process of each situation and the preconceived notion of what the results should be.

Weick and Putnam (2006) in an interesting analogy discuss about the notion of mindfulness from the Eastern and Western perspectives and they argue that Eastern thought of mindfulness is grounded in Buddhism which suggests “means of enhancing attentional stability and clarity, and of then using these abilities in the introspective examination of conscious states to pursue the fundamental issues concerning consciousness itself” (Wallace, 2005 as cited in Weick and Putnam, 2006, p. 276). From Eastern perspective, mindfulness is the mental capability to hold on to current objects by collecting rambling concentration back to the wanted object. Moreover, in this thought, the attention is given to the internal processes of mind rather than to the contents of mind (Weick and Putnam, 2006).

The Western perspective which has been proposed by Langer (1989) and adopted by several organizational scholars (See for example, Weick et al, 1999; Fiol & O’Connor, 2003) is grounded in this concept that previous experience no longer

serve as an appropriate guide and the destruction “stirs the cognitive pot” (Weick & Putnam, 2006, p. 280). Langer (1989) counts three features of mindfulness as: (1) active differentiation and refinement of existing distinctions (p. 138); (2) creation of new discrete categories out of the continuous streams of events that flow through activities (p. 157); and (3) a more nuanced appreciation of context and of alternative ways to deal with it (p. 159).

By knowing things that do not match our intentions, mindful learning creates an attentiveness that filters through routines and training to draw attention to what does not match our expectations (Veil, 2011). Mindful learning is an awareness to early warning signals which most often are hidden from sights or sometimes do not look real. It is indicating of double-loop learning which inquires the current beliefs and values, actions and decisions and reframe organizational structures (Argyris & Schon, 1978; Blackman & Ritchie, 2008; Faulkner, 2001; Henderson, 2003).

As Langer (1989) says, although people cannot be mindful all times, but they always have capabilities to be mindful of something. This statement also confirms the possibilities of being mindlessness in some situations, when barriers hinder mindful learning. Veil (2010) has shown the rhetorical barriers to mindful learning in the Mindful Learning Model (MLM). The model shows how if barriers overcome, organizations can learn mindfully, detect early warning signals by constantly reframing experiences and adapt the routine process (See figure 1).

Under the Mindful learning, organizations lessen the likelihood of forgetfulness of early warning signals and prepare themselves for future crises. Early warning signals can be any type of information which demonstrates a deviation from normality.

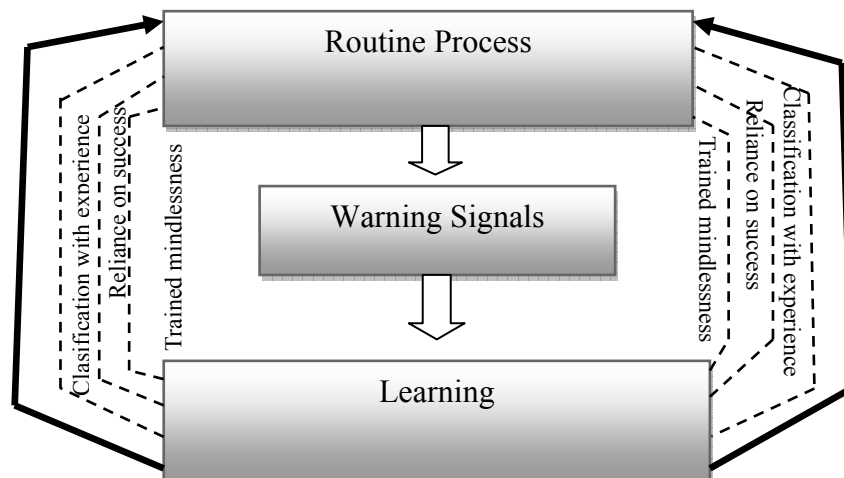


Figure 1: Mindful Learning Model (MLM)
Source: adopted from (Veil, 2011, p. 135).

In MLM, learning is taking place continually in pre-crisis and thus organizations are less likely to experience a crisis, or even failure, but as the barriers always exist, there is always potential to follow a barrier to failure or success (Veil, 2011). So, if an organization wants to exercise mindful learning, it should create a mindful culture and pay attention to information inside and outside of the organization. It is the corporate culture that persuades or dissuades individuals to mindfully deal with crises (Weick & Sutcliffe, 2001), sets limits and forces members to form their behavior according to the values and that tells what's important to pay attention to. By selectively giving priority to the tasks to be mindful of, organizational

members can reexamine elements of the organizing process and better identify early warning signals. These members, however, are empowered enough to manage their setting through mindful learning (Veil, 2011).

Nevertheless, as mentioned before, some barriers hinder organizations and individuals to mindfully learn from warning signals. Veil (2010) argues that our rhetorical realization of the world influence the understanding of barriers which may hinder recognizing early warning signals of potential crises. The rhetorical barriers such as *trained mindlessness*, *reliance on success*, and *classification with experience* have the ability to lead to breakdown or crisis if organizations/individuals loss the opportunity to learn.

Rhetorical Barriers to Learning

Although many barriers have been reckoned for in-depth learning from crises (See for example, Antonacopoulou, 1999; Schilling & Kluge, 2009; Smith & Elliott, 2007; Veil, 2011), the mindful learning model shows three rhetorical barriers which hinder learning. As mentioned earlier, three barriers are illustrated in the model. The first barrier illustrated in the model is *classification with experience*. Inability to use previous experiences to identify the early warning signals makes it difficult to learn in pre-crisis situations.

Burkey (1954) argues that humans only understand reality through the symbols which they can realize. Discussing the importance of symbols in people's life, Burkey (1954), points out that these symbols form our vision to the world. The barrier of classification with experiences denotes that humans look into the world issues using their previous own pattern of experiences whether personal or secondhand (Veil, 2011). But, inquiring this rigid perspective, Halebian and Finkelstein (1999), say that former experiences are not always relevant to the present one.

Moreover, organizations sometimes need to improve their performance by unlearning former experiences. Sometimes experience is from secondhand sources and in this case, external forces such as media have strong influence to create the rhetorical situations by exaggerating and misinterpreting sensitive issues (Heath and Millar, 2004; Veil, 2011). The ambiguous atmosphere which sometimes media creates in crisis situation can affect the attitude and perception of individuals and frames their understanding of crisis experiences. Veil (2010) argues that although people with similar experiences may have relevancy, there would be difficult to find two people with exactly the same mind-set. One crisis situation will get different responses by a group of people due to their totally different vision to the situation.

People interpret the world's issues based on what Burke (1954) calls terministic screens. Terministic screens direct our attention and alter the picture(s) of "reality" we see much like the different lenses of a camera do. If information does not match our pattern of experiences, it is rarely to be seen by our terministic screens and we will be blind to its effects. "The screens are essentially our classification system for information" (Veil, 2011, p. 124) and all new information will be classified with former experiences. The information which does not match our classification will be disregarded or unnoticed. Moreover, how we react and what we respond to directly related to our classification system.

Reliance on success- some organizations rely on their former success in managing crises and interpret the information based on their previous successful experiences. An organizational culture that concentrates merely on former success can

alter future success by exposing the organization to possible failure (Veil, 2011). Success" stories can create the inability or unwillingness to change" (March & Olsen, 2006; Pfeffer, 1981) and as Nystrom and Starbuck (1984, p. 57) discuss "organizations succumb to crises largely because their top managers, bolstered by recollection of past success, live in worlds circumscribed by their cognitive structure". They moreover believe that top managers misperceive events and justify their organizations' failure.

Antonacopoulou (1999) asserts that if managers are over motivated to act well, then it will hinder their actual learning. However, there are sufficient evidences from literature that organizations that are unable to identify failure and concentrate on former success to justify a possible problem are much more prone to crises rather than those organizations that acknowledge failure and recognize early warning signals through in-depth learning(Antonacopoulou, 1999; Blackman & Henderson, 2004; Fiol & Lyles, 1985; Ritchie et al., 2004; Veil, 2011).

Trained mindlessness-sometimes organizations train their members to ignore warning signals. When managers say "just do your own task" or "get the job done" (Veil, 2010, p. 126), this statements indicate mindlessness. As we discussed earlier, Langer (1989), defines mindlessness as to be incurious to the issues around a situation. Langer (1989) further says "when we are mindless, we are like programmed automatons, treating information in a single-minded and rigid way, as though it were true regardless of the circumstances". This notion says that individuals who are following the routine and do not think out of box, are not attentive to uncertainties. Perrow (2008) argues that when behaving in a mindless manner, organizational members are less attentive to signals, or if they realized, tend to construe such stimuli, not as crises, but as a minor failure.

The concept of "trained incapacity" which suggested by Veblon is manifesting trained mindlessness. The trained incapacity has been defined as "the inability to conceive of, or utilize, new ideas, immobility, then is dysfunctional to innovative or may reduce organizational effectiveness(Dublin, 1970; as cited in Dalton & Todor, 1979, p. 226). Training can potentially hinder our capability to look beyond what we have learnt. Veil (2011) argues that if someone wants to only see what he/she supposes to see, then they are blind to what exists outside their thinking area.

Discussion and Conclusion

Mindful Learning in Tourism Crisis Management

Mindful learning is a neglected area of study in tourism crisis management literature. Research studies suggest that tourism organizations tend to focus more on routines rather than unexpected issues (Blackman & Ritchie, 2008; de Sausmarez, 2004; Ghaderi et al., 2012). Recurrent of many crises in some destinations denotes that tourism organizations have potential to mindlessly ignore the warning signals and then succumb to crises. Confirming this claim, de Sausmarez (2004, p. 158) observed that "few countries appear to make any advance preparations or provision for their tourism sectors in anticipation of a crisis. Instead, they tend to wait until after the event before starting to consider what action to take".

Paraskevas and Altinay (2012) claim although tourism managers admitted that there were enough warning signals prior to a crisis, these signals were neglected or misinterpreted. Other studies, however, (Blackman & Ritchie, 2008; Henderson, 2003) discuss on the reluctance of tourism managers to allocate much resources on

crisis management and preparedness activities. This is what we called single loop learning from tourism crises (Ritchie, 2004). This type of learning focuses on the status quo and does not inquire the beliefs and assumptions of organization culture.

Questioning single loop learning, Anderson (2006) points out that tourism stakeholders in Australia were satisfied with their responses to the events of 2001, namely, the collapse of the HIH Insurance Company, the World Trade Centre attacks and the demise of Ansett Airlines. They did not feel the need to do anything differently should a similar situation happen again. This rigid perspective to crisis management causes signals which are outside of our scope of attention to be ignored or unnoticed. This is a rhetorical barrier of mindful learning model (reliance of past success) that we discussed in this study.

In order to learn mindfully, this study recommends second order or double-loop learning (Argyris, 1999) of tourism crisis management in which not only tourism stakeholders attempt to remove anomalies, but also question the beliefs and assumptions of the organization culture. Mindful learning assists organization members to think out of the box and pay attention to unexpectedness. Incorporating mindful learning in tourism crisis management helps organizations to acquire appropriate knowledge and information out of their routine activities, recognize likely threats and take into account necessary measures to tackle crises. If the potential risks are identified early and actions are taken in time, then, organizations may think of sustainable development.

In addition, mindful thinking will help organizational members to convert potential threat to opportunity and find benefits inside it. Nevertheless, mindful learning might not completely taken place due to rhetorical barriers such as trained mindless, reliance on success and classification with experience. As an example, Bali security forces failed to foil the second terror plot in 2005 due to their trained mindless that can be found in this message which published by authorities “this is the first and last attack here [Bali]”, and has nothing to do with internal conflicts; it is pure international terrorism so they should not worry that it would trigger other conflicts”. (Henderson, 2003, p. 50). A Philippine security official has claimed that few months prior to attacks intelligence officials in Southeast Asia had received information that Jemaah Islamiyah (JI) group was organizing a major strike, possibly in the Philippines or Indonesia, but were unable to uncover the plot's details in time to prevent it (Wikipedia, 2012).

While the first Bali bombing in October, 2002 questioned the destinations' safety and security; the second bomb in 2005 revealed the inability of local authorities in detaining the terrorists and securing the area. Nevertheless, security forces refused to accept their inability to bring back the safety to the area.

As Mitroff et al. (1987) note that managers are usually reluctant to reflect their failures because they do not want to “reopen old wounds” or they may do not have the time to think about their previous behaviors. They believe that mindful learning should lead to the new knowledge and necessary changes in organizational culture. Without this change, no lessons learnt, nor management strategies are effective.

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Developing Climate Change Dimensions In Malaysia Through Tourists' Perception

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Climate change has long since ceased to be a scientific curiosity and is no longer just one of many environmental and regulatory concerns. It is a growing crisis with economic, health and safety, food production, security and other dimensions. Shifting weather patterns for example, threaten food production through increased unpredictability of precipitation. Rising sea levels contaminate coastal freshwater reserves and increase the risk of catastrophic flooding. Climate change in Malaysia is usually associated with extreme weather and seasonality. Extreme weather variables include temperature, rainfall and to a certain extent, wind. Meanwhile, seasonality is always associated with dry and wet/monsoon season. This paper outlines the research experience that sets out to determine the dimension of climate change in Malaysia based on tourists' perception. The establishment of these dimensions will provide structured framework for other researches. The exploratory nature of this research and its comprehensiveness employ both qualitative and quantitative techniques. The research suggests that there are five dimensions of climate change, which are humidity, rainfall, sea level, vegetation and activity. The outputs are expected to establish knowledge on how climatic dimensions affected the socio-economy of a country especially in the tourism industry and help policy-makers to strategise future adaptation planning and responding to the potential threats of climate change in order to achieve sustainable development.

Key words: climate change, tourism, dimensions, perception, sustainable development

Introduction

Climate change in Malaysia is usually associated with extreme weather (temperature, rainfall, wind) and seasonality (dry and wet/monsoon season). The tourism seasonality affected by these two factors and to some extent the perception of the tourist when making decision to visit Malaysia. A change in climate would have given impact on Malaysia's tourism industry, which is one of national economic key resource areas. The indicators of climate change such as temperature, geographical location and rainfall are perceived as the potential threats to the tourism activities and resources. The arrival of tourist would be affected when touristic areas such as

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highlands, beaches and diving resorts that banked in to its natural beauty has been reduced and changed for the worse. Pristine environment and favourable weather conditions are crucial to visitor's satisfaction and the fundamental of the sustainability to the tourism industry. Therefore, this paper outlines the experience in researching climate change and tourist decision making while highlighting the development of the climate change dimensions at the earlier stage of the reesearch.

Methodology

The research main purpose is to establish knowledge on how climatic dimensions affect tourist's attitudinal and behavioural patterns in making their decisions while providing information on the future scenarios of tourism industry under the changing climate. It is hoped that the two major outcomes would help policy-makers to strategise future adaptation planning and responding to the potential threats of climate change in order to achieve sustainable tourism. In order to achieve these two outcomes, the research needed to establish the dimensions of climate change as the foundation.

This research employs both qualitative (i.e. literature review and semi-structured interview with key respondents/experts) and quantitative techniques (i.e. statistical analyses, questionnaires). Defining the dimensions and identifying their operational variables are done through library-based reviews and semi-structured interviews with expert respondents (academics and practitioners). The analysis for the survey was done with SPSS while the Delphi technique's analysis was done using thematic clustering. This was done to set the foundations of the research.

The methods and specific techniques used are summarised below in Table 1.

Table 1: Research Methods and Techniques

Tasks	Methods	Specific Techniques
Defining dimensions	Literature Review Expert opinion	Content analysis Delphi technique
Developing operational variables	Cross-validating the literature review with key experts	Triangulation
Capturing primary data on the field (the interview)	Semi-structured interview	Questionnaire (using Likert Scale)

The research managed to capture 150 respondents through non-probability sampling with purposive sampling. The survey was done in two attractions sites i.e. Jesselton Point (also the gateway to the nearby islands) and Mari-Mari Cultural Village. The Delphi Technique was conducted during the BIMP-EAGA Conference 2012 at Pacific Sutera hotel and through e-mail interviews with eight respondents.

Literature Review

Climate change has always been a concern to worldwide organizations, developed and developing countries and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). It is perceived as a growing crisis with economic, health and safety, food production, security, and other dimensions. Shifting weather patterns, for example, threatened food production

through increased unpredictability of precipitation, rising sea levels that could contaminate coastal freshwater reserves and increase the risk of catastrophic flooding with a warming atmosphere aids the pole-ward spread of pests and diseases once limited to the tropics.

Climate change refers to any change in climate over time, whether due to natural variability or as a result of human activity. It is can also be referred as a statistically significant variation in either the mean state of the climate or in its variability, persisting for an extended period typically decades or longer. Climate change may be due to natural processes or external forcing, or a persistent anthropogenic changes in the composition of the atmosphere or in land-use. Climate impact is the consequences of climate change on natural and human systems (IPCC, 2001).

Charter (2006) reported that generally tourists are very keen in supporting environmental and social performances of tourism industry. His report entails that the German tourists considered that it is important to find environmentally friendly accommodation and 65% of them enjoy clean beaches and bathing water while 85% of Dutch tourists are in favour receiving sustainability-related information (CREM, 2000). 35% of British tourists indicated that they would pay more for environmentally friendly holidays while 30% of them would pay more knowing that the money guarantees higher wages and working conditions for the locals in destinations. The Nordic tourists are supportive of eco-labeled hotels (Jensen, Birch, and Frederiksen, 2004) and clean nature (Ankre, 2005; Zilinger, 2005). Burns (2012) forecasted that the number of international tourists arrival in year 2020 is reaching 1.6 billion for South Asia, Middle East, Africa, East Asia Pacific, Americas and Europe, which is an increment of 60% compared to year 2000. Burns quoted from OECD (2002) that *“Tourism decision making, like consumption decisions in general, is rarely characterized by a rational ranking of options based on perfect information. Many tourists may... make seemingly irrational decisions as emotions or other aspects of the psyche take the upper hand to logic...”*

Climate plays an important role in tourism and it can directly influence the behavior of the tourist marker and holiday destinations. This is certainly true in the case of Switzerland where the effects of warmer temperatures, higher snow lines or more frequent events are noticeable, (Muller, Weber and Volken, 2001). Tourism in future is also depending on the additional factors that are not related to climate change such as globalisations, new technologies, war-like incidents, health risks and other environmental changes and these would strongly affected the travel behavior. The impacts of climate change on tourism zones include city tourism, alpine tourism, and rural tourism and this could extend to the tourism service provider like mountain railways, accommodation, and outdoor promoters.

Muller, Weber, and Volken (2001) also suggested that when certain areas lost its attractiveness from a climatic perspective, others new chances will arise based on their report of Switzerland's tourism. Climate change does not only means warmer temperature but also a change in environmental conditions where environmental and landscape changes will directly have impact on tourism. They also reported that by year 2050, the snow line is expected to have risen by up to 350 meters and the warmer temperature will shorten the duration of snow cover, and reduces the number of days with snowfall. Other than decreasing reliability of snowfall, the second impact of climate change is glacier retreat, which Switzerland is being considered highly affected by year 2050. It is projected that glaciated area in the Alps will decreased by three-quarters in comparison to the reference period of 1971-1990. Tourists' activities

like skiing glacier hiking and ice-tubing are predicated to be in trouble especially with a higher maintenance cost. The third impact of climate change on Switzerland case is the melting of permafrost, which could destabilises ground conditions. Alpinism such as walking, hiking, and rock climbing routes could be affected highly by the danger of rock fall where even settlements are also at risk. Other noticeable impacts of climate change in extreme events are heat waves, dry spells, extreme precipitation and landscape changes.

Carmen and Iuliana (2009) outlined there are four complicated interactions between tourism development and climate change that comprises of direct impact, indirect and long-term impact, lifestyle changes, and induced impacts. The following table 3 depicts the concepts of the four interactions:

Table 3: Interaction between tourism development and climate change

Direct impacts	Weather phenomena caused by warming: destruction Destruction wrought by floods, storms, fires, and drought, glacial lake overflows, and the disappearance of beaches
Indirect and long-term impacts	Resulting from a substantial and lasting alteration of the environment of a tourist destination that reduces its attractiveness Polluted waters, receding forests, decreased biodiversity, retreating glaciers, and snow caps
Lifestyle changes	The orientation of tourism flows both in winter and summer
Induced impacts	The efforts of individuals and public policies aimed at attenuating the effects of warming that produce a series of consequences for tourism activity

Source: Carmen and Iuliana, 2009

The literature review revealed that most of the reports are mainly concerned with the factors to climate change and its effects to touristic locations/destinations. While many studies focusing on the impact and adaptation of climate change to the tourism assets (supply) there has not been any studies on the tourist's perception that affects their decision (demand) to vacation at the affected destination. Other tourism demand studies in climate change are mainly hypothetical with the useage of modelling. In addition, the literature review also suggested some dimensions of climate change that relates to tourism.

Discussion and Conclusion

The literature review and the Delphi technique resulted in the development of climate change dimensions that needed for the foundation of this research. There are two themes developed from these techniques, which are the knowledge of climate change and the cause of climate change. Climate change has been suggested to be the change of humidity, rainfall, sea level, vegetation and activity (human and business). The causes of climate change are suggested to be the natural causes, human causes and the industrial causes. The summaries of the dimensions are outlined in Table 4.

Table 4: Dimensions of Climate Change

Results Theme	Results Details
Knowledge of climate change	Humidity (<i>change of temperature, sunshine, drought, windfall</i>) Rainfall (<i>flood, rainy season</i>) Sea level (<i>beach erosion, salinity intrusion</i>) Vegetation (<i>change of landscape, change of habitat, migration of wildlife</i>) Activity (<i>human activity, business</i>)
Cause of climate change	Natural causes (<i>volcanic eruptions, ocean current earth orbital changes, solar variation</i>) Human causes (<i>energy usage, car, air travel</i>) Industrial causes (<i>oil drilling, coal mining, gas pipeline, green house gas, animal farming</i>)

The analysis of the survey revealed that the tourists have certain general knowledge of climate in Sabah and are aware of the issues of climate change. The respondents suggested that they have certain knowledge that Sabah's climate are mainly rated good and sunny but it is also can be cloudy, rainy and windy.

The analysis also reveals that the decision-making of the tourists that relates to climate change as outlined in Table 5. This suggested that climate could affect the decision of the tourists and there are also other factors such as perceived destination safety and monetary issues. Therefore, the decision of tourists to travel to Malaysia is not just solely based on climate or climate change.

Table 5: Decision Making Based on Climate Change

Results Theme	Results Details
Decision making based on climate change	Climate (rain, warm temperature, humid environment, storm/wind, vegetation, sea level increment, human and business activities) Perceived destination safety Monetary (travel budget, price promotion)

This sets the foundation of the main research where it is focused on exploring the behavior of tourists towards their decision-making based on the perception of climate change in Malaysia. It should be able to assists in gaining insights into the current knowledge of climate change, their perception of its effect on the tourism assets or supply and how it can affect their travel decision-making. This paper suggested that tourists have sufficient knowledge on climate change and this does affect their travel decision-making.

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Prospects Of Tourism In Malaysia: A Situational Study Focusing On Socio-Cultural And Environmental Aspects

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Malaysia is perhaps one of the most unique countries of the world, being strategically situated on the gate-way location of global routes with a wonderful eco-environmental setting. Being a pluralistic society, it inherits its own traditional culture with harmonious integration of the diverse ethnic groups living in a very peaceful and politically stable situation. With all its economic potentials, Malaysia has recently emerged as a newly-developed nation with a huge infrastructural growth in its industrial and manufacturing sectors. Due to these developments and other eloquent features, people from abroad become largely attracted to this land and thus, they frequently arrive here as visitors and tourists. As recently as in the year 2005, it is reported that at least 16.7 million international tourists from outside visited Malaysia bringing about 30 billion ringgit in terms of foreign currency in this country (see Badruddin et.al. 2007). At present, tourism may be regarded as the largest service-oriented industry in Malaysia contributing a great economic share in the national GDP and provides employment to a bulk of the population in the country. It brings civic pride and social prestige for Malaysia by making a kind of international linkages in global context. It takes Malaysian culture abroad and people from outside can get the touch of the unique Muslim heritage in Malaysian context. Based on this positive assumption, this proposed research will generate information in regard to knowing about the present situation of tourism in Malaysian context. Side by side, it is also recognized that tourism often damages eco-environments of a particular region of the country, which are over-used by the tourists. The natural habitats are dislocated, and also there occurs enormous social impacts on local values and community culture. From that perspective the paper is designed to deal with the issue of tourism in Malaysia from both positive and negative perspectives; and thus it will generate a discourse to conceptualize a rational framework for Malaysian tourism.

Key words: tourism, Malaysia, issues, prospects, socio-cultural and environmental aspects

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Regional Carrying Capacity (RCC) Issues Langkawi Islands, Kedah

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There are four categories of the island is Development Island, Resort Island, Marine Park Island & Island that be protected and island not populated. In addition, there are 42 islands marine park in Malaysia. The concept of carrying capacity suggest that each destination has a maximum level to absorb development and tourism activities. This maximum level if by passed causing a saturation of infrastructure use and create anxiety for visitors and locals. Tourism carrying capacity is divided into major components of the physical, social and economic. Therefore Langkawi Islands are rich in geological and biological diversity treasures (geo heritage and legacy bio) and socio-cultural heritage four main races like Malay, Chinese, Indian and Siamese. Issues and problems research to see carrying capacity is divided into seven namely (i) barriers and constraints (limits) in terms of space, (ii) congestion and disruption to local residents, (iii) natural areas are highly sensitive to any changes that done on it, (iv) reduction of environmental quality such as water quality deterioration air and noise and damage to resources, (v) the problem of solid waste / liquid, (vi) natural resources, and (vii) sustainability.

Key words: tourism, sustainable tourism, carrying capacity, regional carrying capacity, Langkawi Islands

Introduction

Island resort mean that island has the potential to be developed as a center of international and domestic tourism as island resort gazetted by the state authorities (JPBD, 1996). Malaysia has many attractive islands scattered from East to West Peninsular Malaysia to Borneo states of Sabah and Sarawak. Table 1.1 shows, islands in Malaysia can divided into three main categories. It has been outlined in the Report of the National Marine Park of Malaysia: Policy and Concepts 1989 issued the Department of Fisheries Malaysia. However, another category of uninhabited islands where the islands are not included in any of the three categories outlined by the Department of Fisheries Malaysia (JPBD, 2011a). There are four categories of the island is Development Island, Resort Island, Marine Park Island & Island that be protected and island not populated (JPBD, 2005; JPBD, 2011a). In addition, there are 42 islands marine park in Malaysia.

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Table 1: Category Island In Malaysia

No.	Island Category	Criteria	Example
1	Development Island	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Having a total area of more than 90 km. square and population of more than 20,000 people. ▪ It is important islands of the 'impetus' or driver of the economy and have a variety of plans to enhance local economic development and nation 	Penang, Labuan and Langkawi Island
2	Island Resort	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Islands where most of the local economic base dependent on tourism. ▪ Well-known in domestic and overseas tourism destinations. ▪ Having natural resources and tourist attractions such as the impact of history, heritage and other tourism products 	Langkawi, Penang, Pangkor, Ketam, Besar, Sibul, Redang, Sipadan, Tioman Island and etc.
3	Marine Park Island And Island That Be Protected	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Marine parks are gazetted island 'Establishment of Marine Parks Malaysia Order 1994' issued by the Fisheries Department for the purpose of preservation and tourism. The limit development of the marine park is 2 nautical miles (3.2 km) to the sea from the minimum level full tide (low water mark). ▪ Protected islands were classified under 'Fisheries (Prohibited Areas) Regulations 1994'. For this island, collecting shells, snails and corals is prohibited. 	Marine Park Island are Payar Island (Langkawi), Kapas Island (Terengganu), Seri Buat Island (Pahang), Tiger Island (Johor) and Kuruman Island (Labuan). Island that be protected are: Nyireh and Tenggol Island in Terengganu, Talang-Talang Besar, Talang-Talang Kecil Island and Satang Besar Island in Sarawak.
4	Island With No Inhabited	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Island is an uninhabited island, rock, coral reefs and so on. Until February 2011, a total of 236 of the 642 islands are islands in waters not yet have a name and immediate action needs to be done to name the islands. ▪ Statistics from the Department of Survey and Mapping, Malaysia has 878 islands and 510 geographical entities offshore. 	rocks, shoals, reefs, ridges, patches and grooves.

(Source: JPBD, 2005; JPBD, 2011a).

Carrying Capacity Concept

In short, the concept of carrying capacity suggest that each destination has a maximum level to absorb development and tourism activities. This maximum level if by passed causing a saturation of infrastructure use and create anxiety for visitors and locals. Tourism carrying capacity is divided into major components of the physical, social and economic (Badaruddin & Nikmatul, 2007). For the purpose of carrying capacity study on Langkawi Islands, convergence is only given to two types of carrying capacity of the physical carrying capacity and ecological carrying capacity (JPBD, 2006). Therefore, the study of the ability of carrying capacity for the Langkawi Islands should be in place before development strategy can be provided to ensure that the proposed activities are sustainable and appropriate development to be developed (JPDB, 2011a).

Although the method of carrying capacity analysis (CCA) using GIS has been used successfully around the world, but it was not applied in particular Langkawi Island, Malaysia. Badaruddin & Nikmatul (2007) proposed the development of recreation and tourism, planners should be aware of the capacity of a destination or site. However, efforts to set the limit of an area is not a simple matter. It is heavily influenced by the physical characteristics of an area. Carrying capacity varies from one place to another, depending on a number of factors based on Baud-Bovy & Lawson (1998) as:

- The sensitivity of the environment and the local way of life and social customs;
- Quality desired travel experience that prompted her tourist destination was;
- Interest earned from the tourism sector and the extent to which it involves the participation of the population;
- The facilities and services provided and the extent to which this infrastructure can meet the requirements.

It should be prepared to provide a carrying capacity (or limits of acceptable use) of the protected area to avoid impact on natural/cultural resources (Eagles et. al, 2001). There are various general concept of carrying capacity studied by researchers unravel. The concept is as follows:

Tivy (1972); Baud-Bovy & Lawson (1998)

“Number of user-unit use-periods that a recreational site can provide (each year) without permanent biological and physical deterioration of the site ability to support recreation and without appreciably impairing the quality of the recreation experience”

Zubrow (1975)

“Carrying capacity is the maximum size of a population which can be maintained indefinitely within an area. The non-specialist conceives of carrying capacity as the maximum amount of organisms or biomass that the land can support”

Getz (1982); JPDB (2011a)

"This concept also suggests actions that should be taken to reduce or limit the negative side effects. Overall, an important element in the definition carrying capacity is:

- i. the assumption of limits;
- ii. or thresholds, beyond which additional growth;

- iii. or change cannot be supported; and
- iv. or is considered undesirable.”

World Tourism Organization (WTO, 1983)

- a) Levels can be maintained without causing damage to the physical environment and without causing problems in social and economic to the locals.
- b) The degree of balance between preservation and development.
- c) The number of visitors in accordance with the image of tourism products and the type of environment and the visitor experience desired.

According to Kumar *et. al*, (1998), Carrying capacity of a region may be loosely defined as the intrinsic capacity of a region to assimilate various categories of degradation and pollution such that it does not affect the sustainability of the region while Yu, (2000); Yu & Mao (2002) and Chen *et. al*, (2010), extended the concept of carrying capacity and used representative economic indicators to evaluate regional carrying capacity (RCC).

Langkawi Islands

Langkawi Islands located in the northern part of Peninsular Malaysia between latitudes 6° 10' N - 6° 30' N and longitude 99° 35' E - 100° E (longitude). Distance from Kuala Perlis about 30 km and from Kuala Kedah is about 51.5 km (Langkawi District Council, 1990; JPBD, 2006). Langkawi Islands (Figure 3.1) has 104 small islands including three inhabited islands such as Langkawi Island, Tuba Island and Dayang Bunting Island. However, only 99 islands are always visible and always make Langkawi more known 'Langkawi 99 Magical Island' (LADA, 2001). Langkawi Islands are rich in geological and biological diversity treasures (geo heritage and legacy bio) and socio-cultural heritage. There were four main races like Malay, Chinese, Indian and Siamese (Halimatun Saadiah *et. al*, 2011). Other islands are inhabited namely the Bumbon Island, Rebak Besar Island, Timun Island, Langgun Island and Tanjung Dendang Island very small in size and are still in their natural state except for the Singa Besar Island and Beras Basah Island that have been developed for tourism which made their wildlife park and tourist accommodation (Langkawi District Council, 1990; Nizamuddin *et. al*, 2006). The of Langkawi Island is an area of 47,848.36 hectares (478.4836km²) and is divided into six parishes of Kuah, Padang Mat Sirat, Air Hangat, Bohor, Ulu Melaka and Kedawang. About two-thirds of the island is covered by hills and highlands. The main settlements were Kuah Town, Padang Matsirat and Padang Lalang (Langkawi District Council, 1990). Langkawi Islands declared tax-free status (Duty Free Island) acquired on 1st January 1987 in projecting its image as a famous tourist destination throughout the country and internationally as intended by the government is an advantage. It's been a particularly distinctive attraction to tourists who love shopping while touring. The main focus of shopping activity available is in the business district of Pandak Mayah, Bandar Kuah and Pokok Asam. Status Langkawi Islands has been recognized as the Langkawi Geopark by UNESCO on 1st June 2007. It also led to an increase in demand for development and the need to plan and ensure the orderly development of Langkawi (Langkawi District Council, 1990; JPBD, 2006; Habibah & Hamza, 2008; JPBD, 2011b).

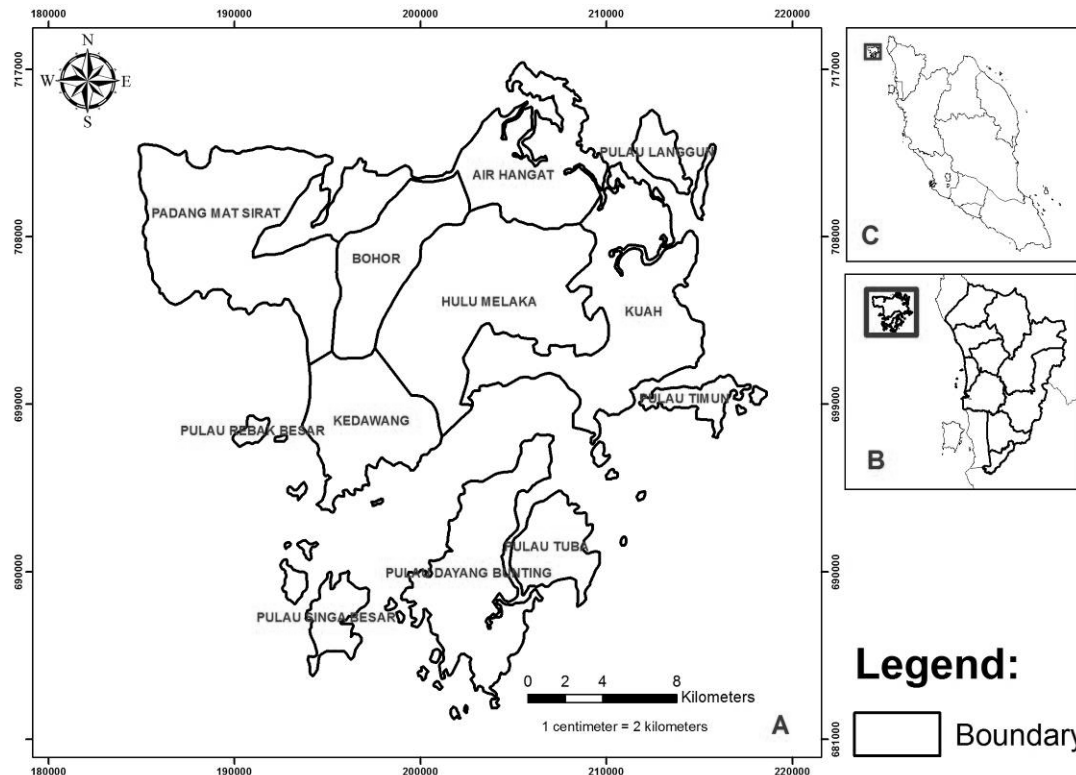


Figure 1: Langkawi Islands (A), The State of Kedah (B) and Peninsular Malaysia (C)

Issues and Problems Research Regional Carrying Capacity (RCC) In Langkawi Islands

Issues and problems research to see carrying capacity is divided into seven namely (i) barriers and constraints (limits) in terms of space, (ii) congestion and disruption to local residents, (iii) natural areas are highly sensitive to any changes that done on it, (iv) reduction of environmental quality such as water quality deterioration air and noise and damage to resources, (v) the problem of solid waste / liquid, (vi) natural resources, and (vii) sustainability.

Barriers and Constraints (Limits) in Terms of Space

Islands have barriers and limitations of resources (limits) in terms of space and the need to ensure a healthy environment. Through the preservation of natural resources so that careful consideration should be given to the opening and clearing of land for development purposes (Parpairis, 1998, 2001 & 2004). Island has the resources that can be used for various activities of the tourism as the island has become one of the best tourist destinations. The increase in tourist arrivals and population of the islands in Malaysia such as Langkawi (Figure 2) encourage the development of new facilities such as tourist resorts and infrastructure (LADA, 2011). Increasing number of tourists creates a negative impact on natural resources which leads to damage to the physical and ecological systems.

As a result of increased tourist, issues such as congestion, pollution and the quality and quantity of parking facilities that must be addressed (Eagles *et. al*, 2001). This is because the supply of resources (water, land, minerals and forests) are limited to meet human needs (Johan Afendi & Mohamad Zaki, 2008). In addition, most of the potential land is Malay Reserve Land that will affect the development process should

be developed by investors from outside because of the need to meet all the set (JPBD, 2005). If the density of population in an ecosystem than RCC, ecosystems can be damaged due to the burden and excessive overuse ecosystem can change to a different ecosystem that is understood as ecological discontinuities (Yue *et. al*, 2008).

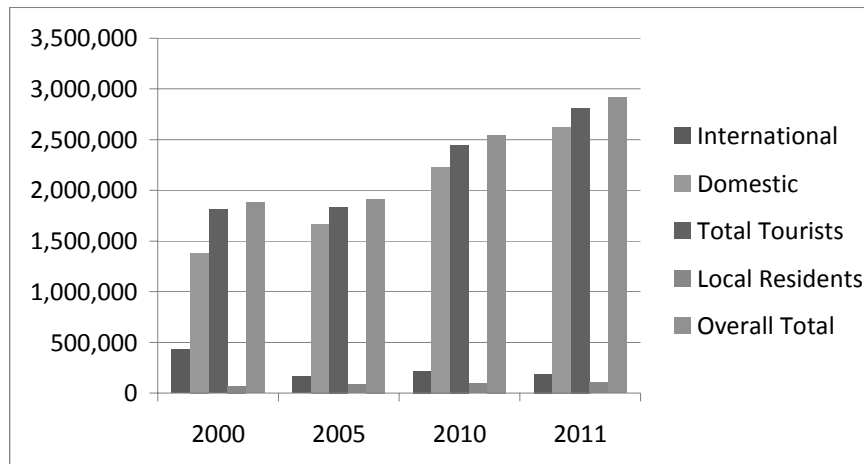


Figure 2: Comparison Of International Tourist, Domestic, Local Residents, Total Tourists And Overall Total In Years 2000, 2005, 2010 And 2011

Source: LADA, 2000, 2011; Pejabat Daerah Langkawi, 2011; MPLBP, 2011

Congestion and Disruption to Local Residents

Tourist arrivals to a destination based on cultural heritage and aimed to find out how everyday life of a community. However, the inclusion of the number of tourists that are uncontrollable and often cause local residents had to entertain guests who come all the time. This causes them to lose ambiance (privacy) in carrying out their daily activities in which every act they become tourist consumption (UNEP, 1997; Johan Afendi & Mohamad Zaki, 2007). Environmental quality management always been a priority of the management to ensure that the environment and wild life and remain intact. Unfortunately, the presence of tourists who often creates environmental damage such as garbage disposal problems and damage to plants. Recognizing this fact, there is the management to take steps to limit the number of tourists who can visit an area at any given time. However, some areas are more likely ecotourism emphasizes profits regardless of the impact on the environment (Badaruddin, 2008).

Natural Areas Are Highly Sensitive to Any Changes That Done On It

Unplanned development will cause environmental impacts, such as rising temperatures, pollution of water, air and noise. A sudden loss of green areas as a result of timber harvesting and forest reserve areas are also among the issues of development have often argued and presented. These issues simply and solely involves environmentally sensitive areas (Ahris *et. al*, 2006). The increasing number of motor vehicles such as cars and boats can lead to high air pollutant in tourist areas (Molders *et. al*, 2010; Mohd Talib *et. al*, 2010). Environmental problems, especially air and water pollution has become more pronounced and now regarded as a key issue to city planners and decision-makers (Oh *et. al*, 2005). The influx of tourists to natural areas with large amounts can damage your resources and the influx of tourists to the area creates a demand for facilities and services include supply, water, electricity,

telecommunications, accommodation, transportation, retail, facilities support, provision of sewerage and solid waste disposal. The advent of mass tourism with uncontrolled activities cause damage nature trails found in the forest. Effects arising is erosion, disturbance to flora and fauna habitat and waste disposal everywhere (UNEP, 1997; Johan Afendi & Mohamad Zaki, 2007).

Reduction of Environmental Quality Such As Water, Air, Noise Quality Deterioration and Damage To The Resources

As a result of unplanned growth in the region has led to environmental problems related to land, water, air, noise and public life (Kumar *et. al*, 1998). Water pollution caused by clearing of land for development and disposal of untreated waste into the drainage system. Water resources should be maintained to ensure that it is adequate and safe for use by future generations (Mazlin *et. al*, 2005). Water Resources Carrying Capacity (WRCC) is a major problem to prevent the crisis of water resources and maintain sustainable development throughout the river basin (Liu *et. al*, 2009). The increase was highly significant motor vehicle in addition to the rapid industrial development increased levels of air pollutants in the environment (Latif & Othman, 1999; Awang *et. al*, 2000; Kho *et. al*, 2007; Mohd Talib *et. al*, 2010). According Afroz *et. al*, (2003) and Mohd Talib *et. al*, (2010), a motor vehicle is a major source of air pollution in Malaysia, contributing to the increase in air pollutants such as sulfur dioxide, nitrogen oxides, carbon monoxide, ozone and suspended particles. Tourism activities have resulted in an increasing number of vehicles and cause pollution problems and affect natural ecosystems in specifying place in some areas (Wang & Miko, 1997, Luis Hernández, 2004; Yu, 2008; Mohd Talib *et. al*, 2010).

The high increase in the number of tourists, especially during the school holidays which resulted in the increase of motor vehicle use are significant. In addition, a number of other activities such as the cement industry and the influence of air from outside the area also affect the status of air quality in Langkawi. Langkawi is also a tourist island has been affected by haze due to its close with Sumatra, Indonesia, which often suffer from the problem of open burning (Juneng *et. al*, 2009; Anwar *et. al*, 2010; Mohd Talib *et. al*, 2010). The issue of air pollution is one of the important issues and is often associated with the development and improvement of a factor in the area of Malaysia (Mohd Talib *et. al*, 2010). Air pollution caused by clearing of land, motor vehicles and open burning. Noise pollution caused by plant and machinery during the construction activities, noise from motor vehicles and tourists. Disruption to the visual means attractive scenery (beach, mountains, lowlands) hindered structure such as a building or structure, telecommunication tower and power transmission lines. As a result, tourists can not enjoy a nice view due to the obstruction of these structures (UNEP, 1997; Johan Afendi & Mohamad Zaki, 2007).

The Problem of Solid Waste / Liquid

Generating of waste resulting from the activities of tourists and tourism development. It consists of solid waste (trash and waste construction industry) and liquid waste (sewage and domestic waste water). Waste disposal and managed to create an environment that is dirty, smelly and ruining the natural landscape (UNEP, 1997; Johan Afendi & Mohamad Zaki, 2007). Littering usually come from residential,

recreation, public facilities, commercial centers, industrial areas, landfills and agricultural activities (Rohaniza Idris, 2009).

Natural Resources

Changes in land use affect the abundant natural resources and ecological processes such as ecological imbalance, an increase in the level of pollution, surface runoff, erosion, and changes in soil resistance to environmental effects (Fu *et. al*, 2000; Hacisalihoglu, 2007; Verma *et. al*, 2009). Increase the intensity of land use can cause erosion and soil compaction through changes in the physical properties and chemical properties (Qygaard *et. al*, 1999; Islam & Weil, 2000; Chen *et. al*, 2001; Caravaca *et. al*, 2002.; Literacy , 2005; Wang *et. al*, 2006; Misir *et. al*, 2007; Verma *et. al*, 2009). As human demands increase, the sustainable use of land becomes more important. Better land management involves identifying land use change, understand the current land use patterns or characteristics and evaluate the economic and ecological benefits and costs arising from the practice of land use and to find the best alternative for each area (Wu *et. al*, 2001;. Verma *et. al*, 2009).

Quarry activities have affected the role of permanent forest reserve areas at Gunung Raya as a major watershed in the island of Langkawi and this activity must be controlled (JPBD, 2005). Old fossils hundreds of millions of years in the area Kilim, Batu Asah, Bukit Tekuh dan Singa Besar Island can suffer damage from the rapid pace of development activity, particularly around the quarry. Opening pervasive quarry without any specific planning and zoning has resulted in a negative impact on the quality and environmental impact. A total of 66% of the study area consists of the geology of rocks and rock fossiliferous, hilly terrain (above 150 meters), the limestone areas, forest reserves and mangrove areas identified as environmentally sensitive areas and often receive threats (JPBD, 2005).

Sustainability

According to Mohamad Zaki *et. al*, (2012), sustainability as a source of development and management philosophy should be practiced and implemented at all levels of policy and practice related to tourism from the local level through to the global level. Sustainable development is the best alternative in practice and adapted in the development of tourism. In this context, sustainable tourism management for physical and natural environment needs to be more focus than in the past and must exist simultaneously alongside objectives of economic, socio-cultural, security, local and national health. To ensure the smooth development more sustainable tourism in Langkawi, carrying capacity study is highly recommended. The main constraints to be considered if the development of tourism to be sustainable is the collection and treatment of waste water, lack of parking, road and rail transportation, marine water quality, water resources, solid waste disposal and management, and last but not least is dissatisfaction with the local community and tourists tourism (Jurincic, 2005).

Local Resident And Tourist Density Arrivals To Langkawi Year 2000, 2005, 2010 And 2011

If looked carefully Figure 5.1-5.5, the increase of local resident and tourist density arrivals to Langkawi Island year 2000, 2005, 2010 and 2011 is so significant in those years. Base on the Figure 3-7, the legend show that 1 Dot = 2,000 person. However,

an international tourist experience rather decrease significantly based on Figure 5.2 compared to Figure 5.1, the local tourists increased from year to year. We should ask ourselves how this could have happened?.

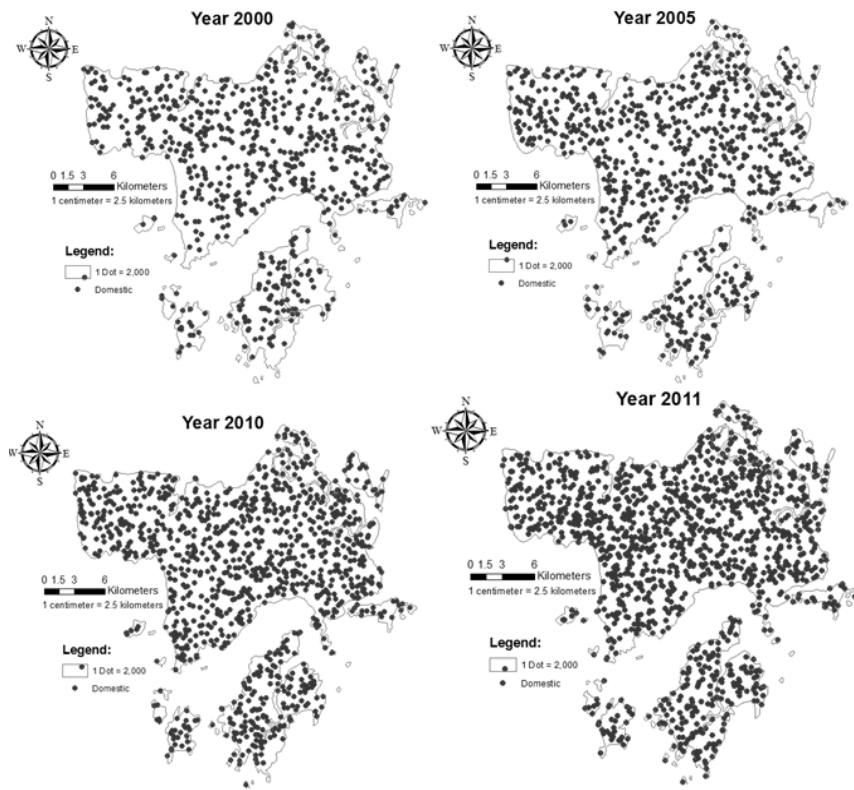


Figure 3: Domestic Tourist In Langkawi 2000, 2005, 2010 And 2011

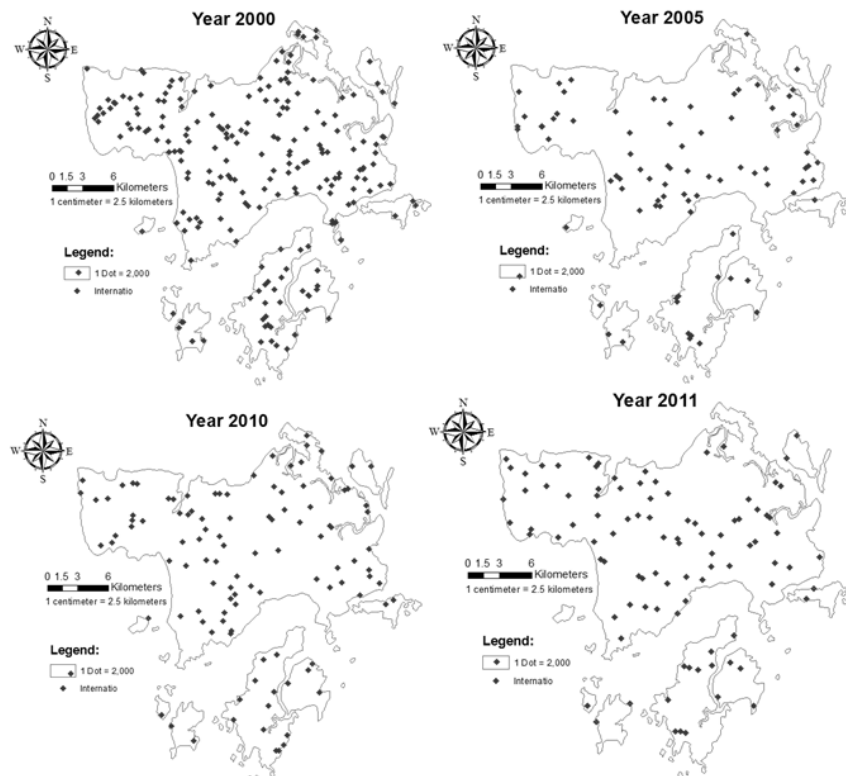


Figure 4: International Tourist In Langkawi 2000, 2005, 2010 And 2011

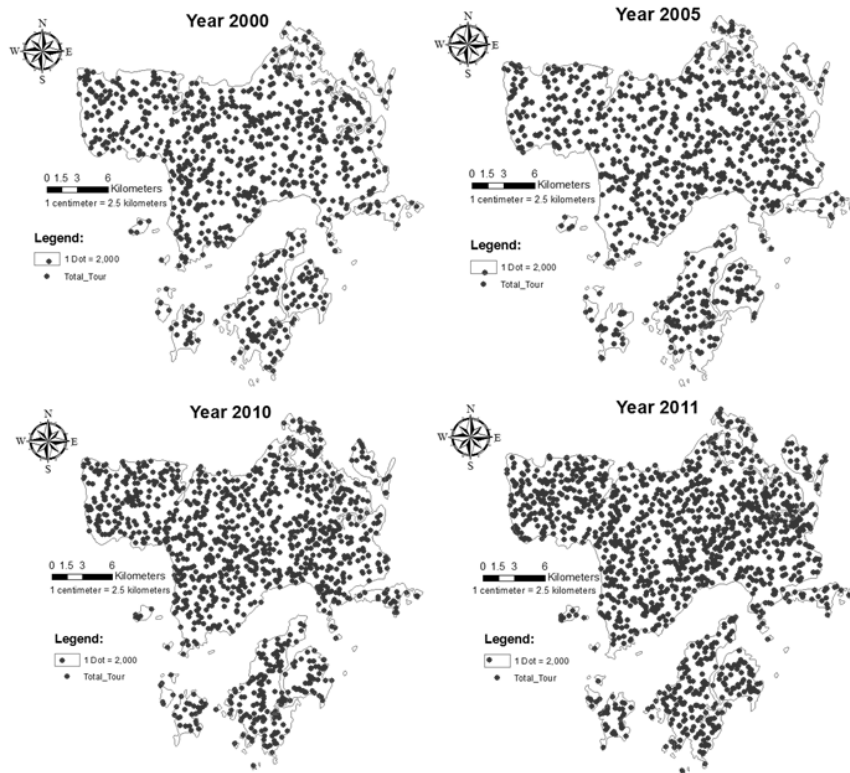


Figure 5: Total Tourist Arrived In Langkawi 2000, 2005, 2010 And 2011

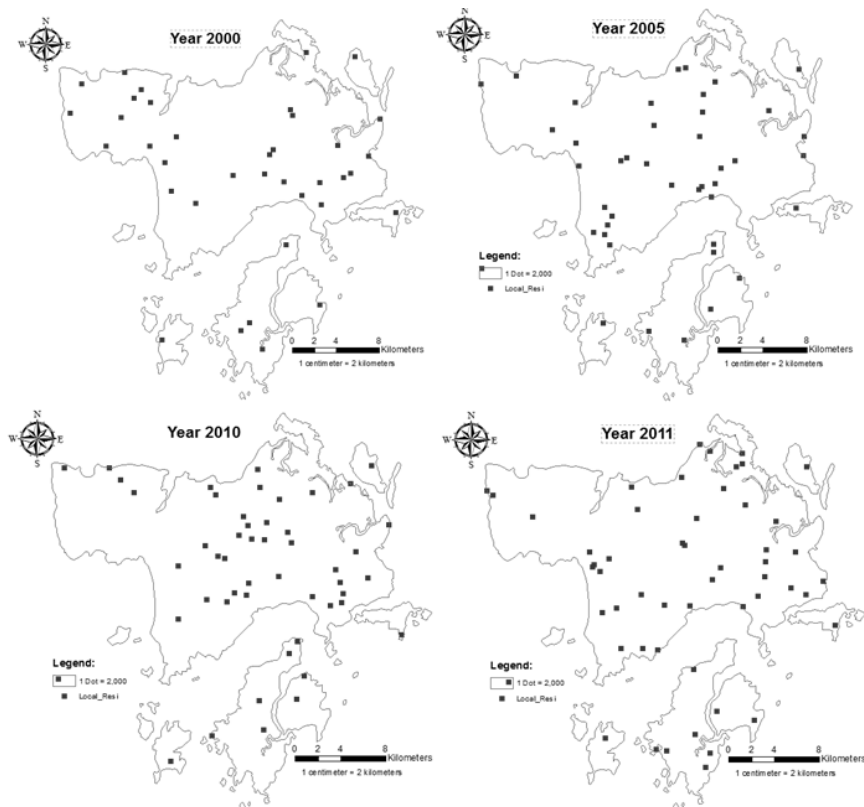


Figure 6: Local Resident In Langkawi 2000, 2005, 2010 And 2011

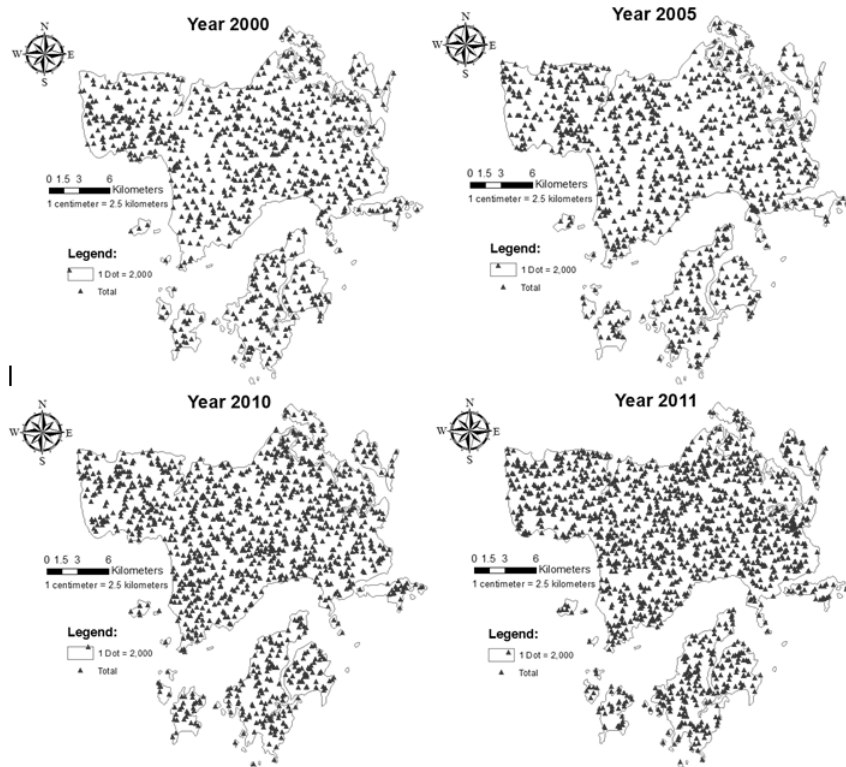


Figure 7: Total In Langkawi 2000, 2005, 2010 And 2011

Conclusions and Future Recommendations

In conclusion, tourist number which exceeded value RCC, make tourists feel congested and not satisfied. These conditions also cause environmental degradation such as pollution or reduce resources as the main attraction (such as wildlife, forests or others habitat such as beach, river, sea, etc.). To ensure the island remains for eco-tourism and continue to contribute to the country economy, management must determine the exact value of the RCC. This estimate must be made as accurately as possible and involve all parties especially tour operators, local communities, authorities and NGO. This method will ensure that our environmental preservation. The study also revealed that the remote sensing data and GIS based resource assessment and characterization will be great assistance in understanding the relationship between physical parameters and socio-economic situation in RCC (Reddy *et. al*, 2011).

Data requirements and parameters for each place is important to get a more accurate RCC. For example, quality of life index, remote sensing data (TM, SPOT5, IKONOS), topographic maps, metric hydro data, water level, groundwater use, data population, social economic status, land use zones and the basic needs of water ecology (Liu *et. al*, 2009). In addition, other data required such as Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) data for elevation, Moderate-Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) data for rain / humidity, Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) for temperature data and Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) is used to measure green biomass (Tucker, 1979) at study area. This data is important to get a right result from the analysis. In addition, we can also predict future RCC if using the appropriate analysis.

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Visitors And Physical Development Carrying Capacity In Malaysian Marine Parks

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Over the years, the emphasis of tourism development in protected areas is changing from providing quantity in the development of facilities to the provision of quality that are appropriate and compatible for visitors. This concern for quality focuses on issues that include maintaining the intrinsic appeal of the area, the promotion of compatible tourism facilities at a scale that is appropriate to the designated area, its carrying capacity, and the way of life among the local communities. Tourism planning in protected areas such as marine parks is about managing its visitors and the type of physical development that would eventually be about maximizing the benefits while minimizing its cost. Planning should identify strategies that would render the development of tourism as less of a spontaneous process, but more of a coordinated vehicle for development. The aim of this paper is to explore the approaches that can be taken by the authorities managing the marine parks of Malaysia on the alternative and sustainable solutions in managing this type of protected areas. The findings and discussion segment propose the Visitors Management for managing the visitation and Physical Development Management for managing the physical development of these protected areas. To adhere to the carrying capacity of these two elements is crucial as marine parks require extensive monitoring to ensure its sustainability and preservation. The researcher has list the approaches of carrying capacity practices with regards to visitors' management and development carrying capacity in Malaysian Marine Parks as recommendations.

Key words: carrying capacity, tourism planning, visitors management, physical development management, Malaysian marine parks

Introduction

The interdependence of managing visitors and managing physical development can be discussed at a number of levels. The task of understanding and managing this interdependence can be facilitated by having a sound analytical perspective on the issues involved, as well as through well-designed and well-executed visitor evaluation research that provides information of interest to management practices. (Pearce, Philip L, Gianna Moscardo, 1985) suggested one notion in particular that should be developed in the context of visitor surveys which is the appropriateness between

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visitors' needs and the resources of allocation. (Pearce, Philip L, Gianna Moscardo, 1985) mentioned that some visitors' motivation of visitation is mismatched or inappropriate with the attributes offered at the destination. Thus, in a nut shell, visitors' intentions of visiting must be match with the physical attributes available at the place of their visit in receiving them.

Once the carrying capacity of an area has been established, various strategies can be implemented to prevent it from being exceeded. For instance, zoning of areas can be created to take the pressure off the vulnerable areas through the provision alternative attractions. Thus, the concept of carrying capacity is indeed an effective tool to sustain, preserve and conserve the protected areas that fall under the category of tourists' destination as managers are faced with the dual conflicting purposes of conserving their resources or using it for tourism purposes. The concept of carrying capacity provides a useful notion that serves to set limits to an area's development. The carrying capacity of an area should not be rigidly fixed but should be increased if the need arises. However any further increase in carrying capacity must take into account the level of use and development which best fits the goals and objectives of the area. This is a very comprehensive procedure as it requires sound and analytical management judgements.

Elements of Physical Carrying Capacity

Coccosis & Mexa (2004) mentioned that physical carrying capacity refers to built cultural environment including infrastructures. They listed the acceptable level of component's capacity which can be set in terms of:

- Acceptable table of congestion or density in key areas or spatial unit such as parks, museums etc.
- Maximum acceptable loss of natural resources without significant degradation of ecosystem functions or biodiversity or loss of species.
- Acceptable level of air, water and noise pollution on the basis of tolerance or the assimilative capacity of local ecosystems.
- Intensity use of transport infrastructures, facilities and services
- Use of congestion of utility facilities and services of water supply, electric power, waste management or sewage and solid waste management , treatment and disposal.
- Adequate availability of other community facilities and services such as those related to public health and safety, housing and community services.

Methodology

Case Study Areas

Islands in Malaysia have been particularly attractive to foreign and domestic tourists because of their inherent characteristics which are different from mainland destinations. These islands possess a variety of touristic attributes such as natural attractiveness, isolation, separateness and small physical size. Small, isolated island are often inhabited by unique flora and fauna. And there are always the added attraction of crystal clear waters and pristine corals fringing many of these tropical islands. As such, it is not surprising that islands are increasingly being perceived as valuable resources with great potential for physical development with the intention to attract more and more visitors.

As indicated by Marine Parks Department, Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment, the islands and waters surrounding these 40 islands have been designated as Marine Parks or Marine Protected Areas as indicated in Table 1.

Table1: Marine Parks' locations

States	Gazette marine parks areas
Kedah (4 islands)	Pulau Payar, Pulau Lembu, Pulau Kacha, Pulau Segantang
Pahang (9 islands)	Pulau Chebeh, Pulau Sepoi, Pulau Labas, Pulau Tulai, Pulau Tioman, Pulau Gut, Pulau Tokong Bahara, Pulau Sembilang , Pulau Seri Buat
Terengganu (11 islands)	Pulau Perhentian Kecil, Pulau Perhentian Besar, Pulau Redang, Pulau Lima, Pulau Ekor Tebu, Pulau Kapas, Pulau Pinang, Pulau Lang Tengah, Pulau Tengol and Pulau Nyire and Pulau Dara
Johor (13 islands)	Pulau Harimau, Pulau Mensirip, Pulau Goal, Pulau Rawa, Pulau Hujung, Pulau Besar, Pulau Tengah, Pulau Pemanggil, Pulau Aur, Pulau Tinggi, Pulau Mentinggi, Pulau Sibul, Pulau Sibul Hujung
Labuan (3 islands)	Pulau Kuraman, Pulau Rusukan Besar and Pulau Rusukan Kecil

Source: Marine Parks Department (Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment, Malaysia (2012)



Figure 1: Affected areas of marine parks due to coral bleaching.

Source: The Star (2010)

Coral bleaching is a physical impact as a result of natural and built environment. Pulau Payar, Pulau Redang and Pulau Tioman are highly affected areas of coral bleaching according to Marine Parks Authority as quoted by the Star (2010). Physical impacts can be caused by natural elements of forces that are beyond our control and by built environment that are elements within our control.

Extraction from the Marine Parks Authority of Malaysia website mentioned that the role of the Marine Park Authority is to protect the marine resources and the fragile marine ecosystem so that the public can enjoy it in perpetuity. Management of visitors' activities is one of the most important aspects in managing visitation carrying capacity of marine parks. Activities which do not harm or destroy marine resources such as snorkelling, scuba diving, swimming and underwater photography are

permitted and encouraged. Picnics and jungle trekking on the islands are also permitted. Nevertheless these activities are prohibited:

- Collecting, removing, destroying or having possession of any marine resources such as shells, molluscs, corals and fish whether dead or alive
- Possessing and using of spear guns or spear fishing equipments and harpoons.
- Using of fish traps (bubu) poisons, explosive and electricity or other method to catch fish.
- Anchoring of boats directly onto the reef – the mooring buoys located within the marine park is to be used for the mooring of boats
- Littering and disposal of waste or rubbish
- Removing and or destroying and structures
- Constructing or erecting any building or other structure within the Marine Park Area without authorization
- Fishing activities within the gazetted areas.

Finding Analysis

Tourists Arrival Analysis

Table 2 provides tourists arrival statistics to all Marine Parks between year 2005 and 2011. These data were obtained from the Marine Parks Department, Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment, Malaysia.

Table 2: Tourists arrival statistics

Year	Types of tourists	Kedah	Total	Terengganu	Total	Pahang	Total	Johor	Total
2005	Local	19,607	94099	98,863	123,159	77,570	167,761	32,440	44,861
	Foreign	74,492		24,296		90,191		12,421	
2006	Local	26,043	112,648	93,546	135,098	104,602	215,936	41,210	56,333
	Foreign	86,605		41,552		111,334		15,123	
2007	Local	24,580	110,629	112,844	151,397	73,688	149,000	51,558	66,656
	Foreign	86,049		38,553		75,312		15,098	
2008	Local	23,298	96,071	129,532	151,824	124,673	191,929	41,199	68,664
	Foreign	72,773		22,292		67,256		27,465	
2009	Local	25,454	102,866	99,434	170,126	105,867	194,392	38,025	63,374
	Foreign	77,412		70,692		88,525		25,349	
2010	Local	26,429	96,097	130,174	216,404	170,580	233,923	35,839	59,731
	Foreign	69,668		86,230		63,343		23,892	
2011	Local	25,410	97,572	109,331	207,709	121,660	212,680	40,185	66,973
	Foreign	72,162		98,378		91,020		26,788	
Total			711,982		1,155,257		1,365,631		426,592

Source: Marine Parks Department (2012)

From the statistics, it can be assumed that the statistics of tourists' arrivals to all Marine Parks increases as people are more aware of the green tourism concept and their willingness to travel to destination with good preservation and conservation practices. The domestic traveller numbers also increased throughout the years. This is an indication that the domestic market is aware of the need to merge tourism and sustainable practices.

Physical Development Findings

Efforts of conservation works have been taken by the Marine Park Authority through enhanced Marine Park Management Plan and Sustainable Island Development Plan. The projects' goal and objective is to ensure conservation and sustainable use of marine biodiversity in Malaysia. It is in tandem with Marine Park Authority main objective of enhancing the marine parks sustainable management and operation.

Marine Park Authority of Malaysia has identified 10 project outputs projected from 7 outcomes. The outputs and outcomes are illustrated in Figure 2. 10 Project Outputs have been identified through a process of 7 Outcomes which can be summarized as:-

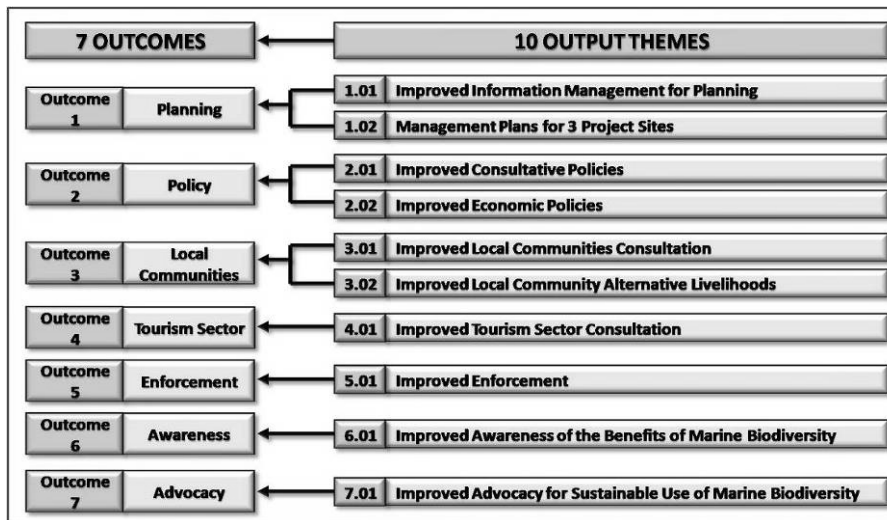


Figure 2: MPA Project plan of outcomes and outputs

Source: Marine Parks Authority, Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment, Malaysia (2012)

The project plan is designed to widen the existing development planning processes, to strengthen the capacity for marine park management and to enable an influential advocacy for the conservation of marine biodiversity in Malaysia. Stakeholder involvement is crucial to the success of the project and has been incorporated into all objectives.

The three projects as illustrated in Figure 3 are being carried out as benchmark projects for sustainable development in marine parks. It will provide the guidelines for further development in the highly protected areas. Therefore, it is hoped that after the end of this project, all the marine protected areas in Peninsular Malaysia and Labuan are under improved management in order to better address threats to marine biodiversity.

This project plan is built upon nationally driven initiatives to conserve the marine biodiversity of east coast Peninsular Malaysia. Project activities will be carried out in three marine parks, chosen as the pilot locations namely Pulau Tioman in Pahang, Pulau Redang in Terengganu and Pulau Sibu-Tinggi in Johor. The project will strengthen the system of marine protected areas in Malaysia and later contribute to the conservation of global biodiversity. The project targets 164,534.2 hectares of sea, under improved management, for the conservation of marine biodiversity.

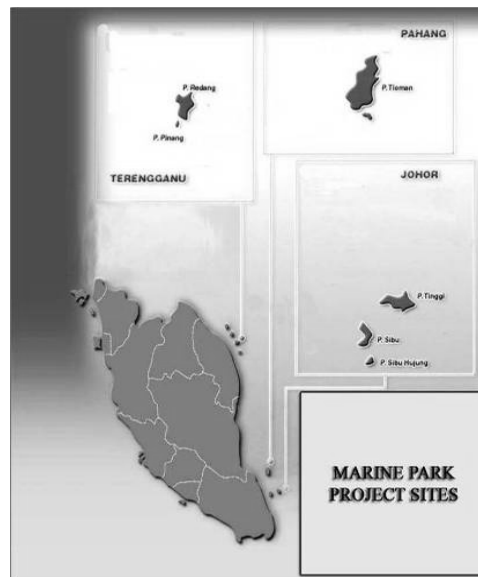


Figure 3: Location of Project Sites

Source: Marine Parks Authority, Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment, Malaysia (2012)

Visitors Management Findings and Recommendations

Managing visitors in a protected area is significantly different than managing visitors on the mainland destinations. This is because marine parks fall under the jurisdiction of protected areas and thus the visitors' arrival must be monitored and controlled in order for the marine parks to survive. Extensive uncontrolled human activities such as trampling and plucking can cause destruction to the natural habitat of marine parks. In the writer's point of view, the most practical approach that can be carried out in managing visitors to marine parks is by adopting the Management Zones Approach where activities allowed in the designated zones are based on zones capacity to receive the visitors and the activities.

Managing physical development is another crucial aspect where marine parks are concerned. In our eagerness to develop and to create income opportunities to the locals, we might have the misconception that the more we developed an island the better it will be. Though development will benefit the local communities but uncontrolled development will eventually lead to destruction of the natural landscape which is the main purpose of visitors' visit. Thus the article lists out a few approaches that could be adopted by the authority to control the physical development of the marine parks and single out the Adaptive Management Approach as one of the most suitable, adoptable and manageable approach.

Management Zones as Visitors Carrying Capacity Approach

Two major functions of any protected areas are the preservation of resources and human utilization. Satisfying these two resources have countlessly created clashes and conflicts rather than harmony and understanding. The promotion of tourism in marine parks as protected areas should not only focus on activities that will stimulate incomes and recreational areas but should also prohibit highly consumptive forms of resource utilization. Hence, the strategies to be applied should be geared towards the education and guidance of visitors to the park, voluntary limitation of activities in designated

areas, and a respect of nature attitudes. Therefore to accommodate the diverse objectives and strategies of managing protected areas, there is a need to subdivide the marine parks into different zones. The allocation of zones should be based on its sensitivity and conservation values. The main advantage of zoning is that it is one way in which conflicting activities can be categorized, enabling the identification of the suitability of particular areas and conservation of selected areas. Zoning of marine parks, in technical aspect should include:

- An area meant for large scale tourism activities with few restrictions apply and an optimal level of services provided for the visitors.
- An area of tranquillity and control use where traditional settlement and modest form of tourism activities are permitted.
- A wilderness area with restricted access and acts as protection to the resources.
- A totally strict protection area whereby access is only meant for research and a total ban on any physical development.

Table 3 described the allocation of the Management Zones and the description of the zones. Levels of accessibility and development are also mentioned according to the zones' description.

Table 3: Allocation of management zones

Management Zones	Description	Accessibility	Development
Sanctuary/ strict protection (preservation)	Include areas of varying size considered to be of importance to the protection and maintenance of either ecological process, biological diversity, unique, rare or endangered features and or its habitat.	Access to the area is strictly controlled and is only granted by the Director of the Marine Park department for scientific or educational purposes.	Development is totally prohibited.
Wilderness (Protection)	Areas maintained as natural environment which can sustain with the minimum of impairment.	Visitation is restricted to small groups. Participation in recreation activities. Must be accompanied by licensed guides.	Development is ted and limited to basic amenities and basic infrastructures.
Managed natural (controlled use)	An area which can accommodate a range of specific educational activities(research, environmental education) and rehabilitation programmes for degraded areas.	Visitation is restricted to non commercialized recreational activities Must be accompanied by licensed/ park guides.	Development is limited to basic infrastructure compatible to educational activities (station/ centre, dormitory for researchers).
Tourism Development	Areas identified for moderate tourism	No restriction to visitors but must	If these facilities are near a sensitive

(Destination)	development focusing on natural and cultural attractions, providing compatible tourism and recreational activities.	obtain entry permit and guides to certain areas.	area, the built structures and recreational activities should reflect and be compatible with the special qualities of the environment.
Buffer	These are areas which will act as walls to protect the above mentioned zones. Areas under this category are the agriculture land, forest or villages.	No restrictions but subject to consent by local communities.	Environmentally compatible tourism ventures are fostered in this zone Resorts, Homestays etc.

Sources: Adapted from Dowling (1993)

Management Plan as Physical Development Carrying Capacity Approach

In order for marine parks to accommodate conservation and development, there is a need to have strategies towards achieving the development objection without affecting the natural environment. The management of marine parks should not only find ways to match the goals and objectives with resources capabilities but at all times should consider the requirement for conservation which include preservation and protection. It is about stabilizing and maintaining the natural ecological community with minimal disturbances, though at times intensive usage might be unavoidable.

In decision making for management plan for the physical development, a few approaches can be considered. The approaches are:

(a) Political/ Social Approach

This conservative approach involves political and social consideration to some degree. The political/social approach sometimes dictates a specific course of action to appease a powerful interest or to keep options open for the future. This approach often involves decision to delay action and to wait and see until more data are made available.

(b) The Conventional Wisdom Approach

The conventional wisdom approach is an approach where the managers or caretakers rely on past methods that had been adopted in similar situation in the past. In this approach, managers typically rely on historical knowledge of the situation and the resources involved, and assume that the response to situation is similar with what they had experienced previously.

(c) The Best Current Data Approach

The approach uses current data collected through new or existing sampling programs. Managers analyse these data using the latest techniques, assess their management

options and then choose the one best option to implement. This approach is considered the best as it uses the best available knowledge and technique. But nevertheless this method requires highly technically trained personnel to plan and execute the plan accordingly. As a theory it is the best method but to put into practice is another story.

(d) Monitor and Modify Approach

In this approach, a policy decision is typically made using the conventional wisdom or best current data method. The policy is usually implemented along with a monitoring plan. Monitoring data are used to evaluate and periodically modify the policy relative to the specific goal. The purpose of periodic modification is to adapt the most practical management policy and maintain the system in an optimal state. It can be considered as an approach that is currently being adapted by the care takers of the marine parks.

(e) Adaptive Management Approach

Adaptive Management Approach begins by bringing together related parties or stakeholders in workshops to discuss the management problems and then using available data to develop models or frameworks. These models are used to assess the significance of the data gaps and uncertainties and to predict the effects of alternative management actions. The stakeholders develop a management plan that will help to meet management goals and will also generate new information to reduce critical gaps and uncertainties. The management plan is then implemented along with a monitoring plan. As monitoring proceeds, new data are analyzed and management plans are revised as their understanding of how the system works progressed.

Nevertheless, the concept of adaptive management has gain good support as it addresses different situations and articulate different goals in terms of the utilization of natural resources (Hunter, 1997). Adaptive management is a model to guide ecosystem managers in dealing with uncertainties. It is an ongoing process that merged social values and ecological knowledge using consensus building and good science. Adaptive management recognize that ecosystems are resilient, and that adjustment to management can be made as more information are acquired about the ecosystems or as the goals changed.

As mentioned earlier, the Adaptive Management Approach is considered to be achievable and manageable thus, in the writer's point of view, should be the one adapted by the Marine Parks custodians in determining the visitation and physical development approaches. It is adaptable and achievable, hence will suit the objectives, vision and mission of the department.

Conclusion and Implementation

Natural resources are essential components of tourism attractions. Tourism attraction utilizes resources as the primary incentive for travel to a destination. Whenever there are impacts to natural resources caused by tourism development, it is usually because of the inappropriate management or the lack of integrated planning of the basic resources. Basically, there are two types of resources that support tourism in protected areas such as the marine parks which are the natural and cultural resources. These two unique attributes create niches that attract visitors. And thus these attributes should be

managed sustainably as the result itself will create another resource which is the economy resource to the local communities.

An island can be significantly damaged for generations and perhaps permanently due to unplanned and uncontrolled tourism activities and infrastructure development. There is a tendency among tourism planners to overdo in developing the islands as some planners' school of thoughts are utterly different from those in the sustainable tourism line. They are thinking it in the materialistic perspective of harvesting profits from the natural resources of the destinations. Most of the tourism scholars have different opinion where profit is concerned. Profits and preservation should go hand in hand as we have to look at it as a long term investment and must always look at the issue from all aspects and angles. These marine parks are under the jurisdiction of protected areas and thus the physical development and visitation level must be monitored and controlled by this enforcement department to ensure the survival factor and the sustainability of these areas. Developing without taking into consideration the sustainable aspects might result in physical development that is not compatible to the island and to the environment. It might not even be compatible to the communities and to the visitors as well. This paper was written with the intention to explore the visitors' carrying capacity and physical development carrying capacity that are compatible to the marine parks of Malaysia. Gazetted protected areas similar to marine parks of Malaysia in other part of the region can also adopt the approached mentioned in this paper as the approaches recommended can be adapted as sustainable agents to the protected areas.

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Evaluation of Environmental Literacy Among Polytechnic Business Students : A Case Study in Politeknik Sultan Salahuddin Abdul Aziz Shah

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This study is conducted to evaluate the environmental literacy of polytechnic business students when it was found that their employability was lower than students from other fields. This due to the fact that there are sufficient employment opportunities for business students in the environmental field. A total number of 269 questionnaire were distributed to business student from Politeknik Sultan Salahuddin Abdul Shah stratified according to according gender and business programs. Analysis results show that level of environmental literacy was at a very low level. A significant relationship between environmental literacy and environmental activity was also found. Male students tend to have higher level of environmental literacy than female students where else students from International Business had higher level of environmental literacy than other programs.

Key words: environmental literacy

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The Impacts Of Crisis On State-Level Tourism Demand In Malaysia

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This paper focuses on the changes of state-level tourism demand in Malaysia over three crisis events in Asia, i.e. 2003 SARS outbreak, 2004 Indonesian tsunami and 2005 Bali bombing. Among the 13 states in Malaysia, tourism demand in every state is varied. We find that the four highest demanding states, namely Selangor, Penang, Malacca and Pahang, together with Perak and Terengganu are significantly affected by the crises, with only Penang has positive relationship, but negative relationships are found for the others. We further find that the negative impacts of 2005 Bali bombings towards Malaysian tourism demand are not less than the other two crises although Malaysia is not implicated into the crisis. This may suggest that spillover effect of tourism crisis is possible.

Key words: tourism, crisis, state, Malaysia, demand

Introduction

International tourism is one of the important sources of revenue in directing Malaysian economy to higher growth (Mazumder & Ahmed, 2009). It has become the second largest foreign exchange earner after manufacturing in Malaysia. Since 1987, Malaysian tourism has started to play an important role to support the country's economic growth. It will not be shocked for surpassing manufacturing sector in the time of future. Based on the statistics shown, Malaysia has successfully attracted 23.6 million tourists in 2009 compared to merely 12.7 million tourist arrivals in 2001. The income generated from tourism is recorded as much as RM53.4 billion (US\$16.7 billion), equivalent to 10.2% of GDP in year 2009, compared to 6.8% of GDP in year 2001. According to World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) barometer in 2009, Malaysia was placed into the top 10 countries with the highest international tourist arrivals. The growth in the numbers of international tourists had raised the tourist receipts from RM 7.63 billion in 2001 to RM 17.23 billion in 2009, with an annual growth rate of about 10.75% averagely.

Studies have found that tourism crises from various perspective such as natural disasters, disease outbreak and terrorism are significantly affecting international tourism demand. The studies of Habibi et al. (2009) and Hanafiah &

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Harun (2010) show that tourism crises negatively affect international tourism demand in Malaysia. The study of Lean and Smyth (2009) further suggests that tourism crises have delayed the progress of Malaysian tourism sector in long run. The study in tourism-crisis research is especially critical in the recent years as the number of crisis events has been increased dramatically when comparing to 10 years ago. The investigation on the impacts of crisis is worthy as it may set as a reference for policy makers to make the wise decision from the past crisis events. Empirical analysis is essential to provide a comprehensive insight for developing an efficient crisis management framework to cope with the lost constituted during the turbulent time.

This study tends to examine the impacts of crises on tourism demand in Malaysia. Instead of examining Malaysian tourism demand as a whole, we shed light on the state-level tourism demand which is rarely conducted by the prior studies. The rationale is that in-depth analysis on the impacts of crisis to state-level tourism demand may reveal much more information than studying Malaysian tourism as a whole, for policy makers to target the right markets (the tourism in certain states) to recoup the lost from the other markets during the crisis period. Statistics in figure 1 shows that tourism demand in the 13 states in Malaysia is varied, for Selangor, Penang, Malacca and Pahang are shown the highest demand for international tourists. The question is raised about whether the high demanding tourism destinations (refers to the state tourism) can sustained over the crisis period, or the less demanding destinations have been more badly affected over the crisis. However, our results shows that the impacts of crises are only statistically significant to the tourism demand in the four highest demanding states, together with Perak and Terengganu, with its effects are negative except for Penang showing positive elasticity. For the rest of the states, the impacts are neither significant. The results imply that high demanding destinations in Malaysia are not sustained over the period of crisis, except for Penang, where its diversified tourism products such as nature-based tourism destination like Batu Ferringhi, the world-heritage cultural destination like Clans Jetty, and the urban city in Georgetown are successfully aid to sustain tourism demand over the period of crisis.

Literature Review

The study of Habibi et al. (2009) and Hanafiah & Harun (2010) shed light on the investigation of Malaysian tourism demand determinants. They find a consensus that macroeconomics factors do exert significant influence on Malaysian tourism demand, where income has positive relationship with Malaysian tourism demand, instead, negative relationship is found between price and tourism demand. However, there are another group of researchers tend to carry out in-depth studies on the nature of impacts (whether transitory or permanent) towards tourism demand. Lean and Smyth (2009) study the impacts of Asian financial crisis, Avian flu and terrorism threat on tourism demand in Malaysia. They apply Lagrange Multiplier (LM) unit root tests with one and two structural breaks and find that the effects of crises are only transitory. They assert that tourism demand from Malaysia's major source markets will revert to their long-term growth path following the crisis. Although the effect of crisis is showed transitory, however, Malaysian tourism growth has been slowed down following the crisis. Using autoregressive distributed lag (ADRL) bound test approach, consistently, Salleh et al. (2008) find that Asian financial crisis and the outbreak of SARS have significantly influenced Malaysian tourism demand in short-run with negative effect. The study of tourism crises on tourism demand is

increasingly vital for policy makers as the numbers of tourism crises have been increased in the recent years (shown in the list of tourism crises by Hall (2010)). Although the effect of crises are found transitory, however, it may delay the pace of development in tourism sector, causing the loss in revenue earned for the country.

One may argue that various crisis events are happened almost all the time in every part of the world, the concerns is how would it affect the global tourism sector. Dealing with the crisis events, the power of media industries should not be neglected (Smith, 2005) as it may directly constitute to the public awareness and responses towards the events. The gradual change that does not attract media attention or politician will not constitute to significant impacts on the tourism sector, although they may be significant academically or scientifically. For instance food crisis, population crisis or a climate crisis (Hall, 2010). Tourism crisis can merely be considered, with the condition that the cognate terms security has not to be isolated. Hall *et al.* (2003) give the notion of security to include socio-economic and environmental issues with respect to crisis.

In this study, three tourism crisis events are investigated, i.e. 2005 Bali bombings, 2004 Indonesian tsunami and 2003 SARS outbreaks. Indonesian tsunami in 2004 has brought plausible damages to Malaysia. Lean and Smyth (2009) give the notion that 68 people are died in the incident in Malaysia, with a loss estimated around RM30 million (US\$8 million) in Malaysian states of Penang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak. Although minimal damage in property, island resorts particularly along the tourism belt of Batu Ferringhi in Penang had been challenged by the decrease of international tourist arrivals. There was a 20% cancellation rate following the tsunami due to the fear of aftershocks as Malaysia is located vicinity to the epicenter of the Sumatra earthquake (Anonymous, 2005b). The outbreak of SARS in 2003 however has significantly affected tourism in majority of the countries in Asia, including Malaysia. Statistics indicates that Malaysian tourist arrivals have fallen from 13.2 million in 2002 to 10.5 million in 2003, with the loss of 17.44% of total receipt relative to year 2002. Occupancy rates in Malaysian hotels are as low as 30% in April 2003, and the numbers of airline bookings have recorded of 40% lower than usual. The outbreak of disease can be deemed as the global crisis which is not merely limited to the local region, but the disease is spread uncontrollably to other regions in the world. However, the case of Bali bombings has not been found any evidence to claims that Malaysia is implicated in the crisis event. However, intuitively, as Indonesia is located near to Malaysia, tourists might worry about the spreading of terrorism ideology into Malaysia. We quote the sentence in Putra & Hitchcock (2009) showing that the interconnection of the terrorism event with several countries including Malaysia: "Many analysts moreover link the attacks in Bali to attempts by terrorists to re-organize the modern borders of Southeast Asia to create a substantial Muslim Caliphate, a position steadfastly opposed by the governments of the region, including the country with the world largest Muslim population, Indonesia. Terrorism networks with local agendas that converge with those of al-Qaeda have surfaced with the arrests in Malaysia, Singapore and Indonesia of militants associated with Jemaah Islamiyah (JI) and thus Southeast Asia has emerged as a major battleground in the war on terrorism, which has major implications for the region's important tourism industry". In fact, no studies are found on investigation of the impacts of Bali bombing to tourism demand in Malaysia.

Table 1: Tourism Demand In 13 States From Asean And Non-Asean Countries, 2001-2009

	ASEAN					NON-ASEAN							TOTAL
	Philippines	Indonesia	Thailand	Brunei	Singapore	Australia	Canada	France	Japan	New Zealand	South Korea	US	
Sel&KL	736838.4	4021633	3243982	2057961	30053962	1314216	283154.892	296473.4	1888156	193812.609	661558.36	853984.224	13493808.74
PG	415921.8	3781100	5580739	182016.8	16778516	901885.8	212894.206	137422.4	1154421	108205.274	331495.00	855531.099	13479615.24
Pahang	118252.5	652294.3	933602	426554.2	13952767	398179.5	90872.125	141740.8	433477.8	57597.076	222621.29	266075.919	3314713.324
Melaka	65095.95	1250195	436583.5	237830.5	18269710	401252.3	74432.954	124357	506986.3	55815.178	157779.07	205322.781	3277819.859
Kedah/Perlis	34253.85	426074.8	1708392	151372.3	4678512	223680.7	21283.705	25203.88	142658.3	32437.896	47918.24	87784.832	2749688.26
Sarawak	96472.85	1560091	206836.2	3157777	13296005	279340	35684.547	35106.67	202608.5	39173.435	42622.05	176260.562	2674195.783
Johor	125145.6	1446582	423430.6	183663.7	55339495	141580.2	24832.157	27622.46	274844.5	19667.991	101601.86	74843.493	2660151.232
Sabah	854937	208327.2	228751.8	1909257	5947955	275592.9	38134.758	37645.57	493438.7	62043.899	166710.35	209622.94	2575205.061
Kelantan	22665.03	309137.1	1556780	57500.05	733096.4	75735.08	19884.702	35176.23	123836.6	9525.197	14928.25	47034.858	2214703.237
Perak	34330.86	390797.9	221527.7	134797.9	8202199	99305.29	13309.756	16807.15	107388.1	12787.622	23195.57	81100.617	1000550.543
Terrenganu	31799.21	135572.3	274753.9	86471.54	1476811	116814.9	39077.889	59914.61	83914.98	14619.969	28258.49	78153.023	862879.318
Nsembilan	38466.46	317361.5	147766.3	240381.4	11275352	26983.37	5911.044	4391.604	52029.65	5962.328	20239.10	18206.624	637317.954

Note: The top to down arrangement of the states is made accordingly to the total number of tourist arrivals from the 10 countries in the descending order. Brunei and Singapore are excluded from ASEAN group in the calculation of total tourist arrivals in individual state, as the two countries are located extremely near to only Malaysia (unlike Thailand which are surrounded by others countries), which may create bias for interpreting the actual demand in individual states.

Methodology

As noted by Querfelli (2008), tourism demand could be measured with respect to the number of tourist arrivals. In this study, our studied sample consists of international tourist arrivals from Singapore, Indonesia, Thailand, Philippines and Brunei, Australia, Canada, France, Japan, New Zealand, South Korea and the United States. The numbers of tourist arrivals are collected from Malaysia Tourist Profile for 2001-2009, however, the limitation is that data for 2006 is missing. Macroeconomic data including income, price and exchange rate are obtained from the source of World Bank.

Tourism crisis is said to occur within a specific duration in an identifiable time and space (Ren, 2000). This statement reminds us that time series and cross-sectional information embedded in the data are important to reflect the behavior of tourism demand in Malaysia. The advantage of using panel data is to enhance the quality and quantity of data in ways that would be impossible using only one of these two dimensions (Gujarati, 2003). The panel analysis permits us to study the dynamics of changes in tourist arrivals in Malaysia within a specific time of duration. Moreover, it controls over for the omitted variable bias, given more data information and reduces multicollinearity effects which lead to the accuracy coefficient estimations (Hsiao, 2003).

Based on the previous literature established, tourism demand is likely to be determined by macroeconomic factors such as income, price, exchange rate. Hence, these factors are included in our model (1) to set as the control variables. Dummy variable *CRISIS* is used to act as a proxy for crisis event. Preliminary analysis model thus is expressed as following:

$$ARRIVAL_{it} = \alpha + \beta_0 EX_{it} + \beta_1 INCOME_{it} + \beta_2 PRICE_{it} + \beta_3 ARRIVAL_{it-1} + \beta_4 CRISIS + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (1)$$

where α is a constant, $ARRIVAL_{it}$ is the number of tourists from country i visiting to Malaysia during the year t while $ARRIVAL_{it-1}$ is referred to tourists from country i visiting to Malaysia during the year $t-1$. EX_{it} is the exchange rate of country i currency against USD divided by Malaysian currency against USD in year t ; $INCOME_{it}$ is the GDP per capita of country i during the year t ; $PRICE_{it}$ is the tourism price of Malaysia relative to the country i in year t ; dummy variables $CRISIS$ is the dummy variable for crisis with a value of 1 during the year of crisis, and is 0 otherwise. ε_{it} is the random error term.

$$ARRIVAL_{ijt} = \alpha + \beta_0 EX_{it} + \beta_1 INCOME_{it} + \beta_2 PRICE_{it} + \beta_3 ARRIVAL_{ijt-1} + \beta_4 SARS + \beta_5 TSU + \beta_6 BOMB + \varepsilon_{ijt} \quad (2)$$

Model (2) is the extension from model (1) where our dependent variable of $ARRIVAL_{ijt}$ and $ARRIVAL_{ijt-1}$ are the numbers of tourists from country i visiting to the state j during the year t and $t-1$ respectively. Here, 12 states have been analyzed instead of total 13 states in Malaysia since our collected data categorize Kedah and Perlis into one. In model (2), we separate the $CRISIS$ variable into three individual crisis event. We define the three crises in the more meaningful way, for which SARS outbreaks is defined as global-implicated crisis where its effect cover a wide range of geographical area; Indonesian tsunami is defined as Malaysia-implicated crisis, where only Malaysia and its nearby-countries have been affected; and lastly Bali bombings

is defined as Malaysia-irrelevant crisis where its effects are less plausibly related to Malaysia. Hence, three dummy variables *SARS*, *TSU* and *BOMB* take the value of 1 for the crisis year, and is 0 otherwise.

Results

Table 2 presents the impacts of crises on tourism demand in Malaysia. The results show that exchange rate significantly and positively influences tourism demand in Malaysia. Positive relationship is found for income factor, but the effect is not statistically significant. This is however consistent with the finding of Habibi et al. (2009). For price factor, significantly negative effects are found. The magnitude of coefficient for the price factor is among the most highest for the macroeconomic variables. This may imply that the prices for tourism products in Malaysia are the key to influence tourism demand in Malaysia. The word-of-mouth effect however show significantly positive impacts on tourism demand in Malaysia. Come to our subject of interest, we find that the impacts of crises significantly and negatively affect tourism demand in Malaysia.

Table 2: The Impacts Of Crises On Tourism Demand In Malaysia.

Variables	Coefficients
CONSTANT	-18.0040 (0.3718)
L_EXCHANGE	1.7279*** (0.0000)
L_INCOME	1.3790 (0.1300)
L_PRICE	-3.8214*** (0.0000)
L_TA(-1)	0.2968** (0.0494)
CRISIS	-0.3977*** (0.0001)

Fixed effect is applied in panel regression. *, ** and *** denote the level of significance at 10%, 5% and 1% respectively.

Table 3 present the impacts of crises on tourism demand in the individual state of Malaysia. We find that only the top four of the highest demanding states (Selangor, Penang, Malacca and Pahang), together with Terengganu and Perak are strongly affected by the crises, which are statistically significant at 1% level. The impacts of crises are negative, except for Penang which shows positive elasticity. We further find that the positive effect of crises on tourism in Penang is only driven by tourism demand from ASEAN. However, the significantly negative impacts of crises on the five states (excluding Penang) are driven by the falling in tourism demand from NON-ASEAN, but rarely being affected by ASEAN tourism demand relatively, while the positive effect of crises on tourism in Penang is only driven by tourism demand from ASEAN (the results are not shown in this paper). Nonetheless, Table 3 shows that tourism in Negeri Sembilan has neither been affected by the three crises studied significantly.

Table 4 presents the impacts of individual crisis event on tourism demand in the 12 states in Malaysia. We find no different results for the three individual type of crisis with the aggregated impacts of crises (represented by *CRISIS*) on ASEAN tourism demand. The findings show that although Bali bombings has not affected Malaysia, but tourists do worry to visit to Malaysia too as Malaysia is located nearby to Bali. This may implies that tourists are very sensitive over their safety when making decision to travel. In sum, we can conclude that the negative effect in terms of tourism demand due to the crisis events may spillover to the nearby countries.

Table 3: The Impacts Of Crises On State-Level Tourism Demand In Malaysia.

State	Crisis
Selangor	-0.6914***
	(0.0000)
Penang	0.4510***
	(0.0045)
Pahang	-0.4452***
	(0.0002)
Malacca	-0.7207***
	(0.0001)
Kedah/Perlis	-0.1607
	(0.4869)
Sarawak	0.0843
	(0.6669)
Johor	-0.2324*
	(0.0803)
Sabah	-0.3724*
	(0.0961)
Kelantan	0.1099
	(0.6777)
Perak	-0.6754***
	(0.0010)
Terengganu	-0.8925***
	(0.0000)
Negeri Sembilan	-0.2877
	(0.2703)

This table only shows the coefficient of *CRISIS* variable for the 12 states, excluding the coefficients for the control variables. Fixed effect is applied in our panel regression. *, ** and *** denote the level of significance at 10%, 5% and 1% respectively

Table 4: Shows The Impacts Of Individual Crisis On State-Level Tourism Demand In Malaysia.

Variable	SARS	TSU	BOMB
Selangor	-0.7487***	-0.5291***	-0.5172***
	(0.0000)	(0.0002)	(0.0000)
Penang	0.5421**	0.3447*	0.4784**
	(0.0213)	(0.0848)	(0.0182)
Pahang	-0.4233***	-0.5310***	-0.4687**

	(0.0060)	(0.0077)	(0.0282)
Malacca	-0.8571***	-0.7406***	-0.8234***
	(0.0004)	(0.0060)	(0.0002)
Kedah/Perlis	-0.0333	-0.5751*	-0.0600
	(0.8941)	(0.0588)	(0.8542)
Sarawak	-0.1854	0.7386*	0.4160
	(0.4695)	(0.0659)	(0.2311)
Johor	-0.2439	0.3945**	-0.6554***
	(0.1165)	(0.0190)	(0.0002)
Sabah	-0.6100	-0.1992	-0.1653
	(0.0405)	(0.5017)	(0.5245)
Kelantan	0.2954	0.0562	-0.6013
	(0.3554)	(0.8955)	(0.1798)
Perak	-0.9129***	0.0662	-0.6366*
	(0.0002)	(0.8521)	(0.0589)
Terengganu	-0.8275***	-0.8865***	-0.9264***
	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
Negeri Sembilan	-0.4665	0.1445	-0.1491
	(0.1029)	(0.7301)	(0.7452)

This table only shows the coefficient of crisis variables (*SARS*, *TSU*, *BOMB*) for the 12 states, excluding the coefficients for the control variables. Fixed effect is applied in our panel regression. *, ** and *** denote the level of significance at 10%, 5% and 1% respectively.

Conclusion

This study shed light on the impacts of crises (2003 SARS outbreak, 2004 Indonesian tsunami and 2005 Bali bombings) on state-level tourism demand in Malaysia. We find that Asia-based crisis does significantly affect Malaysia tourism demand. On the investigation of the state-level tourism in Malaysia, the top four of the most famous states namely Selangor, Penang, Malacca and Pahang, together with Perak and Terengganu are significantly affected by crises, with its effects are negative except for Penang. However, the positive impacts of crises on Penang tourism is driven by ASEAN tourism demand only; while NON-ASEAN tourism demand is the key to affect the negative impacts of the tourism in the five states. The impacts of crises are not significantly shown for the tourism demand in the rest of the states. In the addition, we find that the negative impacts of crises have spillover effect in terms of tourism demand to the nearby countries. This does imply that tourists are extremely sensitive over their personal safety when making decision to travel.

In sum, the results may first give a notion to policy makers to take into serious consideration of the price factor in Malaysia as this has exerted the most influence to the tourists whether to travel in Malaysia. In the addition, we suggest to policy makers of not belittle every crisis happening in the nearby country although the crisis merely affects the country itself. Policy makers should always be reminded that tourists are very particular about their personal safety, even there is a small chance to threaten their life. More than that, our core findings imply that high tourism demanding destinations are not sustainable during the period of crisis. Policy makers should not pay fully attention to the high tourism demanding destinations, but in fact, effort should put on the low tourism demanding destinations to recoup for the lost following

the crisis. However, tourism in Penang is the exceptional case that is benefited following the crisis. The tourism model in Penang is encouraged to set as a role model to remind the policy makers to diversify and well-develop every tourism products as what has been done in Penang tourism.

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The Role & Impact Of Preservation Architectural Heritage On Domestic Tourism

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Cultural and heritage tourism has become a major source of revenue for many communities and states across the globe. Heritage exploitation is currently a factor of human welfare and local development, raising new questions on preservation and safe guarding both material and tangible heritage. Domestic and regional tourism development is a key factor which contributes to economic welfare of the host country. Tourism destinations and businesses are becoming increasingly prone to the impacts of crises and disasters due to global environmental change and security risks. The major risk of depending upon the international tourism as a main source for regional tourism, it must show that domestic tourism as an alternative way of celebrating tourism without giving up to global pressures. This paper is to determine the link between architectural heritage and domestic tourism development.

Key words: heritage, tourism, architecture, development, culture

Introduction

Tourism is a worldwide giant industry which has a high increase rate such that UNWTO's Vision forces that international arrivals expected to reach over 1.56 billion by the year 2020, which were 842 million in 2006.

In the current world crises, Tourism is one of the industries that is considered to be least affected by global economic crisis, yet some Touristic led economies, Greece, Spain, Portugal, Tunisia, Egypt, Lebanon, etc. who have invested extensively on the Tourism industry and relied on its income, over the years, are now in deep economic crisis. The year 2011 was a year of dramatic and unforeseen events that impacted on world travel and tourism. The protests, conflicts and revolution in Arab countries at the start of the year, the tsunami and nuclear disaster in Japan, the euro zone debt crisis, and political and economic drama in Greece and then Italy, were just the most prominent in a long series of disruptive events around the world in response, more than eight million travelers switched destinations, preferring to visit "safer" countries, and could not be enticed back with dumping prices (Hall, 1996). The travel and tourism industry is susceptible to a wide range of internal and external forces and is impacted heavily by crisis events resulting in negative tourist perceptions. Unpredictable negative events, be they natural catastrophes or human induced

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disasters, pose an unprecedented challenge for the tourism trade as they can disrupt business activities or in the more serious instances wipe out entire tourism operations (Pforr&Hosie, 1995).

Cultural heritage tourism is also increasing being used as a tool to stimulate regional development in rural and urban areas. The practical implication of this study is pointing out positive policies and necessities of cooperation between government and private sector in order to make best use of domestic tourism.

The topics of architecture uses as visionary and iconic tools of attracting international and domestic tourism has been on the top of the agenda of both the developed and the developing countries to celebrate approach to the way that architecture can contribute to re-generate as well as mark a city. It must show that domestic tourism as an alternative way of celebrating tourism without giving up to global pressures, potential to celebrate and enhance local/cultural landscape and locally responsive icons challenging global icons of attraction. It could benefit the process of creating the corporate identity and market position of businesses or destinations.

Objectives

- Use architectural heritage preservation as a key tool for local and regional development in domestic tourism.
- Rehabilitation, regeneration and restructuring the architectural heritage sites.
- The benefits of domestic tourism promotion through preservation and developing the architectural heritage sites can be far reaching. For communities, it can strengthen the local economy, increase community pride and stimulate economic growth.
- Focusing on the domestic tourism is the safeguard of tourism.
- Ensure the negative impacts in development in depending upon international tourism.
- Raise awareness on the importance of the cultural, social, and economic value of caring architectural heritage preservation and its impact on domestic tourism.
- The practical implication of this study is pointing out possible policies and necessity of cooperation between government and private sector in order to make best use of domestic tourism is linked to some important factors

Risks

Why "we" seek domestic tourism development?

Domestic Tourism (DT) historically speaking, is in fact the first form of tourism that was practiced and today it continues the account for the most part of this activity by far; it is estimated that out of the 4.8 billion tourist arrivals per year (2008 figure), 4 billion or 83% correspond to domestic tourism.

Travelling overseas is an unattractive proposition. A toxic combination of devastating climate change impacts, violent wars over scarce resources and social unrest has created an unstable and fearful world. Security is tight and travel is cumbersome, time-consuming and inefficient. Climate change will have dramatic impacts on how, where and when (and even if) people travel, and will reshape the industry over time (Tourism 2023).

Tourism as an industry can have both positive and negative impacts in the host society. The impacts include economic, social and environmental impacts and the planners are trying to maximize the positive impacts while do their best to minimize the negative impacts (Khaksar&others,2011).Tourism is perhaps one of the most volatile industries today with an increase in security threats, terrorism, political turmoil, violence, natural disasters and pandemics. No tourism destinations in immune from these external crises over which they often have no control (Edmond, 2011).

“The histories of specific structures, spaces and sites have been re-conceptualized. Some have been preserved and celebrated, whereas others are left to decay. In this process of amplification and suppression,buildings,cities and entire countries have been remapped by tourism initiatives to serve political, cultural, economic and scholarly goals” (Lasansky&Mclaren,2004).

We are seeking to further enhance the importance of tourism as an economic factor the same time, tourism is facing major challenges. Demographic change is altering the customer structure on the tourism markets, climate change is affecting the appeal of destinations and globalization has led to fierce competition between travel destinations round the world. These fierce and risks lead us to take an action and focus on the domestic tourism development through architectural heritage preservation and promotion.

Why should communities focus on cultural and heritage tourism?

Cultural and heritage tourism has become a major source of revenue for many communities and states across the globe. Imbued with a message from the past, the historic monuments of generations of people remain to the present day as living witnesses of their age-old traditions. “People are becoming more and more conscious of the unity of human values and regard ancient monuments as a common heritage. The common responsibility to safeguard them for future generation is recognized .It is our duty to hand them on in the full richness of their authenticity" (Jokilehto, 2003).

The benefit of architectural heritage preservation can be far-reaching for communities, it can strengthen the local economy, promote resource protection, increase visitor expenditures, general employment, preserve the unique character of a community, increase community pride, and awareness of community resources. It can assist the cultural heritage resources themselves by augmenting revenues in appropriate and sustainable ways.

Tourism architecture shapes the landscape in the long run. As a result the esthetic value, as well as the indulgence quality of region is improved by architecture. High value buildings can be seen as the basis for the touristic success of destination, and therefore influence its economy and society. Architecture is means of expression for the cultural diversity and innovative potential of region. Architectural heritage releases impulses to examine the regional identity as well as life style. It encourages self-identification for regional cultural performance. Architectural heritage takes into account and enriches cultural resources, the ecology and the social environment-Hence, it accomplishes a vital part of sustainability in tourism projects.

In different countries, case studies have shown that cultural tourism can play a major role in the revitalization of local culture and historic public spaces in terms of physical revitalization (such as in urban settings) as well as in encouraging arts, crafts, and the performance arts properly planned and managed, it can be argued that tourism

can promote the rehabilitation of historic areas and thereby improve the lives of the residents.

How to approach to preservation and development of the architectural heritage sites?

The effective development operation and management of architectural heritage sites requires certain institutional elements. These elements include:

- Preserving architectural heritage with respect to indigenous cultural traditions and minimizing the negative impacts on the environment can unite the natural and built spaces and create a sense of place for the tourists.
- Planning is pluralist, serving many constituencies and stakeholders.
- In regard to accommodations for tourists should be in accordance with the natural and local space and the ancient architectural heritage.
- Architectural local-traditional skills can be updated and more effective by using modern technologies in order to design and create nice, comfortable and environmentally friendly accommodations for tourists. This can be done through the combination of the old and traditional methods with the new and modern technologies and software.
- Planning should be that tourism must be strategic, integrative, and have a regional perspective. Because most tourism development depends on attractions and activities related to the natural environment, historic heritage and cultural patterns of areas.
- Maintain uniqueness in local cultural and social fabric, local architecture, historical monuments and landmarks.
- Provide qualified practitioners with professional managerial skills relating to conservation of historic places and development for cultural tourism.
- Promote study in understanding and appreciation of traditional architecture and community settlements.
- The locality should empower an individual and an organization to take leadership in this planning effort. This should include a SWOT analysis of community's strengths, weakness, opportunities and threats.
- Providing the framework for effective coordination of the public and private sector efforts and investment in developing countries.
- There are a variety of steps and considerations that communities should take to effectively implement the tool of cultural and heritage tourism. Some of these will be taken up as a part of a comprehensive strategic planning process, others are a part of good program management. These focus on the cultural and heritage products themselves, support services, public works, education and training, marketing, planning, management and assessment/evaluation, and public policy actions (Rosenfeld, 2011).

Methodology

Successful Examples

The Malaysia Tourism Policy is based on the philosophy the tourism protects preserves and conserves mother nature, culture and heritage. Domestic tourism will be among the focus to be given by Malaysia in future following the success of the domestic vacation program which contributed significantly to the national economy,

the data showed that in 2010 Malaysia has made 110 million trips to go on vacation in the country which contributed income RM 34 billion (Yen, 2012).

- Malaysia domestic tourism campaign "Cuti-cuti", which encourages a planned holiday culture among Malaysians, total arrivals in 2011, 24.7 million (US\$ 18.3 billion in receipts).
- Development of successful resort design with vernacular style in Langkawi, Malaysia shows that cultural identity and environmental adaption are significant factors for future success of the resort architecture (Hassan, 2010).
- In Germany, heritage protection became an important aspect of urban planning and in the creation of attractive cities and villages and cooperation between private initiatives and government bodies to preserve cultural heritage has a long tradition in Germany (Saxinger,2007).As early as the 19 century, societies for antiquities, local cultural traditions, monument conservation and architecture were founded to prevent the loss or decay of important cathedrals, cloister churches, castles and palaces. In Germany cultural heritage conservation is primarily the task of the states. The 16 states are responsible for enacting and enforcing the cultural heritage laws and thus for the key legal basis for preserving the architectural and archaeological cultural heritage in Germany (Ringbeck, 2011). Germany has about 1.3 million architectural and archaeological monuments. Project of the "Castles Road" is considered the best model of the architectural heritage preservation development and promotion for domestic and regional tourism, the numerous castles and palaces along the holiday route 1,200 km,the route was extended from Mannheim eastwards to Prague in Czech Republic. Tourism policy and planning encourage domestic and regional tourism, domestic travelers promoted to 118.9 million for the six-month period, January-May 2012,spending by international visitors to Germany on business travel including an overnight stay have reached 13.5 billion Euro per year combined with 14.6 billion Euro spent by domestic business travelers, business-related travel.

Negligence and Obstacles facing Architectural Heritage

Spain, Scotland, France and Slovak lands boast an extraordinary high number of architectural heritage, represent an important part of the national cultural heritage, several monuments are still under negligence and facing many of obstacles and need further interest for promotion and development. In Spain there are 2500 castles and 250 castles in Scotland, and there are several castles in Languedoc region in France about 35 castles a few have been restored, many other are still facing negligence except the city of Carcassonne is primarily known as a fortified medieval city and it is now onUnesco list of world heritage (Figures1, 2,3 ,4).



Figure1. Loarre Castle, Spain



Figure 2. Eilean Castle, Scotland



Figure 3. Bescok Castle, Slovakia.

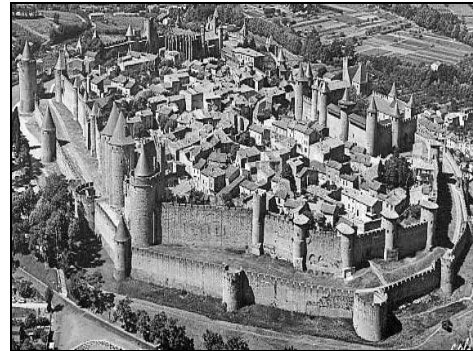


Figure 4. Carcassonne Castle, France

Results & Recommendations

- Tourism as an industry can have both positive and negative impacts in the host society. The impacts include economic, social and environmental impacts.
- Developing a cultural and architectural heritage program will require an investment of financial resources and commitment of human resources.
- Governments, local authorities, and private sector must pay more attention to the domestic tourism as a tool of protecting the architectural and cultural heritage which leads to an increasing emphasis on the assessment of the impact of tourism and on the preparation of tourism development plans.
- The risk of depending upon the international tourism as a main source for regional tourism.
- Demand a collective effort by local, regional, national and authorities. It calls for collaboration among heritage managers and urban regional planners, the tourism and construction sectors, policy-makers and civil society groups (Chapuis, 2009).
- Businesses must be freed from superfluous bureaucracy and more attention paid to mainstreaming accessibility as a cross-sectorial task in all policy sectors.
- Improve skills in tourism, the syllabus in vocational schools, technical colleges and universities must be adapted to meet the strategic challenges facing the tourism industry.
- Developing and modernizing infrastructure is the way to make sure that tourist destinations are easy to reach.
- Creative and innovative entrepreneurs should be supported and motivated to use "Architectural Heritage" as an economic success tool for sustainable tourism development.
- In a commitment to the achievement of a satisfactory tourism policy it is common for sets of objectives to focus on the following issues :
 - Economic.
 - Socio-cultural.
 - Market development.
 - Resource protection and conservation.

Conclusion

Today tourism is considered to be an important phenomenon in the world and its growth and vitality highly depends on its sustainability. Tourism is one of the volatile industries today with an increase in crises threats. And the risk of depending upon the international tourism as a main source for regional tourism it must show that domestic

tourism as an alternative way of celebrating tourism without giving up to global pressures. Architectural heritage preservation development can be considered as a workable and appropriate means of interconnecting tourism to the local elements. The benefits of domestic tourism promotion through architectural heritage development sites can be far reaching; for communities, it can strengthen the local economy, increase community pride and stimulate economic growth. Cultural heritage tourism encourages the protection and continued use of cultural heritage resources and the tourism industry. Governments, local authorities, and private sector must play more attention to the domestic tourism as a means of protecting the architectural and cultural heritage which leading to an increasing emphasis on the assessment of the impact of tourism and the preparation of tourism development plans.

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Tourism Development And Tourism Impacts In Kilim Geopark, Langkawi: How Local Community Perceive On Economic Impact

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This paper examines how tourism development of Langkawi into a popular tourist destination and the impacts to the local economy also generating local community income. In the second phase of the development project known as "Langkawi Tourism Blueprints". Langkawi is made into a nature ecotourism destination of international standard and to emphasizes the shift towards content development rather than infrastructure. This transformation, especially in the Kilim Karst Geopark, will bring about economic impacts where the government hopes will get local supports.

Key words: tourism development, Langkawi, local community, Langkawi Tourism Blueprints, Kilim Karst Geopark, economic impacts

Introduction

Tourism, as a significant form of human activity, can have major impacts. These impacts are very visible in the destination region, where tourists can interact with the local environment, economy, culture and society (Peter Mason, 2008). Tourism impacts can be positive or beneficial to the developing country but also can be negative or harmful. The most important impacts of the Langkawi Geopark are the economic opportunities it affords the people by creating new innovative industries that can give benefit to the local communities (Sharina,2011). The key to successful tourism growth are related to the characteristics of the host community in the destination region and the nature of the interaction between the visitors and residents (Wall, 1997 in Peter Mason, 2008). The tourism industry can grow rapidly however it unplanned and uncontrolled, the transformation will be affect the environment.

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Local community Perceptions Towards Tourism Impacts

Local communities have a key role in tourism management and leisure. Many researchers who did their studies in developing countries on local community perceptions towards impacts, especially on economic impacts had indicated favorable acceptance by the community. Understanding the community perceptions can help to access community support for continuing tourism development (Sharma, 2004 in Fariboz and Ma'rof, 2009). Residents usually welcome tourism in early stages of tourism development but gradually lose their hospitable attitudes towards tourists and tourism development; then they become more hostile and irritated with tourism (Mais, 2010).

Kilim Karst Geopark, Langkawi

Kilim Karst Geopark is the one of world class attractive places for nature sightseeing. Visitors can enjoy a variety of attractions, from the natural parks to large international events. Langkawi Kilim River Geopark is to be upgraded to one of the world's major attractions; with development projects carefully and systematically done it will boost Langkawi as a world class tourist destination. It is necessary that local support is needed to ensure the initiative to succeed. Local communities in Kilim will be given an opportunity by LADA (Langkawi Development Authority) to manage Kilim. The opportunity given would change the standard of living of the villagers; they have to learn to adapt to the new environment when tourist from other parts of the world come to Kilim. In addition Kilim community members represent more than hundred members but only 15 important people are involved in Kilim community organizations. From the KPEP community book, there are 82 boats from 29 owners of the boats.

Tourism Development in Langkawi

Development in Langkawi into a tourist destination started in the early 1980's. The development not only benefits the local people but it also opens up avenues for tourism activities that transforms Langkawi into a popular tourist destination at the international level. In 1987 when Langkawi was declared as a duty free zone, and with continued investment effort from government and the private sectors, Langkawi has been turned into a popular shopping center, a haven for local and foreign tourist.

Some policies have been carried out to promote the state's tourism development. For example, the State Structure Plan Policy 2002-2020 (Draf Rancangan Struktur Negeri Kedah) which produces three major policies and implementation measures to achieve the specified policy. The first policy is to strengthen and enhance the tourism industry as the main economic drivers of Kedah, tourism development focusing on two zone, one main zone in Langkawi and other support zone such as Kota Star, Padang Terap and Sik and Yan. The Second policy is to upgrade tourism infrastructures in terms of tourism support facilities accessibility, the third policy is to diversify the sources of new tourism so as to increase attraction in mainland Kedah (Johan Affendi and Mohamad Zaki, 2008)

In figure 1 it is stated that the establishment of the development in Langkawi starting in 1987 until 2007 and the development is still undergoing. Ibrahim Kamoo (2011) said that the initiative of LADA to bring the development either Kilim or Langkawi as a whole has totally transformed the island into a modern tourist

destination. This initiative also increased the local community livelihood and has motivated the local people to participate in tourism industries.

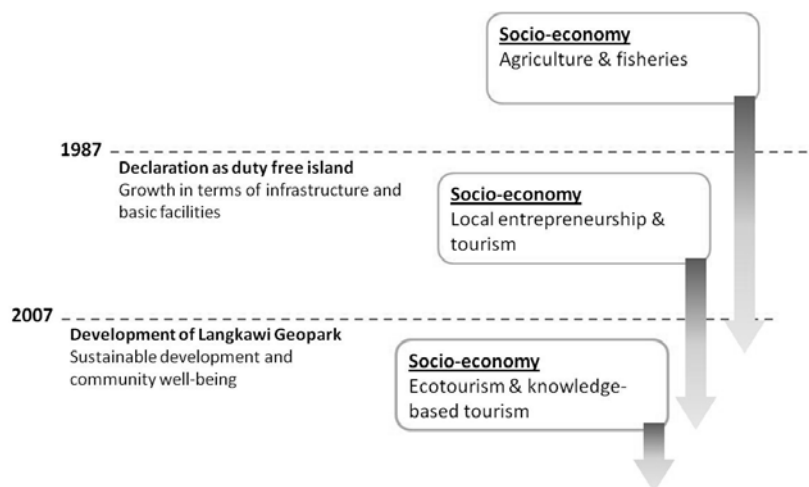


Figure 1: Processes of socio-economic development in Langkawi
Source: Halim, Komoo, Salleh and Omar (2011)

Langkawi Tourism Blueprint

Langkawi Tourism Blueprint launched for the five year plan starting 2011 to 2015 and contains three themes which are product, infrastructure and enablers. These initiatives adhere to the guiding principles. First, they support a cohesive vision of Langkawi as a nature and eco-destination. Second, they build on Langkawi's existing strengths with an eye towards becoming truly world class, so as to maximize the island's competitive advantage with other island destinations. These initiatives also aim to improve the living standards of Langkawians, in terms of their income levels and quality of life. Finally, the Blueprint has paid close attention to the issue of implementation as we recognize that a plan is only as good as its execution. (LADA, 2012).

The Kilim development project covers an area of 3.84 hectares which is devoted to four major projects; upgrade facilities at Kilim jetty and facilities in the swamps, diversion facilities at the jetty fishing and the Discovery Center. If the transformation is successful, it will not only make Langkawi more advanced, the whole population will benefit from it. The Manager of Planning and Development of the Langkawi Development Authority (Lada), Dr Noor Yazan Zainol said that the Discovery Centre would serve as an archive and reference point on Geoparks in this country, especially in Langkawi. "Filling this center will be applied to the segment geology, flora and fauna, socio-cultural and international," he said. The project will start on February 2012, worth more than RM20 million and is expected to be completed within two years.

Tourism Development in Kilim, Geopark

In figure 2 it is shown that the Geopark development given emphasizes three developments which are heritage conservation, economic development and community development. This plan also included Kilim Karst Geopark (Ibrahim Kamoo, 2011).

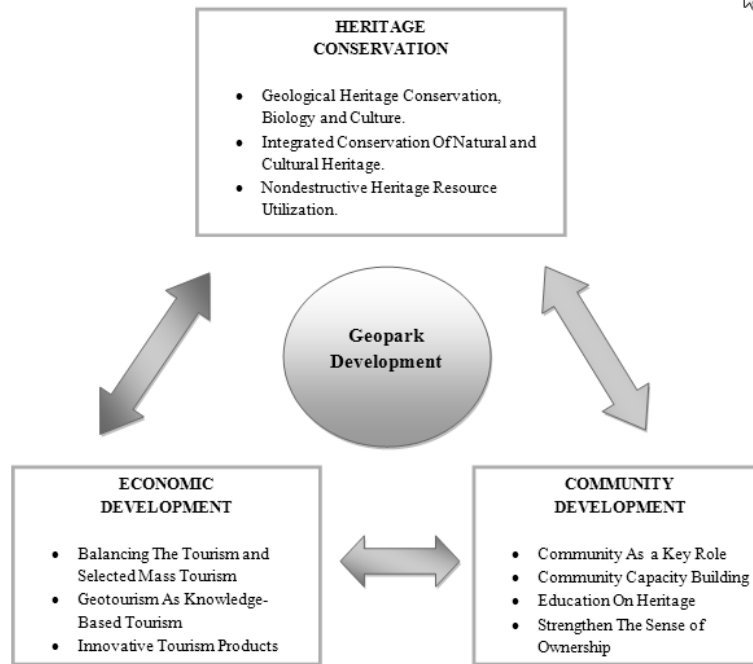


Figure 2: Geopark Development Framework: a focus on balancing the needs of conservation, economy and well-being of the community Development Division

On 1 June 2007, Langkawi Island has been declared by UNESCO as a heritage site “Langkawi Geopark” is Malaysia’s first established Geopark located in the far northwestern corner of Peninsular Malaysia. Geopark includes three different places namely Machinchang Cambrian Geopark, Kilim Karst Geopark and Dayang Bunting Marble Geopark. However this paper only focused on the Kilim Karst Geopark.

A few years ago local community in Kilim depended on fisheries and agricultural activities. In Langkawi Island there are six KPSP (*Komuniti Pengurusan Sumber Perikanan*), are located in the sub-district, one of them is KPSP Kilim (Ayer Hangat district). But according to Deputy Head of the village in Kilim, now the name of KPSP was changed to KPEP (*Kumpulan Pengurusan Ekosistem Perikanan*) to suit with the tourism products that are available around the Kilim Geopark for example Pulau Dangli (fish feeding), Bat Cave, Eagle Feeding and etc. In Kilim, the majority of local fisher folks has moved to become boat operators managers of ecotourism activities in the Kilim Karst Geopark. The association has been able to provide alternative employment for many of its members, from traditional fisherman to tour boat operators, resulting in increasing income and quality of life (Sharina,2011).

In Kilim Karst Geopark, human capital represents the skills, knowledge, ability to labor and good health that together enable people to pursue different livelihood strategies and to achieve their livelihood objectives.

Table 1: Type of skills observed in Kilim source by Sharina, (2011)

Type of skill	Kilim (n=704)
Literacy	97.3
Fluent in other languages	29.8
Arts and crafts	16.3
Agriculture	17.9
Technical/vocational	2.3

Entrepreneurial	5.9
Tourism-based activities	1.8
Others	0.14

In table 1 it can be seen that with the assistant of relevant agencies and authorities the skill of local people has been upgraded. The table shows that the percentage of literacy is higher than other skills representing that the communities can adapt to the new environment brought about by tourism development.

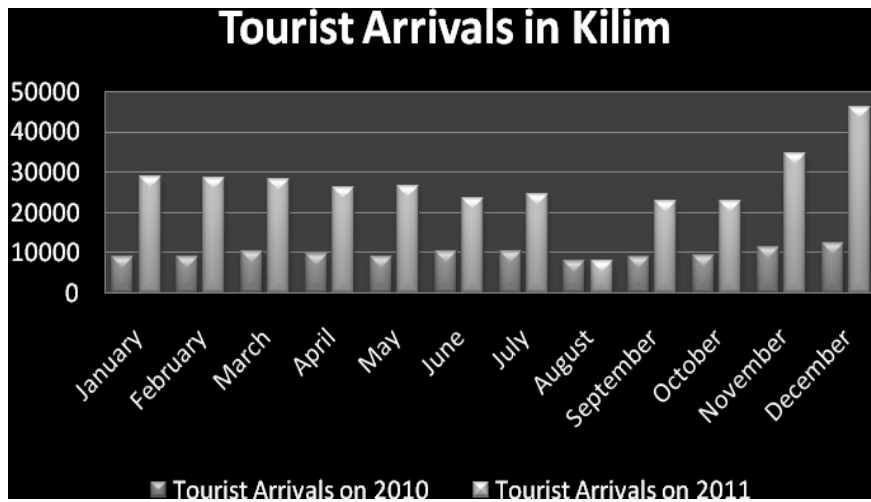


Figure 3: Tourist arrivals statistic in Kilim (Source: Koperasi Komuniti Kampung Kilim Langkawi Berhad, 2012)

In figure 3 it shows the tourist arrival in the Kilim Karst Geopark in 2010 and 2011. Tourist arrivals have increased every year and this helps to generate local community income from these involvements in the boat services and restaurant services. In addition Kilim also have one homestay, three restaurants in Kilim jetty, two restaurants in fish farm and two souvenirs shop. All this business has been run by local people.

Table 2: Employment sector on three localities on Langkawi Island

Sector	Padang Mat Sirat	Kilim (n=179)	Pulau Tuba (n=88)
Agriculture, Forestry, Fisheries, Livestock rearing, Cottage industries.	17.5	12.3	27.3
Production, Processing	4.5	5.1	3.4
Wholesale, Grocer, Hotel, Restaurant	39.6	40.2	31.8
Service, Transportation, Others	38.5	2.3	37.5

Source: Halim, Komoo, Salleh and Omar (2011)

Table 2 show that in general the tourism development in Langkawi has major impacts in the wholesale sector, grocery operations, hotels and restaurants, followed by the service and transportation sector, and then agriculture, forestry and fisheries.

Table 3: Mean of total household monthly income

	Padang Mat Sirat	Kilim	Pulau Tuba
Total average household income per month	RM 1383	RM 1277.39	RM 609.91
Expenditure	RM 1262.41	-na-	RM 631.14
Savings	RM 211.26	-na-	RM 121.05

*Note: USD 1 = RM 3.10 (January 2011)

Source: Halim, Komoo, Salleh and Omar (2011)

Table 3 shows that household monthly income in three localities in Langkawi of interest is the monthly income of households in Kilim. It can be seen that communities in Kilim have reasonably high into the level.

Economic Impacts

Tourism contributes positive impacts in three crucial aims economic, environmental and social in the destinations. In the general tourism development has given impacts to the local community in Kilim.

According to Johan Afendi and Mohamad Zaki (2008) tourism gives positive impacts such as generate more income to the local communities, the give sites opportunities in employment in the supply of services. But tourist also gives a negative impacts to economy such as economic leakage, control destination by foreign investors, rising prices of goods and unhealthy competition between operators. This situation has happened in Kilim Karst Geopark, according to Deputy Head of the village in Kilim, the villagers support the development in Kilim, they like to mix around and easy to adapt with changes, tourism benefits the community as it they can generate more income. But tourism the development that happened too fast has little control on the number of tourists to come in Kilim. The sudden increased in tourist arrivals, some boatmen use this opportunity to gain more profit by taking overload passengers in one boat and also to increase speed that have resulted in erosion and mangrove destination. This can give a bad impression in the eyes of tourists who come to Kilim. There is a need to control the tourists so as to limit the use of boats and also establish a policy to prevent the speeding of the boat.

Conclusion

Tourism development in a destination sometimes may bring both positive and negative effects. Support from the government such as LADA, an NGO such as WWF and also from local community itself are needed to reduce the negative effect. In Kilim Karst Geopark the development has been carried out in accordance with the plan and it can be seen that it is giving more positive benefit than bad. To ensure that negative impacts is not increased, the development must done systematically according to the actual plan.

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Socio-Economic Impacts On Local Community In Pangkor Island

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Since 1990s, the impact of tourism development has grown tremendously especially in the spectra of islands and marine parks tourism. Despite the fact that most of the Malaysian islands already have their individual ecotourism natural attractions, more islands have been progressively developed as a tourist attractions spot. The scenario has given an economic advantage to the local community where many society members have shifted their profession from fishing to ecotourism-related activities. However, inappropriate tourism development and growth can lead to adverse environmental and socio-economic impacts on the islands, including exposing the local community to certain foreign behaviours that may opposed to the island culture or traditional community values. Pangkor Island is one of the renowned islands in Malaysia, located in the Perak state and just off the coast of North West Malaysia. Another name for Pangkor Island long ago was Dinding, which means 'screen' or 'partition'. There are five main attractions of Pangkor Island that are coastal areas, island resorts, historical sites, forest areas and cultural activities. Based on Life Cycle Theory, Pangkor Island is currently facing declination stage where it used to experience booming tourism period in the past 20 years. The impact of previous development on the local community socio-economic provides a significant research area to be explored. Interviews have been conducted with several notable people in Pasir Bogak and Teluk Nipah to assess the socio-economic impact on the local community in Pangkor Island.

Key word: tourism development, tourism area life-cycle model, socio-economic impact, local community

Introduction

Tourism is targeted to be one of the fastest growing industries (UNWTO, 2006) and forecasted to grow at above 4 percent per year during the next ten years to account 9.4 percent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) worldwide (WTTC, 2010). This aim delineates an increasing number of new tourism destinations and heavy investment in tourism sector for the industry to be a key driver for socio-economic progress. Nowadays, tourism development is one of the largest and dynamically developing sectors of external economic activities (Mirbabayev and Shagzatova, 2006).

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Principally, tourism evolves from the movements made by humans, in this case, entails tourists. The International Dictionary of Tourism (1953) defines tourist as a man with a desire for travelling out of its original area; in parallel with the definition given by WTO (2008) that support tourism as a social phenomenon, culture and economy that involves the movement of people into a country or region outside the usual environment for personal or business purposes. Furthermore, Institute of Tourism in Britain (1976) adds few details by advocating tourism with the movement from areas where they live and work that comprising activities during their stay in the destination area and including movements for all purposes, as well as day-visits or excursions.

In general, every industry in this universe will bring side effects to the human kind whether good or bad. Relatively, Jackson (2008) claims that tourism can bring both positive and negative impacts to local community. In this paper, economic and social impacts will be the main focus to be disclosed. Quite a number of scholars have examined the consequences of tourism development with their own perspectives and approaches. From the positive viewpoint, Kreag (2001) contends that tourism carries great effects on local residents by providing employment opportunities, creating new businesses, developing modern infrastructure as well as enhancing standard of living. Moreover, in terms of social values, Din (1997) believes that tourism enriches local culture through contact with outsiders and revitalise local traditions with new paradigm dimensions.

Despite of that, other researchers prefer to highlight on the negative impact of tourism towards the local manners. Several authors (Bunce, 2008; MacDonald and Jolliffe, 2003) opine that inappropriate tourism development can lead to adverse environmental and social impacts on islands which exposing locals to behaviour that may conflict with the island culture or traditional community values. Consistently, Kreag (2001) states that tourism development causes prices increment especially in terms of goods, land, housing, standard of living and other infrastructure costs that somehow related to economic matters. Thus, Saveriades (2000) raise the issue of carrying capacity where each destination can only bears specific level of acceptance of tourist arrivals in order to avoid socio-cultural deterioration or a decline in the quality of the experience gained by visitors.

By and large, island tourism is getting popular in Malaysia. It attracts many foreign and local tourists. From the website of Tourism Malaysia, statistics had shown that Malaysia accumulated 23.6 million international tourists in 2009 whilst according to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) tourism in 2005 turned out to be the second largest industry; accounted for 3.8 percent of global Gross Domestic Product - GDP (Rosli and Azhar, 2007). Essentially, the islands of Malaysia continue to be developed into tourist spots with the mission to attract a continuous number of arrivals (Mohamed et al., 2006) so that the Vision 2020 for Malaysia to become fully-developed nation will be easily realised and fulfilled.

Pangkor Island is an island located in the Perak state and just off the coast of North West Malaysia. From the Website of Pangkor Island, the island is about 200 km South of Penang and 70 South-West of Perak capitals Ipoh. The local residents believed that the island was sheltered by the spirits, so they called Pangkor Island the Spirit Island. Another name for Pangkor Island in the old days was Dinding, which means 'screen' or 'partition'. The island is relatively small with total surface area of about 8 square kilometres (sq km) and a population of about 30,000 consisting mainly of fisher folks.

In actual fact, tourism in Malaysia has been as a double-edged sword (Hitchner et al., 2009; Russell, 2003) because it gives lucrative returns to the national income. Also, it contributes to economic growth and enhances socio-economic of local community. From the views of island tourism, the role of government in implementing extensive campaigns to promote Malaysian tourism has subsequently contributed towards the enhancement of local community by encouraging them to be directly involved with ecotourism-related activities which could provide greater economic benefits (Liew, 2002). Hence, this paper presents the results of the study conducted towards island community on the impact of tourism development under the capacity of social and economic aspects. The objective of this research is to underscore the significant impact of tourism sector on the socio-economic issues of Pangkor Island.

Literature Review

Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) Model

Ironically, tourism is an important indicator for economic development; creating employment opportunities in a large number of countries (De Kadt, 1979). According to Godfrey and Clarke (2000), tourism development is an ongoing process and might be illustrated through the application of the life cycle model to tourist destinations (Stansfield, 2006). The tourism area life cycle (TALC) model has become one of the most cited and frequently used models in the tourism literature. The model underlines and emphasises the crucial importance of management and control to overcome and avoid potential difficulties (Butler, 1980). Several models have been developed since the early 1960s that describe the evolution of tourism through a life-cycle process (Christaller, 1963). The changes in tourism destination can also be influenced by other elements including the environment such as geographic, economic, political and social variables. The model incorporates six-stages and was developed by Butler in 1980 as shown in the following figure:

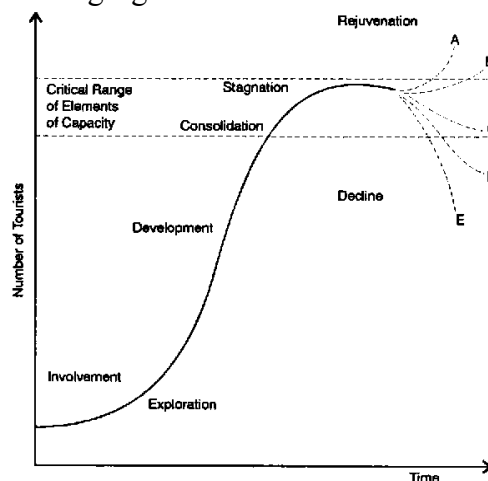


Figure 1: Hypothetical evolution of a tourist area (Butler, 1980)

Exploration Stage: No specific facilities provided which lead to high degree contacts between the locals and visitors with very little social and economic impact.

Involvement Stage: At this time, increasing visitors induces some locals to offer facilities primarily or exclusively for them. Contact with locals is still high and social adjustment will be made to accommodate the changing of economic conditions.

Development Stage: Outside investment is attracted to the destination as a well-defined tourism market emerges. Accessibility is enhanced, advertising becomes more intensive and extensive, and local facilities are displaced by more elaborate and up-to-date ones. This result in a decline of local's participation control.

Consolidation Stage: The major portion of the local economy is tied to tourism and dominated by major chains and franchises. Visitation levels continue to increase but at declining rates. Marketing and advertising efforts are further widened to extend the tourism season and attract more distant visitors.

Stagnation Stage: Capacity levels for many relevant factors are reached or exceeded resulting in economic, social and environmental problems. A peak number of possible visitations are achieved forcing facility managers to rely on repeat visitations and conventions for business.

The last stages are divided into two parts where decline comes as first part after stagnation stage. **Decline** shows that tourists are drawn away by newer destinations; those remaining are mostly weekend or day visitors. Tourism facilities become replaced by non-tourism establishments as the area disengages from the industry. This results in even less attraction for visitors and remaining facilities become less viable. Local involvement probably increases again as the price of facilities drops along with the market decline. The destination either becomes a tourism slum or finds itself devoid of tourism activity altogether. The second part after stagnation stage is **rejuvenation** which is a dramatic change in the resource base is established. Either a new set of artificial attractions is created or a previously unexploited natural resource is utilized.

Island Communities and the Impacts of Tourism Development

Local community is the basic element of modern tourism development (Aref, Gill and Aref, 2010) that play an important role in providing accommodation, food, information, transport, facilities and services for tourists (Godfrey and Clarke, 2000). The word community is derived from the Latin word '*communitas*'. Mitchell (1968, p. 32) defines community as follows:

"People who occupied a geographical area; people who were together engaged in economic and political activities and who essentially constituted a self-governing social unit with some common values and experiencing feelings a belonging to one another. Examples are as a city, town, a village or parish..."

The definition pinpoints that the concept of community is endowed with demographic, geographic, economic and political dimensions which leads the community to rule itself as an autonomous social unit (Rahman, 2010). This autonomous social unit is strengthened by common values and experienced feeling of belongings. Historically, local community had started to involve themselves in tourism activities since immemorial time (McIntosh, Goeldner and Ritchie, 1995) although their involvement in serious and thorough in all aspects of tourism development began about two decades ago (Brohman, 1996). In addition to that, local community participation in tourism has been regarded as a positive force for change and catalyst towards the development (Claiborne, 2010). Notwithstanding to the community involvement, Kreag (2001) argues that tourism can provide either positive

or negative impacts which differ among communities. Thus, it is vividly shown that tourism impacts on local community encompass economic, social, cultural, ecological, environmental and political forces (Singh et. al, 2003).

Social Impacts on Local Island Communities

Undeniably, tourism development affects the local community under the social outlook. As most of local people are absorbed into various sub-sectors in the tourism industry, the social impacts are conspicuously vital to be observed in order to learn tourists' behaviour and lifestyle. According to Butler (1980), there are a variety of positive social impacts on destination community that may include improvements in social services, transportation and recreation facilities, cross-cultural communication as well as improvement in the quality of life. Based on a study by Nillahut (2010), other positive impacts might be changes in values and customs, cultural exchanges, greater tolerance of social differences that will consequently strengthening mutual understanding between local community and tourists.

However, on the negative side, Nillahut (2010) views four facets of impacts regarding:

1. Value system and manners (affect the identity of indigenous which is changes due to tourism occur in community structure, family relationship, morality and ceremonies);
2. Cultural clashes (differences in religious groups and cultural ethnicity, value and lifestyle, levels of prosperity and language and these cause conflict);
3. Physical influences (the problems come from using natural resource such as water, environmental degradation, energy and increasing infrastructure costs for the local community); and
4. Ethical problems (increase in drinking, alcoholism, gambling and creating underage drinking as well as increased of crime, drugs, prostitution and sex trade is disturb well-being of community).

Economic Impacts on Local Island Communities

The economic impact of tourism is the most generally studied realm of tourism under the span of community (Mason, 2003) whereby research on this area is easier to assess due to limited boundary. The most immediate and direct benefit of tourism development is the creation of jobs and the opportunity for people to increase their income and standard of living in their society. Few scholars (e.g. Brunt and Courtney, 1999; Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004) concur that local residents may welcome some of the changes caused by tourism such as employment and businesses opportunities, income improvement and other related investments. Nevertheless, tourism also brings negative economic impacts for destinations; for instance, the increment of prices in real estate property, goods and services (Tatoglu et. al. 2000; Marzuki, 2009; Brida et. al., 2011).

Undoubtedly, tourism contributes significantly to the local community from the economic angle. For example, Cooper et al. (1998) advocate that tourists spend their money for a variety of services and goods during their travel at the destinations such as transportation, accommodation, food and beverages, entertainment, souvenirs and travel packages. In addition to opportunity costs incurred, these incomes will entirely benefit the host residents either directly or indirectly. Apart from that, the development of tourism can benefit livelihood of local community based on the

improvement of tourism-linked service sectors, i.e., transportations and communications, water supply, energy and health services (Jashveer et al., 2011).

Methodology

This study uses the qualitative method to explore on how the local community cope and perceive the economic and social impacts towards the swift development in Pulau Pangkor since 1990s. In-depth semi-structured interviews were used to identify impacts which affect residences' opinions and perceptions on the existing tourism industry as well as their expectations and anxieties of increasing tourism development. This paper describes the results of research focusing on the socio-economic impact of tourism development on the island communities. In this study, local community in Pangkor Island were interviewed to obtain their views on the positive and negative impact on economic and social aspects. The respondents are the Headman of Pulau Pangkor, a businessman, a business woman and a taxi driver.

This research focuses on Pangkor Island as a case study since this island has been referred to be declining in popularity due to its close proximity with the mainland and over exposure to the constant pressure of tourists of all kinds. This study focused on two main attraction areas in Pangkor Island, which are Pasir Bogak and Teluk Nipah. The selection of these two locations is owing to their rapid development and these places have become a principal place of tourist activities in Pangkor Island. Amongst the questions posed to the respondents during the interviews are as follows:

1. How is the development of tourism in Pangkor Island nowadays?
2. How about the economic and social conditions before the island was developed?
3. What are the perceived economic and social impacts towards the island population after such development?
4. What are the initiatives taken by local authority and government to improve standard of living of local community in Pangkor Island?

Analysis

Apparently, the results from in-depth interviews produced two main themes indicating that respondents are depending on the tourism to support their lives. Based on the findings, local community emphasized more on positive impacts on the economy, while social geared towards negative impacts. Prior to that, there is a need to further elucidate on the growth of tourism development in Pangkor Island in order to get vivid comparison from the beginning stage until current phase.

The Tourism Development in Pangkor Island

The Pangkor Island is a small island with a total land area of about 8 sq km and inhabited by 30,000 islanders. Pangkor Island has been heavily promoted as a low-key tourist destination by the Malaysian government, but fisheries and fish products remain the major industries. Pangkor is endowed with historical heritage. Back in the 17th century, the Dutch built a fort in an effort to control the Perak tin trade. In 1874, it was the location of a historic treaty between a contender to the Perak throne and the British government (The Pangkor Treaty), which began the British colonial domination of the Malay Peninsular.

Nowadays, the entire Pangkor is accessible by taxi. It is famous for its fine beaches and a mix of low budget to 5-star accommodations. Teluk Nipah, Coral Bay and Pasir Bogak are some of the most attractive beaches available on the island. Pangkor Laut, a smaller island of Pangkor, is equipped with a world class resort, owned and managed by the Berjaya Group. Tourist arrivals are also subject to seasonality. The peak period coincides with the school and public holidays and festive seasons. Nevertheless, the island is not much affected by the monsoon; hence it is quite safe for tourists to visit the island at any times of the year.

However, tourism development in Pangkor is less progressive rather than other islands in Malaysia. At Pangkor, only ten percent area was developed from the whole area of Pangkor Island (including the Pangkor Laut). Besides that, as mentioned by Mohamed et al. (2006), Pangkor Island recently, has been declining in popularity due to its close proximity with the mainland and over exposure to the constant pressure of tourists of all kinds.

Tourism development has affected the development of the economy, especially Pangkor Island community. In the early development of Pangkor Island around 1980's, there are 70 percent of the community involved in the fisheries sector. After the development of Pangkor Island, the communities in the study area are economically depending upon fisheries activities. According to the headman of Pangkor Island, there were 20-30 percent of the local populations involved in the fisheries sector (both deep-sea fishing and traditional one). They are concentrated in the Teluk Gedung Village, Sungai Pinang Kecil Village and Teluk Dalam Village. However, since it experienced rapid development in 1990's, the economy of local community is augmented scrupulously and provides a wider job opportunity. Apart from fishing, the community of Pangkor Island also works as taxi drivers and small business operators. According to the taxi driver, most of taxi drivers are Malays against Chinese with actual ratio of 60:40. Based on the in-depth interview, the result shows that among spots for tourist attraction in Pangkor include Teluk Nipah, Pasir Bogak and Pangkor Laut. These are the main visited areas due to the provision of food, accommodation and convenient infrastructure to meet tourist facilities.

Economic Impact of Tourism Development

Among the positive impacts on the economy of the community is expressed through their explanation that tourism creates many job opportunities and increases their income. As commented by the headman of Pangkor Island:

“Within 15 years, Pangkor Island has developed substantially based on tourism sector. Initially, 80 percent of communities at Pangkor Island are fishermen...but when the tourism took place, hotels were developed and subsequently generate employment opportunities for local community. Now, most of them are involved in the field of hospitality, small businesses, as well as public and private sector. Small-scaled businesses like souvenir shops, clothing and marine-products operators grow like mushrooms after the rain”.

Further interview with local community reveals that:

“This job (taxi driver) is our main source of income. Apart from making a living, we have sent our children to university from this source of earnings too”.

“Income during school holidays can reach until RM 200.00...so, the expenses can cover the tyre or other maintenance costs”.

“These two years, the government seems to take an action with the development of new building that comprises stalls and shop-lots for existing retailers”.

“All activities here are depending much on tourism, whereby 70 percent of the activities are controlled by Malays”.

(Taxi driver, Teluk Nipah)

Tourism development also spurs the entrepreneurial ability of local community in Pangkor Island as mentioned by our next respondent:

“Here, in Pangkor Island, the Malay community is getting advanced and 'open-minded'...where we have starting small businesses to capture the fast-paced development. Previously, around 6 people are doing businesses, but now the situation has changed because of tourism development. Currently, we have about 30 local operators in the fields of tourism and hospitality”.

“Most of local women make cakes and cookies to be sent to the hotels nearby”.

(Clothing shop operator, Teluk Nipah)

The respondents acknowledged the contribution of tourism sector as their income sources; nonetheless some of them admitted the negative impacts of tourism development experienced by the local community of Pangkor Island. Their explanations are described as follows:

“Comparatively, cost of living becomes higher due to the substantial prices increment of goods as Pangkor Island was promoted widely and globally”.

“The total of fishermen is deteriorating because Chinese 'towkays' prefer to hire foreign workers...so; local fishermen had to move on by themselves. Owing to that situation also, some of the fishermen are currently jobless, because they lack skills in other fields whereby other hindrances like capital problems made them stop from being a fishermen. In fact, we (taxi drivers) are also affected...we have to compete with Illegal and non-licensed operators that charged lower than us. Actually, this scenario impedes our daily revenues”.

(Taxi driver, Teluk Nipah)

“The main employment sector in Pangkor Island comes from fishing industrial-based...basically it consists of traditional and deep-sea fishing activities. Most of Chinese 'towkays' recruit foreigners from Thailand and Myanmar. When such condition occurred, local fishermen try to find other jobs. At the same time, in these 2 or 3 years, there was an unlicensed transport activity which involves car rental, but the activity is under-controlled. They are pros and cons of this activity, by which in term of economic support, it can increase the income of the people (especially the owner of car rental company)...it can also bring back tourists to Pangkor”.

(Headman of Pangkor Island)

“The cost of living is high. We (local community) spent RM 500.00 for 2 weeks. Goods nowadays are very expensive and needs around RM 1000.00 per month. Here (Pangkor Island) is a seasonal business, most profits in December whilst other months accounted lesser returns”.

(Clothing shop operator, Teluk Nipah)

Universally, for the majority of tourism enterprises, seasonality is a fact of life as well as a key factor affecting their performance (Baum and Hagen, 1999; Butler, 2001; Lundtorp et al., 1999).

Social Impact of Tourism Development

According to the interview with the headman of Pangkor Island, the main social impact that can be seen is drug abuse especially in the fishing village. The problem involves those who are working in the fisheries sector as a sole marine activity in the island. To aggravate the situation, the social problems have certainly increased the number of sea and road accidents as well. Apart from that, there were students or adolescents who involve in crimes such as vandalism, truancy, glue sniffing and theft.

In this area, truancy issues are caused by the influence of peer-pressure. In reality, a lot of local teenagers work at night to earn side income. A number of part-time jobs are available particularly in restaurants, hotels and chalets, souvenir shops and others. Students' thinking is confined with their poor mentality, i. e., no goals in life to be pursued which lead them to become less-initiative in order to achieve success and compete with others. Above and beyond, as a result of economic problems and narrow thinking, the local community is hampered to send their children for additional classes or tuitions. With these circumstances, concerted plans by the government will be difficult to be achieved in Pangkor Island. The explanations below support the negative social impacts rendered:

“Social issues are common in all areas. The criminals are less, but theft cases still exist in this area. In terms of social freedom, the lives of these youngsters are less exposure rather than teenagers at mainland (e.g. Lumut). Truly, they are not similar; they were grown up without specific goals for the future”.

(Taxi driver, Teluk Nipah)

There are two possibilities of explaining this situation that might conceivably exacerbate the conditions.

“Their presence (tourists) interfere the moral value of local teenagers with their bad habits and manners”.

(Clothing shop operator, Teluk Nipah)

“Most parents work as fishermen, so their attention on children development is lessen...in the meantime, such issues emerged when foreign cultures brought by international visitors seem to permeate into local cultures and lives...on the other side, Malay people pay less concern on their children's education; perhaps because of dogmatic thinking or maybe they have financial problems to further onwards”.

(Headman of Pangkor Island)

Initiative Taken by the Government

Due to the problems and issues faced by most fishermen in Pangkor Island, the government through Manjung District Office has outlined a number of actions to be taken in order to diminish and stabilize the economic and social aftermaths of local community. To improve their living standards, the government has been providing assistance to the Malay fishermen to buy new boats and engines. Furthermore, a fund of provision has been granted to small and medium entrepreneurs in order to

encourage the small business activities though the location remains as the main obstacles.

“So far, 69 people have received assistance from the Ministry of Rural Development. In collaboration with AgroBank, government will also provide for boats to support the traditional fishermen. Some traditional fishing boatmen will be identified to lead the boat and find members per boat”.

“Unforgettably, for new traders who want to venture into business, they will be given RM1000.00 as a supporting finance to start a business”.

“Besides that, hospital will be built in this island to fulfil the needs of tourists who convene many beneficial activities such as camping and seminar. The construction of this hospital shows the effort of government to attract local and foreign tourists into Pangkor Island. The crucial aim of government is to make Pangkor Island as tourist attractions as well as improving the economic and social performance of local community”.

(Headman of Pangkor Island)

Discussion & Conclusion

Brohman (1996) advocates tourism as an industry that can bring changes and development in an area. The result from in-depth interview shows that tourism development creates a variety of positive and negative impacts towards the development of local community. While it receives mix perceptions from the residents for both economic and social side, Jurowski et al. (1997) found that the perception of tourism impacts is a result of assessing benefits and costs whereas evaluation is influenced by residents' values.

Among the positive impacts of tourism development to local community are the creations of job opportunities based on nature-island tourism as well as the establishment of entrepreneurship discourse. The development is indirect effect to generate income in particular to the local population (chiefly for new and younger generation). Tourism development opens more prospects to local community to explore and learn apart from depending on fishing activities only. This is because the scope of work as fishermen has economic tides of seasonality and competition from foreign fishermen, despite the fact that other sectors of tourism are steadily growing.

Yet, although tourism has brought huge benefits, it also engenders negative impacts to local community. This kind of consequences is depending on the extent to which an area is developed. The negative impacts due to tourism development are more focusing on social problems that involve local community especially teenagers. Even if tourist arrivals are seen to enjoy the nature and get knowledge and experience of community cultures, but they can indeed contaminate and spoil the residents' traditional culture. Teenagers are easily influenced because they have not been able to think on the pros and cons of this 'new' culture whereas some of the values are totally different to our culture as eastern community.

Generally, tourism is considered as a potential industry in providing employment opportunities to local residents and promoting entrepreneurship among local communities (Walkins and Allen, 1998). In a nutshell, local community has to accept the positive and negative impacts of tourism development. To that extent, Din (1997) and Lele (1991) argue that the process of development must embody local participation if it should succeed, even in the short run. Nonetheless, McIntyre et al. (1993) expound that local community must organize themselves at all levels to play a

more effective role in development and interact with government and role-players. Thus, local communities should play proactive role to ensure positive benefits from tourism (Kepe, 2004).

Therefore, as a conclusion, local community should determine the level of tourism development and proposed the acceptable level of carrying capacity needs for the island. It is also significant to preserve the Malay culture as majority of the population are Malays. The initiative has to come from local community as they are the one who will feel the impact of the development. Eventually, government should think the ways to alleviate the burden of locals in order to leverage the development of tourism in Pangkor Island for them to lead a prosper and harmony lives.

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Malaysia Island Development At The Marine Park: Impact To The Coral Reef

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Island tourism is one of the fastest growth sectors in Malaysia. Islands in Malaysia are famous around the globe with its beautiful nature, culture and sparkling blue seawater. Malaysia boasts some of the most beautiful islands. An amazing number of these natural treasures lay nestled in tranquil bays and coves. Beneath the aquamarine waters lies a fascinating world of coral and marine life waiting to be discovered. Island development in Malaysia started to be developing tremendously due to the high number of tourist arrival to the island. Many hotel, resort and chalet had been built by the investor and the government agencies. Natural areas were explored when tourism development had been carried out. These physical developments come with tourism activities which led to the some impacts and challenges to the coral reef. The main objective of this paper is to examine the environmental impact of island development in Malaysia focus on the coral reef and to find which activities of development affecting coral communities. This preliminary study had been conducted by collecting all the possible secondary data from various sources like Department of Marine Park, Department of Survey and Mapping Malaysia (JUPEM) and Ministry of Tourism Malaysia. This pilot study is crucial for first step of conservation action and can benefits all parties in tourism sector, from hosts to tourists, authority body, researchers and many more.

Key words: island tourism, development, impact, environment, Malaysia

Introduction

According to the Department of Survey and Mapping, Malaysia, there are a total of 878 islands and 510 offshore geographical features in Malaysia (JUPEM, 2011). Tourism developments on the island are influenced by various factors. It depends on the size of the island, resources, physical character, land uses, policies and strategies by the authorities. The increased number of visitors has lead to the tremendous island tourism development and human/ tourists activities. The uncontrolled activity of tourism development and increasing number of tourists' arrival to the island are the main reasons of negative impacts on the coral reefs. Some of the islands in Malaysia

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are gazetted as Marine Park. This is because of the advantage of the nature that the marine parks have compared to the other islands.

Marine Park in Malaysia

A Marine Park is defined as a sea area zoned area formed as a sanctuary for the protection of marine ecosystems especially coral reef and its associated flora and fauna, like the sea grass bed, mangrove and the seashore (Hiew, 2000). There are about 42 Island in Malaysia gazetted as Marine Park under the jurisdiction of Department of Marine Park Malaysia, Ministry of Natural Resources and Environmental.

Marine Park locations in Malaysia

Table 1: Malaysia's 42 islands gazetted as Marine Parks

State	Gazetted Marine Park	State	Gazetted Marine Park
Kedah	Payar Island Kaca Island Lembu Island Segantang Island	Johor	Goal Island Harimau Island Mensirip Island Hujung Island Tengah Island Besar Island Rawa Island Tinggi Island Mentinggi Island Sibu Island Sibu Hujung Island Aur Island Pemanggil Island
Terengganu	Perhentian Kecil Island Perhentian Besar Island Susu Dara Island Lang Tengah Island Redang Island Lima Island Ekor Tebu Island Pinang Island Yu Kecil Island Yu Besar Island Kapas Island Tenggol Island Nyireh Island	Pahang	Chebeh Island Seri Buat Island Sembilang Island Tioman Island Tulai Island Labas Island Tokong Bara Island Gut Island Sepoi Island
W.P Labuan	Karuman Island Rusukan Besar Island Rusukan Kecil Island		

Source: Department of Marine Park, 2012

Conservation Charge

Visitors to Marine Park of Malaysia are required to pay Conservation Charge. This is consistent with Fee Act 1951, Fee Order (Marine Park Malaysia) 2003. All Conservation Charge collection will be credited in Marine Park and Marine Reserve Trust Fund. The Trust Fund is used for management purposes of the Marine Park Centres and to provide basic facilities for the tourists at the Marine Park Centres.

Number of Visitors to the Marine Park from year 2001 to 2011

Table 2: Number of Tourist Arrival

Year	Type of visitor	Kedah		Terengganu		Pahang		Johor		Total	Grand Total
2000	Local	19,944	106,780	43,390	52,634	72,383	200,589	44,824	63,226	180,541	423,229
	Foreigner	86,836		9,244		128,206		18,402		242,688	
2001	Local	38,027	127,541	65,539	73,580	127,675	243,052	27,963	39,948	259,204	484,121
	Foreigner	89,514		8,041		115,377		11,985		224,917	
2002	Local	56,259	133,775	56,263	64,304	127,675	228,600	27,235	38,908	267,432	465,587
	Foreigner	77,516		8,041		100,925		11,673		198,155	
2003	Local	44,291	114,684	71,654	79,217	128,676	172,787	10,016	14,384	254,637	381,072
	Foreigner	70,393		7,563		44,111		4,368		126,435	
2004	Local	36,282	135,272	111,225	142,476	184,238	249,025	24,444	33,089	356,189	559,862
	Foreigner	98,990		31,251		64,787		8,645		203,673	
2005	Local	19,607	94,099	98,863	123,159	77,570	167,761	32,440	44,861	228,480	429,880
	Foreigner	74,492		24,296		90,191		12,421		201,400	
2006	Local	26,043	112,648	93,546	135,098	104,602	215,936	41,210	56,333	265,401	520,015
	Foreigner	86,605		41,552		111,334		15,123		254,614	
2007	Local	24,580	110,629	112,844	151,397	73,688	149,000	51,558	66,656	262,670	477,682
	Foreigner	86,049		38,553		75,312		15,098		215,012	
2008	Local	23,298	96,071	129,532	151,824	124,673	191,929	41,199	68,664	318,702	508,488
	Foreigner	72,773		22,292		67,256		27,465		189,786	
2009	Local	25,454	102,866	99,434	170,126	105,867	194,392	38,025	63,374	268,780	530,758
	Foreigner	77,412		70,692		88,525		25,349		261,978	
2010	Local	26,429	96,097	130,174	216,404	170,580	233,923	35,839	59,731	363,022	606,155
	Foreigner	69,668		86,230		63,343		23,892		243,133	
2012	Local	25,410	97,572	109,331	207,709	121,660	212,680	40,185	66,973	296,474	584,934
	Foreigner	72,162		98,378		91,020		26,788		288,700	
Grand Total		1,328,034		1,567,928		2,459,674		616,147		5,675,549	5,971,783

Source: Department of Marine Park, 2012

The increasing number of visitors to Malaysia's marine parks indicates that there is a growing trend in recreation related to coral reefs and that marine ecosystems are prone to mounting anthropogenic stress (Teh and Cabanban, 2007). Negative impact from tourism occurs when the level of visitor use is greater than the environment's ability to cope with this use within the marine parks' limits of acceptable change or carrying capacity (Hardin, 1977).

Coral Reefs

Coral reefs are underwater structures made from calcium carbonate secreted by corals. Coral reefs are colonies of tiny living animals found in marine waters that contain few nutrients. Most coral reefs are built from stony corals, which in turn consist of polyps that cluster in groups. The polyps are like tiny sea anemones, to which they are closely related. Unlike sea anemones, coral polyps secrete hard carbonate

exoskeletons which support and protect their bodies. Reefs grow best in warm, shallow, clear, sunny and agitated waters. The coral community is really a system that includes a collection of biological communities, representing one of the most diverse ecosystems in the world. For this reason, coral reefs often are referred to as the "rainforests of the oceans." (EPA, 2012)

Marine Park Act

Marine parks are currently being promoted, developed and managed by the Marine Parks Section in the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (NRE). Marine Park Malaysia is endorsed by law under the Section 41- 45 Fishing Acts 1985. This Act is to protect the marine life from any kind of problems related to island development and activities in or surrounding the island. There are other act related to the Marine Park which are Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Act 1975, Establishment of Marine Parks Gazette 2012, Malaysia Marine Parks Act Validation Fi Year 2004 and Act 1951 of Fee Fi Marine Park Malaysia Year 2003. Marine Park in Malaysia is like Pulau Redang and Pulau Perhentian in Terengganu, Islands of Payar in Kedah, the islands of Tioman in Pahang and islands of Pulau Tinggi in Johor. These are among the best Marine Park in Malaysia which are the numbers of tourist coming in are very high and it have best island tourism development.

Island Tourism Development

Development of Tourism Infrastructure

Island in Malaysia especially Marine Park receives impacts through construction of tourism facilities and infrastructure. The tourism developments create an economic spill over not only to the areas of the island but also to the State and the country as well. Government authority under the Eastern Corridor Economic Region (ECER) had planned to boost up the area of Mersing where it will be developed to emerge as an important mainland coastal tourism destination. It will be the gateway to the Mersing group of islands consists of Pulau Besar, Pulau Rawa, Pulau Aur, Pulau Sibul and Pulau Pemanggil (The Star, July 24, 2011). Under the 10th Malaysia Plan, the government allocated RM27 million to upgrade tourism infrastructure like in the Pulau Pangkor, Pulau Sibul and Pulau Duyong. The Government offer many opportunities for local governments to promote their natural environments to visitors or tourists.

Tourism sector has been identified by the Performance Management and Delivery Unit (Pemandu) amongst the twelve National Key Result Areas (NKRAs) which are national priority areas of focus identified under the Government Transformation Programme (GTP). For the island tourism sector, some strategies had been set up to promote island tourism in Malaysia. The strategies set up by the Northern Corridor Economic Region (NCER), Langkawi Island and Penang Island will be enhanced to attract high-end tourist and to increase per capita tourist spending and also the size of tourism industry in the Region. In 2011, Langkawi Tourism Blueprint 2011-2015 had been launched by Prime Minister, YAB Dato Najib Tun Abd Razak. The aim of the blueprint is to be to in the list of 10 islands and destinations of the world's top eco-tourism by 2015. These kinds of strategies are to promote and attracted tourist to the Malaysian Island other than to protect the environment. Eastern Corridor Economic Region (ECER) also promotes island

tourism development. The area of Mersing in Johor State had been development as a gate way to the island like Sibul and Tinggi Island. This will attracted tourist and investor to invest in the area of Mersing.

Tourism Activities

Tourism development on the island is tremendously happened in all islands in Malaysia. It is due to the increase number of tourist coming into Malaysia and spent their holiday on the island. The uncontrolled diving and snorkelling activities at the area will affect and give threat to the marine life especially the coral reef (Tatsuki, Tomoko, Takeshi, 2007). Almost all popular islands in Malaysia like Sibul Island in Johor, Pangkor Island in Perak, Langkawi Island in Kedah, Tioman Island in Pahang, Perhentian Island in Terengganu and Sipadan Island in Sabah face the issues of coral problem effect from scuba and diving activity. The increase number of tourist who loves to scuba diving or snorkelling without proper guidance from the expert also will destroy the nature of coral reef in the Island. Tourism impact may also be one of the major reasons for the decrease of live coral coverage in the Peninsular Malaysia (Badaruddin et al., 2004).

Coral Reef Impact

Effect of Land Development on Coral Health

Sedimentation is one of the main problems resulting from Tourism development. Tourism development and opening of new area on the islands has resulting the sedimentation issues. Resorts and hotel had been built on the islands to cater the rising number of tourist. The development of tourism infrastructure and facilities such as roads, airports, golf and marinas can also be linked to over-development activities on the marine parks. For example, development of marinas can cause changes in currents and coastlines indirectly harming the coral reefs.

In term of development activities, various characteristics of the marine parks are not considered by the developers. Some of these islands are in a small, for example Perhentian Island which is only 15 sq km in size and yet is one of the major island ecotourism destinations in Malaysia with the most number of chalets and resorts. Some of the islands have also experienced the mushrooming and growth of small resorts from over the time, especially in Pasir Panjang and Teluk Dalam area in Redang Marine Park. The island development has led to sedimentation impact on the coral reefs. Sedimentation at high concentrations can destroy the coral reef, decrease water visibility and discourages the number snorkelers and divers in the long term to dive or snorkelling in the island or Marine Park.

Over the last decade, 15% of the world's reefs have been lost; a further 30% of reefs are severely threatened. Sadly, we are the main contributors to their decline. The damage to reefs caused by occasional natural phenomena is far outweighed by growing human impacts (Reef Check, 2012).

Concluding Remark

Many of the questions surrounding sustainable tourism are closely associated with uncontrolled, unsustainable and mass tourism growth. In the extremes, tourism has contributes to a wide range of issues and impacts, many of which seem insignificant

but in the long run these insignificant impacts can expanded into significant and out of control impacts. Loss of biodiversity, loss of certain vegetation species, pollution and a sense of crowding and noise contribute to ill feelings towards tourism development. In the nutshell, island tourism in Malaysia will keep on growth parallel with the development of the country. It will still keep on survive due to the high number of demand from the tourist and with continuously support from the government and related tourism agencies. All the impact of the island tourism development needs to be view in the positive way in order to have good practices island tourism. All tourism development in the island need to be develop in a good and proper way follow all the rules and regulation that had been set up by the related agencies. Sustainable development need to be practices in island tourism development in Malaysia.

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Tourism's Impact On Human Rights: Travel's Best Souvenir A Case Study In Ngwe Saung, Myanmar

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Key findings from this study indicate that individuals of all ages, occupations and ethnic groups from the Ngwe Saung community experienced a positive increase in sustainable livelihood through increased job opportunity and additional income. Livelihood improvements directly impacted human rights to education, health, hygiene, electricity, transportation, freedom of information and religious opportunity. Results show that tourism development reduced poverty significantly, elevating participants from extreme poverty to a level well above subsistence, unattainable without the jobs and income that tourism generated.

Key words: tourism development, human rights, livelihood, poverty reduction

Introduction

This paper was undertaken to understand the potential development opportunities through tourism, and how they can further human rights for the local people in Ngwe Saung, Myanmar. Few studies suggest a positive relationship between tourism development and human rights, yet this case study concludes with not only an affirmative association, but a noticeable reduction in poverty and improvement towards the wellbeing of the local people, despite government involvement.

Myanmar is relatively new to tourism as it did not officially open its borders to tourists until 1996. For a country that hosted only 310,688 tourists in 2010 (Info Burmanie, March 2011, p. 26), the recent travel coverage of the country by everyone in the Western press from *CNN* to *Lonely Planet* to *Travel & Leisure* as one of the world's "in" places to visit in 2012, has positioned the country to a new level of fame (Paquette, 2012). With just under 8,000 hotel rooms in the country suitable for tourists and poor infrastructure, it is questionable as to how Myanmar will keep up with an anticipated two-fold increase in tourists this year ("Burma Tourism Set to Boom," 2012).

Given the amount of anticipated tourists and necessary development to accommodate the influx in visitors, it is necessary to further understand the role that tourism development has on the basic needs, livelihoods and human rights of local communities. Thus, this research provides for a better understanding of the role tourism development plays on furthering human rights' empowerment, and results in

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isolating key factors necessary for success and identifying further areas for exploration.

Methodology

The primary objectives of this research are: (1) To analyze the extent to which tourism has increased employment opportunities and income levels for the local residents of Ngwe Saung; (2) To detail the impact of emerging tourism on the local community's social and economic human rights and (3) To outline how and whether tourism impacts both development and human rights and to explore the relationship between tourism, development and human rights.

Development ingression attests to the idea that the economic benefits provided by the government to businesses and developers can seep down into benefits for the poorer members of society, improving the economy as a whole. This concept of development ingression theory is postulated to better understand the tourism industry in Ngwe Saung for the conceptual framework of this research.

For the methodology of this study and in order to understand the relationship between tourism, development and human rights, a mixed method of both quantitative and qualitative research was utilized. The site chosen for this case study was Ngwe Saung, Myanmar – which only opened to tourism in 2000 and provides a perfect sample of measuring change over a short twelve-year period. Interviews conducted include local authorities, provincial and district hotelier officers, hotel staff, restaurant owners, tour group managers, community leaders, village elders, fisherman, farmers, relevant NGO staff, and local community members living in Ngwe Saung.

Ngwe Saung Beach is located in Western Myanmar in the Ayeyarwady Division, 48 kilometers from the nearest town of Patheingyi. The sub-township of Ngwe Saung has a population of 27,091 people, amongst forty-four villages. There are twenty-one resorts in Ngwe Saung, with a current seventeen in operation as some are still in the process of being built. It is estimated that there are an additional fifteen to thirty guest houses, located closer to the center of town.

Literature Review

In the past several years, there has been a remarkable surge in tourism to developing countries. Arrivals to developing countries accounted for 47 percent of the total international arrivals in 2010 (WTO, 2011). The UN WTO notes that “Tourism has become a major player in the economy of developing countries” (WTO, 2011) and by 2020, it is anticipated that East Asia will overtake the Americas as the second most popular tourist destination in the world (following Europe) (WTO, 2010).

Tourism development in developing countries has been traditionally viewed as a means of promoting economic growth (WTO, 1998) and is extremely important to the economic development of many Third World countries. For example, tourism is a significant economic sector in 11 of the 12 countries that contain 80 percent of the world's poor (Lea, 1988, p. 1) and is the primary source of foreign earnings for the world's 48 least developed countries (WTO, 1998). Tourism accounts for more than twice as much cash moving from rich to poor countries than governments give in aid (WTO, 2010).

In 2010, international tourism arrivals to emerging markets and developing countries amounted to 443 million (Ashley & Mitchell, 2005). In that same year, tourism generated 45 percent of the total exports in services in developing countries.

Tourism is a principal export in over 80 percent of developing countries and the main export of one third of them (WTO, 2010). In some developing countries, notably small island states, tourism can account for over 25 percent of GDP (WTO, 2010).

There is limited substantial research regarding the potential enrichment for tourism in developing countries on the livelihoods of the poor. As stated by the WTO, “Tourism in many developing and least developed countries is the most viable and sustainable economic development option, and in some countries, the main source of foreign exchange earnings” (WTO, 2010). The WTO contests that income generated from tourism seeps down to different groups of society and, as stated by the WTO, “if tourism is managed with a strong focus on poverty alleviation, it can directly benefit the poorer groups through employment of local people in tourism enterprises, goods and services provided to tourists, or the running of small and community-based enterprises having positive impacts on reducing poverty levels” (2010).

The United Nations General Assembly notes the relationship between tourism and poverty alleviation in its 2001 *Global Code of Ethics for Tourism*;

“Recognizing the important dimension and role of tourism as a positive instrument towards the alleviation of poverty and the improvement of the quality of life for all people, the potential to make a contribution to economic and social development, especially of the developing countries, and the emergence as a vital force for the promotion of international understanding, peace and prosperity...” (United Nations General Assembly, 2001).

Tourism development is credited with stimulating employment and investment, modifying land use and economic structure, improving infrastructure, and making a positive contribution to the balance of payments (Cater, 1987). With the creation of infrastructure, accommodation, and tourism-related businesses many employment and entrepreneurial opportunities arise – ones that often do not require high skill levels or training (WTO, 2010). Tourism is an unusual activity in that it brings the consumers to the producers, providing new customers and markets for producers (WTO, 2010). These increases in employment opportunities and income, infrastructure, markets and investment are understood to “trickle-down” and multiply to all citizens in the region where tourism development has taken place. Tourism development can therefore be viewed as an instigator for improving the basic human rights of citizens.

Tourism in Myanmar

Currently more than half of Myanmar, the largest state in mainland Southeast Asia with a population of over 60 million (CIA, 2012), is closed to tourism due to limitations enacted by the military regime because of ongoing conflicts with various ethnic minorities. Within the Ayeyarwady Division, only three cities are accessible to tourists [Patheingyi, Chaungtha (beach), and Ngazun (beach)] out of twenty-nine (CIA, 2012).

Myanmar, although rich in natural resources, is a country plagued by poverty. It has been estimated in past years that generals running the country spend approximately 40 percent of the country’s budget on the military, while most of the people live in poverty and disease (Info Burmanic, March 2011, p. 15). In 2011, Myanmar ranked 149th out of 187 countries and territories in the United Nation’s Human Development Index (HDI), which measures achievements in health, education

and living standards (UNDP, 2011b). Myanmar ranked nearly 20 points below the rest of East Asia and the Pacific's regional HDI average.

Myanmar has been accused of horrific human rights violations, and as a result has suffered from economic sanctions from both the European Union and the United States. Yet, after years of deadlock and stagnation in the country, change is coming at a rapid pace (though still on military terms), as many of these sanctions have been lifted. Since taking office in March 2011 after deeply flawed elections, the new president, U Thein Sein, a former general, has shown 'leanings toward democratization, breaking sharply from the highly centralized and erratic policies of the past' (UNDP, 2011a).

On April 2, 2012, after the National League for Democracy announced that it had won 43 of the 45 parliamentary seats, Ms. Aung San Suu Kyi was enthusiastic and spoke of the "beginning of a new era" in a brief address to a tightly packed crowd outside her party's headquarters (New York Times, 2012).

Measuring Human Rights

Human rights can generally be understood as the fundamental necessities and freedoms that all human beings should have. The specific rights being analyzed, as paraphrased from the three international works that together comprise an international bill of rights, are:

1. Right to an adequate standard of living, including adequate food, clothing and housing, and the "continuous improvement of living conditions" (Article 11 of the ICESCR United Nations, 1966).
2. Right to health (Article 12 of the ICESCR United Nations, 1966).
3. Right to education (Article 13 of the ICESCR United Nations, 1966).
4. Right to work, with free choice of employment and favorable conditions while at work (Article 23 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights United Nations, 1948).

These four main areas of economic and social rights were chosen for substantial research given that they hold the largest opportunity for change given the reach of tourism development.

Due to the abundance of different jobs, occupations and skills, the participants were separated into three distinct tiers based on occupational proximity to tourism. The first tier, Tier 1, pertains to individuals employed by hotels and resorts in Ngwe Saung. Tier 2 contains jobs that relate to tourism and are considered to be within the tourism industry, but are outside of direct hotel employment. Lastly, Tier 3 contains the remaining jobs that do not directly relate to the tourism industry. This division of tiers can be seen in the table on the right-hand side. Please note that this division between tiers is utilized throughout the entire data analysis, as the effects of tourism on the lives of the local people are best exhibited through these different groups.

Employment Opportunities and Income Levels

From the data collected it is evident that there was clear job creation and job opportunity for the local people resulting from the establishment of tourism. In this research, occupations within Tiers 1 and 2 comprised of hotel staff, small entrepreneurs and restaurant and guest house workers were created directly for tourism. The total number of new jobs created is estimated at over 2,000 positions. Wages and earnings soared above pre-tourism reported income levels, with average

monthly income levels 71,000 to 194,615 kyat higher than pre-tourism for local fishing and farming occupations. By introducing this new sector, tourism diversified occupations and Ngwe Saung no longer relied solely on agricultural production for income.

Table 1: Occupational Division by Tier

Tier 1	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cook • Hotel Driver • Housekeeper • Hotel Manager 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hotel Receptionist • Hotel Waitress • Hotel Human Resources • Hotel Technician
Tier 2	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shopkeeper • Handicraftsman • Restaurant Owner • Grocery Store Owner 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Souvenir Shop Owner • Taxi/Motorbike Driver • Tour Guide • Guest House Owner
Tier 3	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shrimp factory owner • Housewife • Student • Fisherman • Engineer • Merchant • Health Assistant* • Police Officer* 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Head Monk of Monastery • Pawn Shop Owner • Palm Tree Farmer • Rice Farmer • Animal Breeder • Headmaster of Schools* • Middle School Teacher* • High School Teacher*

*Denotes a government appointed position and is sometimes separated from Tier 3 in analysis

In addition to creating jobs that provided substantial increases in income and furthered opportunities for those who previously could not gain employment, newly created tourism jobs provided opportunity for mobility and upward movement. Each hotel reportedly promoted between 10 and 20 staff per year, with increases in salaries anywhere from 10,000 to 50,000 kyat. Some hotels had monetary incentives and rewarded those employees who stayed with the industry longer, whereas other hotels provided saving schemes and rewards for their employees. Hotel staff noted a 5,000 to 10,000 increase in their wages since tourism first came in 2000, indicating that the industry is growing and paying its employees higher wages than it did just a few years prior.

Data collection revealed that tourism increased wages within the entire village – regardless of industry. Tier 2 shopkeepers reported on average, more than doublings of profit since tourism first arrived. Even more astounding however, were Tier 3 fishermen, who reported a ten-fold increase in the price of prawns due to tourism. These fishermen indicated that their highest sales price for prawns comes from the hotels, to which they happily sell their catch.

Improving Livelihoods through Tourism

What was most unexpected and remarkable from collecting this research, was the extent to which local residents used their income from tourism development to improve their livelihoods.

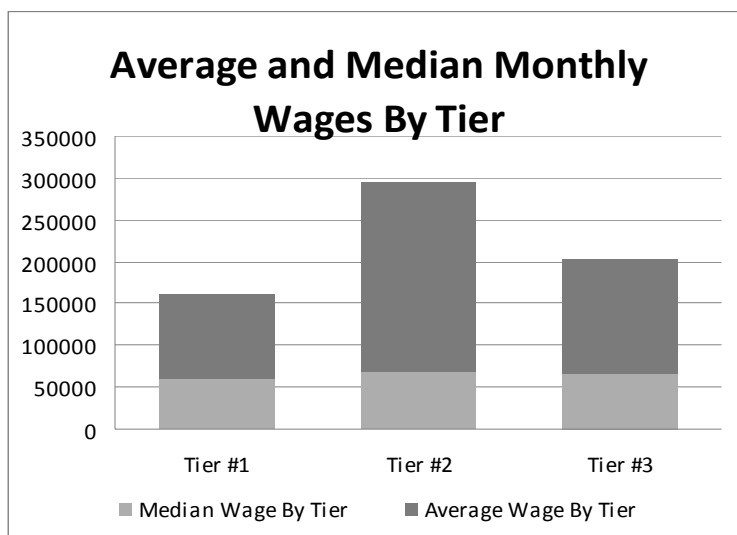


Figure 1: Average and Median Monthly Wages by Tier

Benefits received by local hotel staff, restaurant and guest house workers, and shrimp company laborers were impressive – and far above the national average of employment benefits (Chandler & Thong-Ek, 2012). Nearly all of these workers were provided housing, three meals a day, and medical care. Estimated benefits to hotel staff, restaurant workers, guest house employees and shrimp factory laborers was calculated as a minimum additional 50,000 kkyat per month. As one owner of a shrimp company in Ngwe Saung noted, “We realized we couldn’t compete for workers with the attraction of the hotels – they provided everything for their staff. So we too had to start providing these things in order to attract the higher skill levels for employment.” The tourism industry inordinately raised the standards of employee benefits for the people in Ngwe Saung that extended far beyond the realm of hotels and resorts. For the first time, as every villager interviewed noted, individuals and their families had more income than they needed to sustain themselves, and interestingly, each Tier chose a different way of spending their surplus cash. Tier 1 hotel staff practiced a combination of both saving and/or sending money home as remittance to family members. The average amount of Tier 1’s salaries that were gross savings neared 70%. These gross savings were either net savings or remittances sent back to families. Net savings averaged 20% of income while remittances averaged 48%. The remaining Tier 2 and Tier 3 occupational groups could not save nearly the same amount, because most of them incur housing, food and health care costs –which are provided by the hotels for their staff. Individuals who sent remittances on average sent back almost 83% of their entire salaries, averaging 57,143 kkyat per month. It is evident from these numbers that tourism in Ngwe Saung not only supports local villagers within the town, but affects families who live within the larger geographical sphere of Myanmar.

Tier 2 only saved 2% of their net earnings, but reinvested over one-third of their income back into their businesses. This emphasis on reinvestment was only witnessed within this occupational group and corroborates that micro-entrepreneurs and businessmen were very serious about their profits and improving their businesses. Tier 3 exhibited a combination of savings and debt, depending on the occupation within the group. Gross savings averaged just 15% of income in comparison to Tier 1’s 68% and Tier 2’s 35%. Within Tier 3, debt surpassed 102,000 kkyat, which was more than two times the villagers’ monthly salary. Most individuals in debt were farmers who had a bad harvest, or individuals who had run into trouble with their

illegal businesses (such as selling alcohol and wood), suggesting that many Tier 3 jobs confront uncontrollable risks in their occupations that place a significant strain on maintaining their livelihoods.

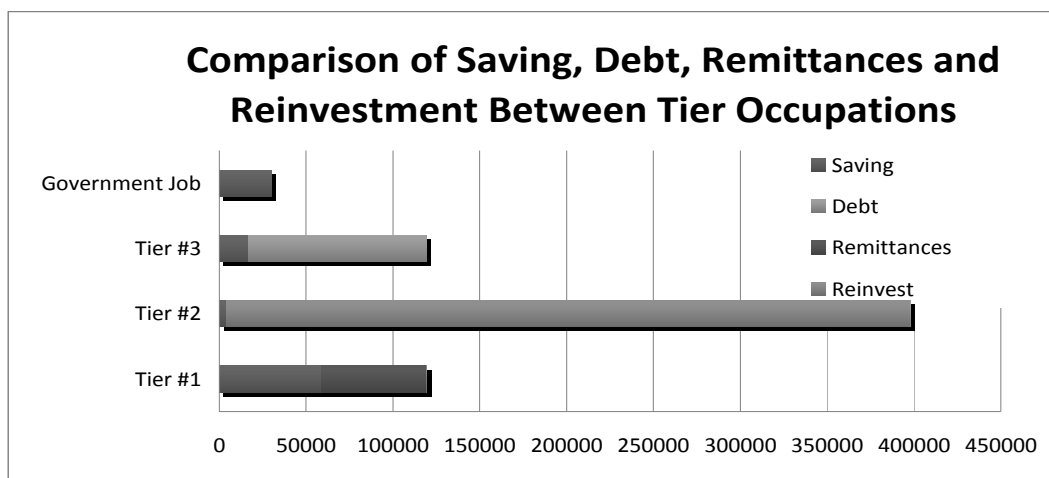


Figure 2: Savings, Debt, Remittance and Reinvestment by Tier

The increase in disposable income allowed for the purchases of motorbikes, electricity, and phones which largely improved communication and transportation channels for business. Individuals noted that through the purchase of mobile phones, they were able to contact distributors and factories to inquire about market prices, and with the purchase of motorbikes, they were able to bring large quantities of their goods to sell in neighboring Pathein and Chaungtha markets.

The access to and ability to save financial capital is often argued as one of the best ways to lift the poor out of poverty (CGAP, 2012). Families across all three tiers noticed increases in the amount of additional money that was generated from tourism. And while most participants mentioned that their money was being saved for education or reinvestment, one hotel cook noted that the *ability* to save has changed his life. “I used to rely on day to day wages and living. When I got sick, I couldn’t afford treatment or medicine. Now, I have set [dependable] wages and can care for myself and my family.” The ability to save has changed the lives and livelihoods of many villagers – who no longer have to live on day to day wages and can save for education, health care, and their next life.

The Influence of Tourism on Local Human Rights

Tourism development provided for substantial improvement in local people’s human rights. These improvements were noted in the right to education, health and hygiene, freedom of movement, water, electricity, and religious expression.

The most compelling data proved that serious advancements had been made in the accessibility and affordability of local education in Ngwe Saung. With the increase in population in combination with financial support from the hotels, Ngwe Saung’s first high school and matriculation exam center were built – providing education through high school to local people for the first time. Prior to this structure, local people had to travel far away to Pathein for high school, which was too expensive for most families to finance. Subsequently, most children did not achieve education levels above middle school and the population was largely uneducated. Yet with the construction of Ngwe Saung’s first high school and exam center, the town is experiencing its highest number of graduates in history. Education centers and schools

were built in neighboring and more remote villages within Ngwe Saung sub-township – further improving access and affordability to those families and students.

With the appearance of tourism and the increase in education centers and opportunities for education, local people changed their mindset and value system regarding investment in education. Over thirty parents interviewed stated that they now invest in their children's education so that their children can "be educated in order to have a good job to have a good life." With tourism, it became understood that education was necessary in order to get a high-level, well-paid position. Thirteen years ago, before any of these educational improvements were instituted, children in Ngwe Saung had relatively little hope of attending high school. With these improvements, there has been a recent commitment to investing in education, which can be witnessed through the extent of tuition fees that parents pay for their children – spending upwards of 40,000 kyat per month per child, and up to 42% of their salaries to achieve better education and test grades for their children.

Lastly, and perhaps most gripping, are the opportunities in education that have already been taken advantage of by the local people and the returns on investment parents are already experiencing. The amount of children who are in school now, seeking high levels of education is much higher than the level of children seeking those same levels in education just twelve years ago. The best indicator of a change in education and a transformation in understanding the importance of education can be witnessed through comparing the education levels of children today versus their parents. It was observed, especially for Tier 3 that over 50% of parents achieved education levels lower than middle school, but were supporting their children through graduating at a high school or university level. While it has only been twelve years since improvements in education have helped change Ngwe Saung, parents have already witnessed "returns" on their children's education investments, through the form of remittances. A few parents noted that they are now reliant on their children's remittances from their jobs in the hotel industry for financial support. The furthering of opportunity, access and affordability in education was felt by the entire local Ngwe Saung community in a large way.

Similar to education, health and hygiene were dramatically impacted with the insertion of tourism. Ngwe Saung received its first hospital in 2005-2006 providing affordable and accessible health treatment to local people for the first time. Tourists and local people attend the same hospital and receive the same treatment which is an immeasurable improvement from traditional medicines previously provided by traditional healers. The government donated medicine and treatments to help the local villagers control malaria and dengue so that tourists would not fear traveling to Ngwe Saung due to disease. With tourism, hotels and migrant workers introduced local people to proper sanitation measures such as toilets, food preparation, and proper personal hygiene. With the benefits that most hotel staff, guest house employees and restaurant workers receive, villagers are entitled to ongoing treatment and vaccination free-of-charge. Through tourism, improvements to the right to health and hygiene were implemented, and local people were, for the first time, able to access and afford these treatments.

In addition to education and health and hygiene, there were many other improvements in social human rights that were a product of tourism development. These rights include infrastructure improvements, which prompted an increase to the right to the freedom of movement and affordable transportation, the introduction of electricity and clean water, and the building of pagodas which provided further religious freedom and access. However, there were also several negative influences of

tourism recorded – mainly in that with tourism, alcoholism, prostitution and karaoke were introduced to the local community and with increases in disposable income, people had different mindsets and value systems than previously.

In concluding the objective of disclosing and discovering the relationship of tourism on local social and economic human rights, it is evident that there were many positive increases in possibility, access, and affordability to education, health and hygiene, transportation, communication, access to information, electricity and clean water, and religious practice. While there were a few negative indicators mentioned, these were relatively small in terms of mention and prominence, and as noted by most participants, certainly do not outweigh the positives.

Defining the Relationship between Tourism, Development, and Human Rights

It is evident from this research that tourism influences both development and human rights, and that there is a relationship between the three. It is evident that this research substantiates that tourism development benefits trickle down into human rights opportunities for the local community in Ngwe Saung and its sub-township and the extent of this seepage is quite impactful.

In the case of Ngwe Saung, the increased income benefits of tourism trickled down from the original hotel developers, to the hotel owners, to the hotel staff, entrepreneurs, store owners and fishermen. Job creation allowed many to seek employment for the first time – especially younger generations such as recent high school and university graduates. Noticeable increases in income have been felt at every level of the village, although those whose business is within the tourism industry certainly see higher levels of this increase in wages. Increases in wages allow for more purchasing power, and local people have purchased electricity, televisions, mobile phones, motorbikes and reinvested in their businesses. Surplus wages also allow families the prospect to save – something that has not been experienced in Ngwe Saung before, and can help prevent serious poverty.

The improvements towards human rights as a result of tourism have been largely witnessed by the local people. Most strongly felt through the erection of the sub-township's first high school, examination center and hospital, due to the growing population of migrant workers employed with the hotels and need for a treatment center for tourists. These developments provided access and affordability to education – which was previously not attainable. Furthermore, these newly built education centers with increased accessibility and affordability were able to educate more students – providing for a more-educated local population.

Infrastructure improvements due to tourism were witnessed even in the remote villages, where rope pulley boats and bridges built to connect local people to the main center of town were constructed, and regularly scheduled buses began running between Yangon, Pathein and Ngwe Saung for the first time. Tourism improved the local villagers' freedom of movement, by improving infrastructure and transportation routes. Villages saw electricity and clean drinking water for the first time, undoubtedly due to the need to bring electricity and safe drinking water into the hotels suitable for foreign tourists, and donations from hotels helped build pagodas for furthering religious freedoms of the local people.

In the case of Ngwe Saung, tourism development trickled down to benefit the local people, and can thus be seen as both an effective tool in development improvements and promulgating human rights for local people.

Poverty Reduction from Tourism Development

In a mere twelve-year time period, drastic changes in poverty reduction due to tourism were witnessed, which indicate a strong relationship between tourism and development.

Currently in Myanmar, it is estimated that 32.7% of the population is below the poverty line (Central Intelligence Agency, 2012). In 2012, the WHO estimates that Myanmar has a national average income of \$1020 USD per capita per year (World Health Organization, 2012), which averages to approximately \$2.80 USD per day. Taking data collected for each occupational Tier in Ngwe Saung, we can see the change that tourism has made, where previously nearly all farmers and fishermen fell directly at or below the \$1.25 USD per day WHO extreme poverty line. Tourism has increased individual income in Ngwe Saung between \$2.60 and \$7.31 USD per day *more* than what they were making before tourism, which is well above the extreme poverty line, and also above the national average income level.

In addition to income levels, several other national estimates can be compared with those recorded in Ngwe Saung. It is estimated that over 78% of Myanmar's rural population is without access to clean and safe drinking water, with more than 88% of the villages in the Ayeyarwady Delta (where Ngwe Saung is located) relying on unprotected, open ponds for their drinking water (Human Development Initiative Extension, 2008). Yet, as this research confirms, villagers in Ngwe Saung, because of tourism, now have safe access to clean and safe drinking water, as provided through wells funded by both the hotels and the government. Ngwe Saung villagers are now amongst the 22% of rural populations that have access to clean and safe drinking water. Likewise, 58% of Myanmar's population does not have adequate sanitation and before 2000, Ngwe Saung was part of the country's 20% rural population that still practiced open defecation (WHO & UNICEF, 2012). But with the entrée of tourism, migrant workers and hotels brought toilets and proper sanitation methods that largely improved the area. Similarly, electricity was introduced to local villagers in Ngwe Saung with the coming of tourism, and local people became part of the less than 20% of the households in Myanmar that have electricity (Johnson, 2012).

Myanmar's national education average is 9 years (UNDP, 2011), which equates to completing a middle school education level. Due to costly school fees, most parents in rural areas cannot afford to send their children to school beyond the primary level. While 85% of children attend primary school in Myanmar, over 40% of those children do not continue on to middle school (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2012). While sub-township educational breakdowns were not available, there is strong indication that with Ngwe Saung's recent building of both a high school and matriculation exam center, more and more students are attending high school and continuing on to university for further studies.

Reflections on Tourism in Ngwe Saung

From this research, a few general suggestions have been made to contribute to further research. While it is impossible to apply the case study of Ngwe Saung to every tourism development project and location, there are several observations worth noting that contributed to ensure the positive results in livelihoods and human rights experienced by the local people. While this list of observations is not exhaustive, it serves to show some of the reasons why Ngwe Saung has been a relative success in tourism development and promulgating livelihoods and human rights of local people.

1. The single most important reason for why livelihoods and human rights improved for the local people is because there was an offering of education that paralleled the offering of job possibilities. This is essential. Local people may not have originally had the skillsets and knowledge to work for the hotels and tourism industry, but the appropriate channels to learn these skills were offered – and clearly utilized. In order to engage local participation and empower local people within these new job prospects, chances to further education and improve skill sets must be offered.
2. It was apparent throughout this research that while there was initial government control, during the past twelve years since tourism has been introduced to Ngwe Saung, there has been little government intervention. This lack of micro-managing and government influence has allowed the town to thrive on its own with many small souvenir shops, restaurants, and grocery stores opened by locals – ensuring that money made from tourism is retained locally and not “leaked” back to the government or foreign units.
3. There was no divide between the hotels and locals, or between the migrant workers and local workers. This positive relationship allowed migrant people to teach local people improvements in sanitation and hygiene, and allowed local people to enter the tourism industry with little difficulty or resistance.
4. By providing benefits to their employees, hotels paved the way for proper employment contracts between their business and their staff. With such large benefits that provide for meals, housing, and health care hotel staff were able to save, reinvest and remit most of their earnings. This was the first time most people experienced the possibility to save – which provided for substantial improvements towards reducing poverty and promoting long-term stability for the local people. The extent to which tourism’s developments, remittances and prevalence went – traced far beyond the township borders of Ngwe Saung, and into other states and divisions in Myanmar.
5. Ngwe Saung did not experience and would not be able to sustain mass tourism. Tourists have come in small, steady and manageable increments since the opening of the town to tourism in 2000. Should there have been an explosion of tourists to the town at one time, or a drastic decrease at one point – the outcome experienced by Ngwe Saung today would not have been the same.
6. The social innovations that were promulgated by the hotel industry were outstanding. The introduction of benefits for employees initiated by the hotels was adopted by other neighboring industries and became standard for other labor occupations (not solely hotels). The welfare system which aimed to provide support for disenfranchised community members was prompted by the hotel association. The building of education centers, health facilities and the sub-township monastery provided further social, educational, health and spiritual opportunities for the local people. And finally, the hotel-provided environmental education community trainings, which raise awareness about the damage tourism can have on coastal landscapes, and engage the community in preventing further destruction of the ecosystem. The hoteliers provided huge visionary guidance on the overall society – providing enormous amounts of leadership and vision.
7. Empowerment versus enablement are two very different concepts often confused in development projects. In the case of Ngwe Saung, the population was not enabled, but empowered to better themselves, their economic situation, and the wellbeing of their family. The prospect to work in skilled labor jobs with tourism and the hotel industry was presented to the community and in addition, the

community was given the avenues necessary to achieve this success – through improved education channels and skills trainings. The community educated and trained themselves academically and vocationally for these new job opportunities.

While these observations seek to isolate some determining factors of success in Ngwe Saung's case study, it must be noted that Ngwe Saung is a unique case study in that it is an isolated region, relatively young in terms of tourism development. Much is left to be developed and determined, and these results may change with time and further development.

Conclusion

The irony of this research is that the basic reason tourism was able to thrive within Ngwe Saung was predicated on the ripping away of a right by the government through the 2000 land grab. While this research highlights most events occurring after this event, it should be noted that this repossession of land created serious difficulties, strife and even death amongst the local people. Land grab can cause internal conflict, worsened and prolonged poverty, and can derail local livelihood sustenance, as witnessed in Ngwe Saung (Oxfam, 2011). The method of land confiscation utilized by the government in Ngwe Saung (where villagers were given little advance notice and no compensation for their land) is not sustainable and is a basic encroachment of human rights.

The most important concept to take away from this research is to understand that tourism can in fact improve basic need and human rights conditions of the local people, if it is utilized in the correct manner. Tourism can be more than a simple souvenir – it can lead to an opportunity for a better life. In the case of Ngwe Saung, job opportunity, transportation, electricity, health, and education infrastructures were improved by the government and surrounding businesses (namely hotels and shrimp factories), which enabled the local people to start restaurant, souvenir, and storekeeper businesses on their own. By providing the local people with the access to greater health, education, electricity, water, and job opportunities, they were able to work hard to lift themselves and their families above the poverty line and into a life with more rights and opportunity.

Lead experts Caroline Ashley and H. Goodwin measuring the extent to which tourism development affects impoverished communities remarked in their policy paper titled *Pro-Poor Tourism: What's Gone Right and What's Gone Wrong*, 'We do not know of any destination where the full range of impacts of tourism development on poverty levels has been rigorously assessed.' It is hopeful that this case study research provides a compelling and thorough analysis of the influence of tourism on the local people's livelihoods and human rights and prompts further analysis in similar fields of pro-poor tourism development.

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Boat Operators Of Kilim Geopark, Langkawi - Profiles, Business Practices And Perception Towards Tourists

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Geopark as a special tourism product has encouraged high-income economy with a lower impact on natural resources. Local community is becoming more involved and actively participating in the development of geopark, thereby taking the opportunity to enhance their social economic activities. The local community engagement and participation in tourism sector is crucial particularly to provide employment opportunities for local residents. Data for this study is gathered via questionnaire administered using census method conducted through postal services on 26 respondents selected from boat operators who registered under the cooperative community Kilim Village Langkawi Berhad in July 2012. The purpose of this study is to evaluate the profile information of boat operators in Kilim Geopark. Subsequent, this study was to examine the business details as well as to analyse the pattern of tourist arrivals at Kilim Geopark. Their involvement as boat operators is seen as a good way to raise living standards and thus reducing poverty among its population. The authorities should take the initiative in developing the tourism industry in the Kilim Geopark without prejudice to the adverse effects on the economy, society and environment. The finding showed the majority of 18 people (85.7%) of boat operators started the business with RM0 to RM75, 000. The study revealed that 10 people (47.6%) of boat operators earned RM1001 to RM2000 monthly income. According to the boat operators, the highest tourist visiting Kilim is in June and November. For the Arab countries, 47.6% of respondents expressed the highest visit in June while 19% of respondent state the highest number of European tourists recorded in January and June. This study also showed 10 people (47.6%) of respondents indicated the concentration of tourist visiting the Kilim Geopark during school holidays. This study concludes that the success of a program to encourage entrepreneurs to venture into business operations should be supported by strengthening the background and their identities, as well as business management skills and leadership.

Key words: tourism development, community involvement, boat operators

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Introduction

Tourism development has reached such a level that it is currently the third major sector in the Malaysia economy. This development is facilitated partly by the various assistances provided by the government. To further facilitate the development of tourism industry in Malaysia, the Tenth Malaysia Plan has also identified tourism as one of the twelve engines of growth for the Economic Transformation Plan (ETP) under the New Key Economic Areas (NKEA). According to Ahmad Shuib & Noor Aziz (1989), there are five main benefits derived from the development of the tourism industry, namely, its contribution to the balance of payments, the development of non-industrial areas, the creation of employment opportunities, the overall increase in revenue to the economy through the multiplier impact, and social development.

This sector continues to be a major source of foreign exchange contribution to the economy which subsequently affects economic growth, investment, and employment. The resilience of this sector is the result of active involvement of public and private sectors in the promotion and marketing, in market diversification and in improving competitiveness of tourism products that attract tourists to Malaysia (Rozniza Aznie et al. 2012). The main focuses of these efforts are to enhance the position of Malaysia as a leading global tourism destination and at the same time to promote domestic tourism. As this industry generates higher multiplier effects in various other sectors, tourism activities will provide a wider platform for linkages with other sectors in the economy (The Ninth Malaysia Plan, 2006-2010).

Continuous efforts have been made that are geared towards realizing the potential of the tourism sector in order to increase its contribution to the economy. From the planning perspectives, it is important to ensure that the ensuing benefits of tourism development contribute positively towards economic development of the country. In turn, the benefits enjoyed from the economic development have a substantial impact on the employment structure of the local communities (Cengiz et al. 2011; Lindberg & Sproule, 1996). To achieve this, a strategy has to be developed to ensure a sustainable tourism development programs that will not deplete nor degrade the various attractions that helps bring in tourists into the country. To achieve sustainable tourism, the local people must participate actively in the transformation process (Okazaki, 2008). According to Habibah Ahmad & Hamzah Jusoh (2008), the involvement of the local communities in the tourism sectors is also crucial to the improvements of the living standards of the local communities.

Langkawi Island has experienced rapid development in the past two decades. Its natural richness, unspoiled bio-diversity and pristine beaches coupled with the declaration of Langkawi as a duty free island in 1987 helps promote Langkawi as one of the leading island destination in the Asia Pacific region. Before 1990, the majority of local communities in Langkawi were employed in agriculture, fisheries, small-scale trade and civil services. Some portions of the society are self-employed especially in various business ventures. The development of the tourism industry and the declaration as a tax free zone status has generated new employment opportunities for the local community that leads to the structural changes in the employment patterns of the local communities which saw a huge number of the local communities involves in the hotel industry, tour guides, boat drivers for the island hopping, restaurant operators, travel agencies as well as car rentals and transportation.

In 2006, Langkawi was accorded a Geopark status by UNESCO. For administrative purpose, the whole of Langkawi is divided into three areas – the Kilim Karst Geopark, the Machinchang Cambrian Geopark and the Dayang Bunting. The

Kilim Karst area is different from the other two areas due to its bio-diversity richness especially its mangrove forest which has several attractions such as eagle and bat caves. To access these attractions, tourists have to take a boat ride provided by the Kilim Community Cooperative Society (KCCS). This paper is intended to highlight the involvement of the tourist boat operators along the Kilim River. The discussion here includes the analysis of the profiles of the boat operators, profiles of their business activities and the tourists' behaviour based on the perception of the boat operators.

Local Community And The Development Of Tourism Activities

Local communities' participation is an important element of tourism development (Tosun, 2000). According to Brohman (1996), participation of local communities in tourism generally refers to empowering local residents to determine their own goals in development, and in consulting with the locals to determine their hopes and concerns in tourism activities. Increase in incomes, opportunities for employment, and education of locals are the most apparent ways in motivating community involvement in the tourism development (Cengiz et al. 2011; Norzaini Azman et al. 2011; Nurhafizah Yusoff & Rahimah Abdul Aziz, 2010; Tosun, 2000).

Tosun (2000), examined the limits to public participation in the decision-making process of tourism development in developing countries despite the benefits of public participation in tourism is not totally ignored although desirability and practicality of the participatory tourism development approach appear to be interrelated, it will become primarily focus on barriers to practicality of applying the community participation. Bahaire & Elliott-White (1999) summarize the various strategies for implementing community participatory approaches to tourism planning and development. It is suggested that community participation should be encouraged through, for example, the establishment of permanent tourism committees or forums, focus groups, attitudinal surveys of the community, the provision of educational materials and public hearings on key planning issues. While such strategies strive to provide inclusive approaches to tourism development, the issue of non-participation remains unresolved (Halimatun Saadiyah Hashim et al. 2010).

Currently, the contribution of the tourism industry in Langkawi reaches approximately 11% of the Kedah GDP and contributing 30% of the workforce in Langkawi. Most of them are employed in hotels, motels and chalets that are abundant in Langkawi while 30% are estimated to be working in the business or employment associated with tourism activities such as restaurants, transport providers, tour guides and retail (Langkawi Development Authority, 2012).

Seasonal factors often influence tourist arrivals to an island destination; for example, tourists will refrain from visiting an island during the monsoon season or during extreme temperatures. In this case, Langkawi are geographically protected from the worst monsoon because of its strategic location in the Andaman Sea (Langkawi Development Authority, 2012).

Langkawi natural richness is a major factor that attract tourist to the islands. In addition to the natural richness, Langkawi has also managed to diversify its attraction. This includes the Mount Machinchang cable car, Underwater World, Langkawi International Maritime and Aerospace Exhibition (LIMA) events and shopping as well as dines at the various restaurants in Pantai Cenang and Prime Quay. All these have enables Langkawi to collect RM1.9 billion from tourism revenues and at the same time attracting approximately 2.5 million visitors comprises of two million

tourists and 0.5 million daily visitors. The majority of tourists came from Europe and Asia; among the largest concentration were from United Kingdom, Australia, Saudi Arabia, China and India. Figure 1 below shows the arrivals of international and domestic of tourists' to Langkawi with the month of January to September. The highest number of tourist arrivals was in June, with a total of 289,568 tourists (Langkawi Development Authority, 2012).

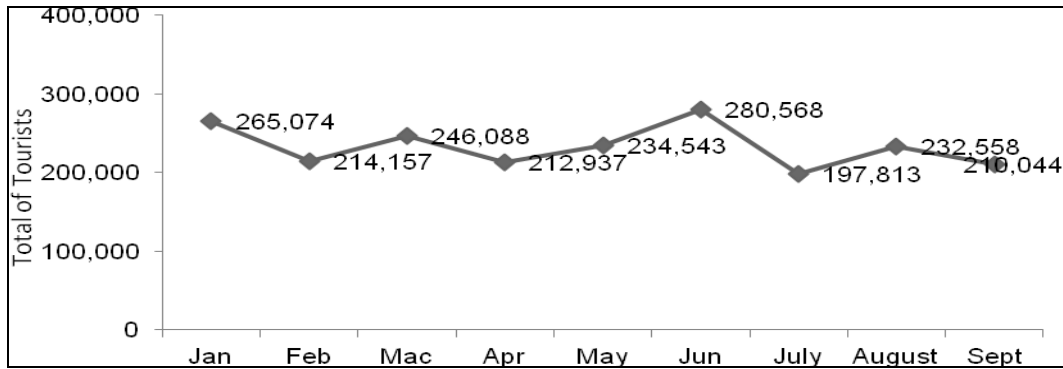


Figure 1. The arrivals of international and domestic tourists, 2012

Source: Langkawi Development Authority, 2012

Small and Medium Industries (SMIs) are among the major catalyst for economic growth in Malaysia. Almost 99.2% of the total entrepreneurs in Malaysia are Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) contributing 32% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Muhammad Ari & Zaimah Darawi, 2012). Recognizing the importance and significant contribution of SMEs to the national economy and in accordance with the government goal to achieve high income status by 2020, the government has provided various supports and assistance to encourage further development of SMEs. These support and assistance provide opportunities for the development of entrepreneurship among the local communities.

In the case of Langkawi, the development of tourism industry has provided an avenue for the development of SMEs among the local entrepreneurships. Being a major tourist attraction in this country coupled with its duty-free status, opportunities are abundance for the local communities in Langkawi to engage in business endeavors either in tourism-related activities or in trade. As local entrepreneurs, they are very well equipped with local knowledge, culture as well as its geographical attractions and heritage. According to Ishak Yussof et al (2011), local participation in the national economy has always been the focus of the national development plan. Policies and strategies were put in place to ensure that local residents are not left behind in the nation's development, particularly in the tourism sector.

The government has given special attention to the Langkawi Island as a leading tourism destination in Malaysia (Halimaton Saadiah Hashim et al., 2010). In addition to its sandy beaches, Langkawi was also bestowed with some unspoilt natural endowment. In view of the sensitive nature of these natural endowments, the Langkawi Global Geopark concept was promoted as a model for sustainable tourism development (Ibrahim Komoo, 2010).

Methodology

This study focuses on boat operators in Kilim as they involved directly in the tourism sector. Data were collected through questionnaires handed out to all 44 boat operators

who are members of the Kilim Community Cooperative Society in July 2012. Out of a total of 44 questionnaires, the researchers received back 21 responses.

The questionnaire consists of three parts namely Part A, B and C. Part A contains questions related to the respondents' personal background. Part B consists of questions associated with their business. Part C is developed to gauge their perceptions of the tourists that visited Kilim Geopark.

Results And Discussions

Results from the above questionnaires is divided into three sections namely (a) the respondents' profile (b) the business profiles (c) the pattern of tourist arrivals in Kilim geopark.

(a) The Respondents' Profiles

Table 1 report four respondents' profiles, namely, age, level of education, the number of children within the family and marital status.

Table 1: Profile of 21 sample respondents

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
15-24	1	4.8
25-44	17	81.0
45-54	1	4.8
55-64	2	9.5
	21	100.0
Level of education		
Primary school	6	28.6
Secondary school	12	57.1
Other	3	14.3
	21	100.0
The number of children within family		
1-3	11	68.8
4-6	4	25.0
7-9	1	6.3
	16	100.0
Marital status		
Single	3	14.3
Married	18	85.7
	21	100.0

As shown in Table 1, 100% of the respondents are man. 81% were in the age group 25 to 44 year old. 12% of the respondents had attended at least the secondary school level, while 6% had completed only the primary education. 68.8% has between 1-3 children and 85.7% had been married.

(b) The Business Profiles

i. No. of boats

The study found that 10 people (47.6%) had operated tour boat operations within the period 2006 to 2010 (Table 2), 6 people (28.6%) started in the period 1996-2000, 4 people (19.0%) started in the period 2001-2005 and only 1 person started in 2011 or later

Table 2: Starting Boat Operations

Years	Frequency	Percentage
1996 - 2000	6	28.6
2001 - 2005	4	19.0
2006 - 2010	10	47.6
2011 or later	1	4.8
Total	21	100.0

In the first year of operations, 20 operators (95.2%) had only one to start with only one respondent (4.8%) started with two boats. Currently, 9 respondents (42.9%) have between 2 to 5 tour boats and one respondent have 14 tour boats as shown in Figure 2.

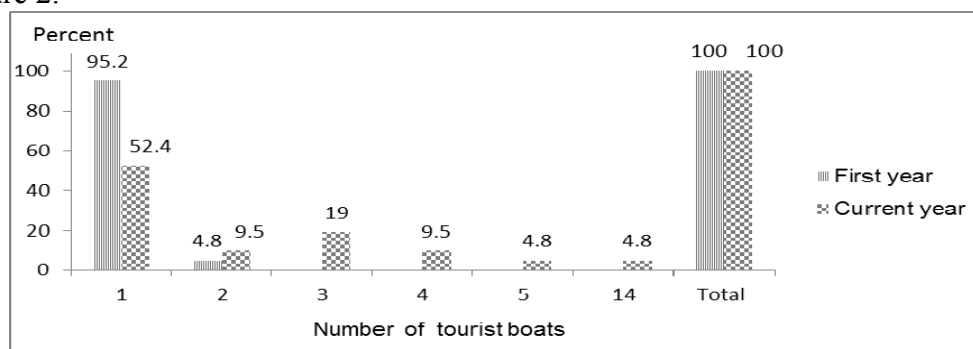


Figure 2. No of boats in the first year and current year

ii. No. of employees

Based on Table 3, a total of 6 respondents (28.6%) operate the boat services by themselves, i.e. they do not employ any assistance. 7 respondents (33.3%) have at least one employee. Two each of the respondents have 2, 3, 4 or 5 and more employees.

Table 3: The number of employees

	Frequency	Percent
No employees	6	28.6
1	7	33.3
2	2	9.5
3	2	9.5
4	2	9.5
5 persons and over	2	9.5
Total	21	100

iii. Involvement of children

Based on Table 4 three respondents (14.3%) involve their children to work with them. This would allow the continuation of the operations in the future.

Table 4: Involvement of children

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	3	16.7
No	15	83.3
Total	18	100

iv. Start-up capital

Capital is indeed one of the most important things in any business endeavors. In this study, 18 respondents (85.7%) started the business with the capital of up to RM75,000. Three respondents (14.3%) started a capital of RM75,000 to RM100,000 (Table 5).

Table 5: Start-up capital

Capital	Frequency	Percentage
RM 0 - RM 75,000	18	85.7
RM 75,000 - RM 100,000	3	14.3
Total	21	100

v. Sources of capital

Based on Table 6 below, only three respondents began the business with their personal savings while the majority started the operation with loans either from family/relative or other agencies. 4 respondents borrowed from family or relatives; 3 from Maybank; 4 from Bank Pertanian; 1 from Bank Islam; 4 from TEKUN and 2 from Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia.

Table 6: Sources of capital

Sources of capital	Frequency	Percent
Saving	3	14.3
Family or relative loan	4	19.0
Maybank	3	14.3
Bank Pertanian	4	19.0
Bank Islam / Bank Muamalat	1	4.8
Tabung Ekonomi Kumpulan Usaha Niaga (TEKUN)	4	19.0
Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia (AIM)	2	9.5
Total	21	100.0

vi. Monthly income

The questionnaire also reveals that 10 (47.6%) of the boat operators earned between RM1001 to RM2000 monthly income. Six (28.6%) boat operators earned RM2001 to RM3000 per month; 3 (14.3%) earned monthly income of RM4001 and above (Table 7).

Table 7: Monthly income

Monthly income		Frequency	Percent
1000 and below	(Very Low Income)	1	4.8
1001 – 2000	(Low Income)	10	47.6
2001 – 3000	(Low Medium Income)	6	28.6
3001 – 4000	(Medium Incme)	1	4.8
4001 and above	(High Income)	3	14.3
Total		21	100.0

(c) Pattern of Tourist Arrivals

The beautiful nature of the Kilim Geopark has been the major attraction for tourist visiting the area. The Kilim Community Cooperative Society provided several packages for the tourist to choose. The longer the duration, the more place can be visited by the tourists. Based on this, Table 12 and 13 provided the boat operators observations of the likelihood of the tourist nationality to take either a one hour trip or a three hour trip.

It shows that (52.4%) of the respondents indicated that tourists from Thailand will normally took the basic 1 hour package, while 7 respondents (33.3%) stated that local (Malaysia) tourist took the same package at the moderate level. For the fewer tourists who take the basic package, only 6 respondents (28.6%) indicated that it consists of Singapore tourist. The basic one-hour package includes bat cave, floating fish farm and eagle feeding.

Table 12: Tourists who take the basic package (1 hour)

Countries	Highest		Moderate		Fewer	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Europe	2	9.5	2	9.5	1	4.8
Arab	0	0	1	4.8	1	4.8
China	2	9.5	3	14.3	2	9.5
Japan	1	4.8	2	9.5	3	14.3
Thailand	11	52.4	3	14.3	3	14.3
Singapore	0	0	3	14.3	6	28.6
Malaysia	5	23.8	7	33.3	5	23.8
Total	21	100	21	100	21	100

For the Kilim Geopark tour, 57.1% of respondents stated that the basic package (3 hour) often taken by European tourists of the Kilim Geopark mangrove tour, while 38.1% of respondents indicated the package was taken by tourists from Arab. 42.9% of respondents also said tourists from China also took the same package (Table 13). Most of the tourists prefer to choose the basic package (3 hour) because it includes bat cave, mangrove swamps, floating fish farm, eagle feeding, crocodile cave, Andaman Sea and round shoe island Dangli Island.

Table 13: Tourists who take the basic package (3 hour)

Countries	Highest		Moderate		Less	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Europe	12	57.1	5	23.8	1	4.8
Arab	8	38.1	8	38.1	1	4.8
China	0	0	1	4.8	9	42.9

Japan	1	4.8	6	28.6	5	23.8
Thailand	0	0			2	9.5
Singapore	0	0	1	4.8	2	9.5
Malaysia	0	0			1	4.8
Total	21	100	21	100	21	100

Preservation of the environment is very important to ensure sustainability of the Kilim Geopark. Table 14 provides the boat operators perception of tourists' consciousness towards the environmental issues. From the boat operators' perspective, 85.7% of European respondents are very concerned about the environmental preservation. While 38.1% respondents stated the Singapore tourists protect the environment at a moderate level and 85.7% of respondents stated the Arab tourists were less concerned about environmental preservation. Boat operators should educate the visitors in respect of preservation and conservation to when visiting the Kilim Geopark. This is important to ensure that eco tourism in the area continues to be preserved without any threat to the environment.

Table 14: The level of tourists environmental concern to Kilim Geopark

Countries	Highest		Medium		Less	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Arab	0	0	0	0	18	85.7
Europe	18	85.7	1	4.8	1	4.8
China	0	0	2	9.5	0	0
Japan	2	9.5	4	19.0	0	0
Thailand	1	4.8	2	9.5	2	9.5
Singapore	0	0	8	38.1	0	0
Malaysia	0	0	4	19.0	0	0
Total	21	100	21	100	21	100

Conclusion

The involvement of boat operators showed a good shift in the tourism sector in Kilim Geopark. An effective communication between the tourist boat operators is one of the factors that attract tourists to visit the Kilim. Besides that, they need to explore new tourism products that can be highlighted as well as an aggressive promotion to attract tourists coming to the Kilim and to revive the present economic activities with diversified concepts that are appropriate for the local community.

In terms of carrying capacity, the number of boat operators should be controlled in line with the environment carrying capacity. It is crucial to give emphasis for the natural resources around the Kilim Geopark and avoid from any degradation. If the environment collapses, then the level of visitor satisfaction will be declined and will result in negative effects on the source of income among the boat operators in the Kilim Geopark.

The background of the boat operators should be supported by both business management and leadership skills. In this context, government and the private sector need to provide the training opportunities and skills to enhance their knowledge and skills in the field of business. In terms of the operators themselves, they need to continuously improve their own attitude in managing the business as well as to enhance efforts to develop their businesses. Government and the private sector need to explore new tourism products that can be highlighted as well as an aggressive

promotion to attract tourists coming to the Kilim and to revive the present economic activities with diversified concepts that are appropriate for the local community.

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Tourism And SME Businesses Opportunity In Lenggong Valley World Archaeological Heritage Site Malaysia

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Tourism and Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) have been proven to have impact on economic country development. In order for tourism to be advantageous in terms of economic development, income earning, poverty diminution, and improving rural livelihoods, it should be associated with the local economic activities. Business activities in tourism or tourism SMEs are typically involved with activities providing demands and needs of tourists such as food, accommodation, transportation and other necessities. The objective of this study is to understand the potential of tourism activities and SMEs businesses opportunity in Lenggong Valley, Perak. The declaration as World Archaeological Heritage Site by United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has opened a huge opportunity for Lenggong Valley to be a world attractive tourism site for its historical value and natural resources. With high level of local community readiness, tourism and SMEs in Lenggong Valley has the potential to be developed. Nonetheless, all the stakeholders must be able to apply appropriate strategy and tactics in order to make Lenggong Valley become a marketable and attractive place for both local and international tourists.

Key words: business activity, small and medium enterprises (SMEs), heritage tourism

Introduction

Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) has been believed to be the backbone for an economic country development. In Malaysia, according to The 2011 Census of Establishment and Enterprise (Census) SMEs accounts for 645,136 or 97.3% of SMEs of total business establishments in the five economic sectors, namely agriculture, mining and quarrying, manufacturing, construction and services as compared to only three sectors which were covered in the census of 2005, namely agriculture, manufacturing and services. The Census results also show that SMEs are a key source of employment compared to large enterprise, providing jobs for over 3.7 million workers and accounting for 52.7% of total employment. Our sixth Prime

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Minister of Malaysia, Dato' Sri Mohd Najib Tun Haji Abdul Razak has also commented about the importance of SMEs (SME Annual Report 2010/11, 2011):

“Against a backdrop of an increasingly competitive environment and uncertain global economic landscape, the small and medium enterprises (SMEs) have continuously demonstrated resilience, perseverance and determination not only to succeed, but to become an important catalyst for Malaysia’s economic development towards attaining the nation’s aspiration in becoming a high-income economy in 2020.”

In a time when large firms had not yet gained the powerful position in 1960s and 1970s, small businesses were the main supplier of employment and hence of social and political stability (Thurik & Wennekers, 2004). Heshmati (2001) supports that SME's play a key role in creating new job opportunities, generation of new ideas, and encouragement of entrepreneurial activity and are major contributor to the well-being of nations. In many aspects, business activities are the backbone for a country's growth and development. Malaysia's New Economic Model (NEM) had highlighted SMEs in a way to increase the turnover of domestic sector. Increasing the entrepreneurship chain and ecosystem are among the initiatives that carried out by government to create a competitive domestic economy.

Other than that, SME in tourism industry also would have a huge impact in Malaysia economic development. United Nations World Tourism Organisation's (UNWTO) has ranked Malaysia at the ninth place in the list of international tourist arrivals, with 24.7 million visitors from all over the world in 2011. World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC) in their Travel and Tourism: Economic Impact 2012 Malaysia Report affirmed that the total contribution of travel and tourism to Malaysia GDP in 2011 was MYR125.4 billion, by which represented 14.8% of GDP. While the total contribution of travel and tourism to Malaysia's employment in 2011 includes jobs indirectly supported by the industry, were 1,559,000 jobs. The contribution represented 12.9% of total employment in Malaysia.

In order for tourism to be advantageous in terms of economic development, income earning, poverty diminution, and improving rural livelihoods, it should be associated with the local economies activities for example the agriculture and micro and small scale enterprises (Mshenga & Owuor, 2009). According to Avcikurt (2003), tourism is conventionally a small and medium- sized enterprises industry as in the fact that a large number of tourist facilities are run by small and medium- sized businesses.

Previous studies that have been focusing on interrelation between tourism and SMEs businesses activities are by Shaw (2004), Seppälä-Esser, Airey & Szivas (2009), Thomas, Shaw & Page (2011), which seem to focus more on hospitality or accommodation service (Mshenga & Owuor, 2009; Morrison & Teixeira, 2004; Andersson, Carlsen & Getz, 2002). Thus, based on the arguments that relate tourism with SMEs, it can be alleged that the success of tourism activities is depending on the micro, small and medium business activities that run in an area. In order to attain government's target to promote Lenggong Valley to the public whether domestically or globally, it is important to understand and observe the tourism activities and SME's in the area. Consequently, the objective of this study is to understand the potential of tourism and SMEs business opportunities in Lenggong Valley, Perak.

Lenggong Valley as a World Archaeological Heritage Site Malaysia

Lenggong Valley located in Hulu Perak has been declared as world heritage site by United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). It is well-known as an archaeology site after Archaeological Research Centre of USM discovered human inhabitation in Bukit Bunuh Lenggong Valley which led to a conclusion that the site has one of the oldest prehistoric settlements in the world. It is believed that Bukit Bunuh was a home for early settler after excavations have discovered a Palaeolithic culture in the area. Another finding of “Perak Man” the oldest human skeleton dates to about 11,000 years before present, discovered in 1991. It was also found in Lenggong Valley, in a cave called Gua Gunung Runtuh. Lenggong Valley has been awarded the “Pre-historic Heritage Town,” indicating its importance as a rich source of natural success, heritage, and culture that has attracted different segments of travellers (PSDSP 2001–2020).

Nonetheless, Lenggong Valley is not only rich with its human civilization findings, but it is also a beautiful location to be visited. Lenggong Valley is surrounded by the greenery of Titiwangsa Ranges and Bintang Ranges which made it as a home for many species of flora and fauna. This area is found to be rich with natural habitat and green with rainforest plants that would definitely pledge unforgettable amazing scenery for tourists. Lenggong Valley is not only full of Tropical Rainforest asset but also nature attractions such as waterfalls cascade and caves. It has several beautiful waterfalls cascade such as Lata Randu and Lata Kekabu. Besides, it also has nearly 20 caves to be explored including the popular caves such as Gua Harimau, Gua Puteri, Gua Kajang, Gua Kelawar, Gua Teluk, Gua Asar.

Besides, Lenggong Valley is also known for its economic activities. The local community produces agro products such as “serunding”, “dodol”, preserved fishes, black paper spices, and also run activities of farming cattle and goats in a small scale which. It is also a home for the largest deer’s far in Malaysia. Lenggong Valley is also popular for its freshwater fish and fish preserved according to local tradition. These economic activities are supported by the local government by which Hulu Perak District Local Plan 2002-2015 had come out with the initiative to develop a concept of ‘one product one village’.

UNESCO declaration has opened a huge opportunity for Lenggong Valley to be a world attractive tourism site. Once Lenggong Valley obtained the title of UNESCO world heritage site, SMEs activities are more than just a way to earn income for Lenggong’s community, moreover the SMEs activities would be the backbone for the development in Lenggong Valley. Besides, this is also an opportunity for Malaysia to develop Lenggong as an attractive tourism site for its historical value and natural resources. Looking at the significant beneficial of nature that happened to be in Lenggong, there is a vast opportunity for tourism and SMEs development. The acknowledgment as tourism attractive site will increase the flow of tourist and therefore would increase income generation for local community.

Literature Review

Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs)

SMEs have been defined in a broad way across countries, with 120 different economies covered all over the world. Certain countries used the term of MSMEs,

while others used the term of SMEs which also explain the Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises. The variables used to define MSME or SMEs commonly include the total number of employees, assets, turnover, capital and investment; and these variables can be differentiated by industry in some cases (Kushnir, 2010).

In order to understand the importance of SMEs, Philip (2010) convince that SMEs induce private ownership and entrepreneurial skills, adjust quickly to the shifting market situations, create employment, vary economic activity, and make a large contribution to exports and trade. Besides, Jenkins (2007) adds that business activities of SMEs generate jobs, develops inter-firm linkages, allow technology transfer, create human capital and physical infrastructure, generate tax revenues for governments, and evidently tender a variety of products and services to consumers and other businesses. Jenkins also adds that each of these contributions has multiplier effects on development. According to Berry, Rodriguez & Sandee (2001), most of developing countries see the significance of SMEs for numerous reasons, such as their capability to grow larger, more productive units; their ability to invest and adopt new technologies; and their ability to adapt to new economic circumstances.

Definition of SMEs in Malaysia

The National SME Development Council (NSDC) which is the highest policy making authority on SME development in Malaysia has grouped Malaysia SME's into three groups which are Micro, Small, or Medium. NSDC also standardize the use of common definition of small, medium enterprises (SME's) in the manufacturing, agriculture, mining and quarrying, construction and services sectors based on two criteria, namely full-time employees or annual sales turnover.

Based on NSDC definitions, micro enterprise in the manufacturing sector is an enterprise with full-time employees of less than 5 people turnover less than RM250, 000. While Micro enterprise in the agriculture, mining and quarrying, construction and services sectors, are the enterprise with full-time employees of less than 5 people, and having sales turnover less than RM200, 000. A small enterprise in manufacturing sector is an enterprise with full-time employees of between 5 and 50 or with annual sales turnover of between RM250, 000 and less than RM10 million. On the other hand, a small enterprise within agriculture, mining and quarrying, construction and services sectors, are the enterprise with full-time employees of between 5 and 20, with the annual sales turnover of between RM200, 000 and less than RM1million. A medium enterprise in manufacturing sector is an enterprise that possess full-time employees of between 51 and 150 or with annual sales turnover of between RM10 million and RM25 million. Contrarily, a medium enterprise within agriculture, mining and quarrying, construction and services sectors sector are the enterprise that having full-time employees of between 20 and 50, with the annual sales turnover of between RM 1 million and RM5 million. Table 1 summarize the SMEs definition.

Table 1: Malaysia SMEs definition based on sector

Sector	Manufacturing	Agriculture, Mining and Quarrying, Construction and Services
Based on full-time employees		
Micro	Less than 5 employees	Less than 5 employees
Small	Between 5 and 50 employees	Between 5 and 20 employees
Medium	Between 50 and 150 employees	Between 20 and 50 employees

Based on annual sales turnover		
Micro	Less than RM250,000	Less than RM200,000
Small	Between RM250,000 and less than RM10 million	Between RM200,000 and less than RM1 million
Medium	Between RM10 and RM25 Million	Between RM1 million and RM5 million

Source: Department of Statistic, Malaysia (2011).

Tourism

Tourism research describes tourism as a motion or movement made by humans, as looking at the significant on the root of 'tour'. Often it has been acknowledged as activities of travel for recreational, leisure or business reasons. The most referable tourist definition has been defined by The International Dictionary of Tourism (1953) as a man with a desire for travelling out of its original area.

Tourism is a profitable business and a booming industry worldwide. Tourism is a significant contributor for economic development, creating employment opportunities in a large number of countries worldwide (de Kadt, 1979). Tourism development is one of the main sector and the largest and dynamically developing sectors of external economic activities (Mirbabayev & Shagzatova, 2006). Nevertheless, Jashveer et al. (2011) remind that tourism might induce negative impacts or even diminish the effectiveness of the positive side if the tourism is not well developed, planned and managed.

Types of Tourism

Based on the uniqueness and place attributes in Lenggong Valley, the potential tourism activities that can be promoted are such as rural tourism, heritage tourism, cultural tourism, archaeological tourism, agro-tourism, culinary tourism, natural tourism and ecotourism.

Rural tourism

MacDonald & Jolliffe (2003) define rural tourism as referring to a separate rural community with its own traditions, heritage, arts, lifestyles, places, and values as conserved between generations. Visitors visit these areas to be educated about the culture and to experience customs, tradition, natural sceneries, and historical attractions. Also, the visitors might get pleasure from other activities in a rural locale such as nature, general sightseeing, adventure, crafts, festivals, and sports. Dimitrovski, Todorović& Valjarević (2012) state that the rural areas have unique potential to attract tourists through building a connection between rural areas and their ethnic ,cultural, historic, and geographical roots. They also support the potential to develop rural tourism locally with the involvement of small and medium-sized companies and with no direct connection to these companies. Strategic planning and well development of rural tourism may help to generate new sources of money and employment, also it simultaneously can abolish social isolation and be a vital feature in resettling the country.

Heritage Tourism, Cultural Tourism, Archaeological Tourism

Hoffman, Kwas and Silverman (2002) describe heritage tourism, or sometimes called as cultural tourism as “travel designed to experience the places and activities that authentically represent the stories and people of the past”. Apparently heritage tourism studies hold a broad variety of different themes which usually include the analysis of museums, landscapes, artefacts, and activities that concentrate on representing different aspects of the past (Halewood & Hannam, 2001). Heritage tourism is an element of heritage education; which is a way to share with the public about a prehistory story behind a particular area. Besides, heritage tourism lets visitors experience the past and allows them to feel the excitement of discovery through onsite visitation. Experiencing on site visitation is the best way to nurture appreciation of archaeological resources.

Besides that, archaeological tourisms clearly a part of heritage resources. Nevertheless heritage or cultural attraction is more than just museums, monuments, and archaeological treasures, they also include showplaces for natural wonders such as botanical gardens and aquariums as well as parks and preserves of natural resources that are dedicated to public enjoyment (Mansur, Ahmad & Mat (2011). Nuryanti (1996) add that heritage has been portrayed as the components of flora and fauna such as landscapes, wilderness, gardens, national parks, mountains, islands and rivers.

Agro-tourism

Agro-tourism can be explained as leisure activities typically in rural areas organised by farmers or holders primarily employed in agriculture. According to López & García, (2006), agro-tourism targets at the most proficient utilization of an area's relative advantages, as well as the protection of natural and cultural environment as a crucial part of agro-tourist product, in a favour to encourage the sustainable rural development. Generally, agro-tourism involves small family or cooperative units that provide business activities such as accommodation, catering with local agricultural products or participation in agricultural or other rural outdoors activities. Hall & Jenkins (1998) add that the tourists of this tourism are typically tour with their family, tend to be educated and of primarily urban origin.

Culinary tourism

In the meantime, culinary tourism is considered as an essential factor of the tourism experience. Culinary tourism refers to the activities of experiencing the food or drink of the country, region or area. According to McKercher, Okumus & Okumus (2008), dining out is common among tourists and food is believed to rank alongside climate, accommodation, and scenery are vital for tourists. This tourism activity advertises visitor attractions with unique and memorable food and drink experiences (Smith & Costello, 2009).

Natural tourism

Each year, millions of people travel to see and experience natural environments. According to Deng, King & Bauer (2002), the term nature-based tourism is commonly applied to tourism activities based on the natural resources which remain

in a relatively undeveloped state, including scenery, topography, waterways, vegetation, wildlife, and cultural heritage. Priskin (2001) states such natural tourism activities in Western Australia include bushwalking, backpacking, camping and fishing, wildlife viewing, more adventurous uses of natural areas include, diving off-road driving and rock-climbing.

Ecotourism

Ecotourism includes cultural and environmental tourism, and at the same time advantages to the local inhabitants should be an integral part of the activities. According to Orams (1995), the idea of ecotourism is most likely due to the extensive and growing interest in the natural environment and a corresponding acknowledgment of the significance of conserving natural environmental quality. Scheyvens (1999) claims that the increasing consumers' affluent demand for remote, natural and exotic environments have formed rise in ecotourism business enterprise, predominantly in developing countries. Generally, ecotourism engages with the dependability of tourism activities to the nature. Ecotourism also usually help to preserve the environment and sustain the well-being of local people.

Tourism SMEs

Business activities in tourism or tourism SMEs typically involve the activities providing the demands and needs of tourists such as food, accommodation, transportation and other necessities. Tourism SMEs are usually managed by their owners, often married couples, with the term 'copreneurs' to represent the kind of family business (Main, 2002; Morrison, 2002; Wanhill, 2000). The owners are most likely having fully power over the firm's activities, wealth and decision-making. Othman & Harun (2011) categorize business activities in tourism into four; (1) the food and accommodation services, (2) retail and souvenir, (3) travel agent, transport and sport, and (4) others which represent other than as had been mentioned.

Significance between Tourism and SMEs

Nevertheless, it is not merely the tourism would benefit the entrepreneurial activities in an area, but tourism and SMEs activities simultaneously benefit each other. The mutual significance between tourism and SMEs activities are (a) open opportunity for business activities, (b) employment chances, and (c) boosting local economic development.

a) Business Activities Opportunity

Archaeological Institute of America (AIA) (2007) states that tourism upholds the local retail businesses such as restaurants, hotels, local crafts and souvenir shops, while simultaneously creating various employment chances, includes the recruiting and training of guides and interpreters. Furthermore, UNESCAP (2005) also supports that tourism industry provides opportunities to local communities, comprises the poor to start a small business activity because the capital costs and barriers to entry in this sector are relatively low and can even be accessible.

b) Employment

A study done by Mbaiwa (2003) proves that the local people was employed in tourism-related businesses, such as retails, wholesales, handicraft and souvenir industry, transportation, airlines, and also in the provision of accommodation. Consequently this indicates that tourism contributes employments opportunity and

chances for the community to engage in entrepreneurial activities such as manufacturing, agricultural, service and construction-related businesses.

c) Local economic development

Archaeological Institute of America (AIA) (2007) states that the trip operators, national and local governments, and local communities share the revenue derived from tourism, including entrance costs and other related fees and taxes. Wanhill (2000) states that in developing nations tourism's economic purposes of increasing earnings, investment, foreign exchange, creating job occasions, and also reducing adverse social and cultural consequences are best promoted through enhancing micro and small enterprises.

Methodology

This is a preliminary study which examines the potential of tourism industry and SMEs opportunity in Lenggong Valley Perak. The data analysis will be based on secondary data, observation and interview. The secondary data includes a list of businesses registered by Majlis Daerah Lenggong, the Economic Cencus 2011 from Department of Statistic Malaysia, and also previous studies done in tourism and SMEs sectors. Observation method involved site visit to three district of Lenggong Valley which are Lenggong District, Temelong District and Durian pipit District. This observation includes researching, seeing and understanding the actual condition and opportunity may arise in tourism and SMEs. The interview method was made through meeting with few notable people in Lenggong Valley.

Analysis And Discussion

Research and site observation proven that Lenggong Valley is a special and unique tourism place. It offers both heritage and non- heritage tourism attractions. The heritage tourism attraction in Lenggong Valley would offer visitors an experience of on- site visit of artefacts, monuments and archaeological treasures. Heritage attractions also include the natural attraction such as the caves, the waterfall cascade, the rainforest, also the richness of flora and fauna. The beautiful scenery of Lenggong Valley which is surrounded by the rainforest of Titiwangsa Ranges and Bintang Ranges also would be the heritage attraction for visitors. While non- heritage tourism attraction in Lenggong involves the local community's activities such as business activities. Lenggong Valley is popular among Malaysian for its local product of preserved fish. Table 2 summarizes the heritage and non- heritage attraction in Lenggong Valley and the potential tourism and business activities.

Table 2: Heritage and non- Heritage Attraction in Lenggong Valley

Place Attributes	Potential Activities
Heritage Attraction	
Archaeological treasure <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Human skeletons • Artefacts 	Archaeological tourism Cultural tourism Heritage tourism Tourism education Rural tourism
Historical attraction <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cemeteries of popular people in 	Cultural tourism

<p>ancient year such as, Makam Tok Lalang, Makam Tok Sendalu, Makam Tok Tan Lela Setia, Makam Tok Busu Sega</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rumah Limas, an ancient house with the design of Johor's style • Kubu Melayu, fortress was made during the war in the past years. • Masjid Jamek Lenggong, an ancient mosque with the design of English style and resemble the castle in Kuala Kangsar. • Masjid Abudiyah an ancient mosque with the design of Aceh's style 	<p>Heritage tourism Tourism education Rural tourism</p>
<p>Animal Farming</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Malaysia's largest deer's farm • Cattle and goat farm 	<p>Ecotourism Food Product Rural tourism</p>
<p>Natural Attraction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rainforest of Titiwangsa Ranges and Bintang Ranges • Cascade waterfalls such as Lata Randu and Lata Kekabu and more. • Caves such as Gua Harimau, Gua Puteri, Gua Kajang, Gua Kelawar, Gua Teluk, Gua Asar and many more nearly 20 caves to be explored 	<p>Ecotourism Natural tourism Rural tourism Animal festivals Animal and Bird watching activities</p>
Non- heritage attraction	
<p>Activities of local community</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • local product such as fresh-water fish and fish preserved • dodol • serunding • black pepper spices • keropok lekor processing 	<p>Agro tourism Culinary tourism Food Product Agro festival</p>

Based on the richness of heritage and non- heritage attraction in Lenggong Valley, there is a great deal of tourism potential to be highlighted. In fact, the Deputy Minister of Tourism Malaysia, Dato' Dr. James Dawos Mamit had officially launch Lenggong's Tourist Information Centre on December 12, 2010 in the effort to promote Lenggong as a tourism place. As well, the Ministry of Tourism Malaysia also had launched the website of www.pelanconganlenggong.my to facilitate the public to obtain information about interesting places to be visited in Lenggong Valley.

The data given by Majlis Daerah Lenggong reported that the main business activities registered encompass wholesale and retail, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles. Researchers' analysis based on the information report on 374 businesses registered to Majlis Daerah Lenggong found that 70% of business activities are wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles, 16% are food and beverage service, 11% are personal services and other activities, 2% are storage

of tobacco and latex (rubber-based) and 0.5% are accommodation service. Table 3 summarizes the business activities in Lenggong Valley.

Table 3: Business Activities in Lenggong Valley

Business Activities	Percentage (%)
Wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	70.05
Food and beverage service	16.31
Personal services and other activities	10.96
Storage of tobacco and latex (rubber-based)	2.14
Accommodation	0.53

On the other hand, the findings based on the interviews showed that SMEs activities of such micro enterprise is nothing new to the community since they had involved in entrepreneurial activities as a means to generate income and improve their standard of living.

“A large number of the community is still involved in the first-level economic activities which are agriculture and fisheries. Most the villagers are the rubber tappers, fishermen, farm labourers and oil palm labourers. Some of them rear the freshwater fish...”. “The most important types of businesses are selling preserved fish, sell confectioneries (kuih- muih), involve in retailing, open restaurant businesses and also involve in “kerepok lekor” processing activities. While other important business activities are dealing with rubber trade activities, motorcycle workshop business and retail activities...”

There is a variation between the data given by local council and the interview findings. The difference may occur because most of the micro- enterprise business of such agriculture and fisheries are not registered with the Majlis Daerah Lenggong as shown in Table 3. Thus some of the business activities in Lenggong especially those who operate on a micro scale cannot be identified.

Among of the villages in Lenggong, Beng Village within the Durian Pipit District seems to have maximized the tourism potential and business opportunity. The uniqueness of Beng Village is that the main route to the village is the Perak’s River which requires people to take a boat ride. Beng Village is well- known for its homestay program. It is one of the eight homestay programs registered to Perak Council. The homestay business runs as a group activity, involving 42 houses participate in the program. One of the respondents mentioned,

“We run homestay business as a group not individually. This program is lead by the village leader. Once we have visitors, we will discuss and decide which house will be the host. This program is supported by Perak Council...”. “We provide activities such as jungle- trekking, river cruise, fishing, deer’s farm tour, cultural night performance, barbeque activities. Also, the villagers will cooperate to prepare our special local foods such “Ikan Bakar Air Kerabu”, “Sambal Serai”, and preserved fish...”. “We had visitors from local and international. Usually local people will come as group activities, often from the higher learning institute...”

Table 4 summarizes the place attributes in Beng Village and activities provided in the homestay program.

Table 4: Place Attributes in Beng Village, activities offered in the Homestay Program and tourism types' classification.

Place Attributes	Activities	Tourism Type
Rainforest, cascade waterfall in the jungle (Lata Muda)	Jungle- trekking	Heritage tourism Natural tourism Ecotourism Rural tourism
River	River cruise, fishing	Natural tourism Ecotourism
Deer's farm	Farm visit	Natural tourism Agro tourism
Local culture and tradition	Cultural performance activity	Cultural tourism Rural tourism
Local food such as "Ikan Bakar Air Kerabu", "Sambal Serai", preserved fish	Food experience, barbeque activity	Culinary tourism Cultural tourism

According to the respondents, the main reason of local people in Lenggong Valley to get involved in the business is *"to increase the standard of living and for the sake of family income"*. Respondents had also mentioned some of the local people engaged in business activities are due to the government's effort in pushing local community to be an entrepreneur. Respondents also informed that entrepreneurs may receive financial assistances by third parties such from Amanah Ikhtiar, Bank Pertanian (now known as Agro Bank) and MARA.

Respondents were asked about the future planning regarding Lenggong Valley declaration as a world heritage site by the UNESCO. They were questioned regarding the uniqueness of the village area that can be promoted and the involvement of the villagers. The respondents mentioned that the uniqueness that can be highlighted is the tourism product such as the homestay program, jungle trekking activities and food products. He added that

"the villagers can involve through cooperation with the government in business activities. The villagers also can get engage as the arrival of foreign tourists would demand for place to stay and for food products."

Conclusion

The tourism and SMEs in Lenggong Valley have the potential to be developed. However, the tourism and entrepreneurial awareness among the Lenggong community still need to be developed. The communities have to realize that the UNESCO declaration has offered a huge opportunity for them not only in the tourism but also in entrepreneurial field. The community must understand that, SMEs activities are more than just a way to generate earnings, once Lenggong Valley obtained the title of UNESCO World Heritage Site. Therefore, it is necessary for the community to be able to see and grab the business opportunities that occur because of the tourism potential.

The main issue that needs to be highlighted is that the local community may not be prepared to receive the arrival of tourists in years to come if the SMEs in Lenggong are stagnant or growing slowly. Therefore, a serious plan and action need to be carried out as early as possible. Consequently, entrepreneurial awareness among the community is crucial as they need to be creative and innovative to discover new

business activities potential. Country Entrepreneurial Institute (Inskpen) has a huge role to give assistance such as by providing training and skill entailment to guide the local community in entrepreneurial field. Support by external parties, especially from government agencies such as MARA, Amanah Ikhtiar, SME bank and Agrobank are really needed to give capital for them to conduct business. In additional, expertise in higher learning institution in the countries may also play role by sharing of knowledge to develop the tourism potential and entrepreneurial awareness among Lenggong Valley community. Research and supervision from researchers in higher learning institution would much help to raise entrepreneurship attitude among local community. The collaboration between local community and researchers from higher learning institution would help to explore new opportunities in entrepreneurship within tourism field.

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Entrepreneurial Intention Of Local Community In Lenggong Valley, Malaysia

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Entrepreneurship is important to boost the socio-economic development. Most developing countries have successfully implemented social and economic development program to increase the living standards of the poor. Lenggong Valley is a new developing rural tourism attraction. The acknowledgement as a heritage site by UNESCO in July 2012 would definitely provide various business opportunities for the local community. Entrepreneurial intention (EI) has been receiving a significant attention among researchers since 1980's. The term EI refers to specific action taken by individual towards achieving its specific target goals. Previous research on EI has been conducted in academic setting focusing on university students in various countries. Looking from different perspective, this study explore on possible variables (attitude, social norm and perceived behavioral control) that determine the EI of local community in tourism business development. The Data collection has been conducted on 500 local populations in Lenggong Valley and analyzed by using factor analysis. The rotated component analysis resulted 6 factors comprise of attitude toward money, attitude toward start-up, capital access, embeddedness, emotional intelligent and intention to be entrepreneur.

Key words: entrepreneurial intention, local community and rural tourism development

Introduction

Entrepreneurship is a critical element in the economic growth. Researchers have viewed the importance of entrepreneurship in various perspective such as economic value (Hamidon, 2009), employment opportunities (Thurik et al., 2004), economic development and growth (Thurik et.al, 2004) and rural development (Ghazali and Sirat, 2011). For rural area, the benefit of entrepreneurship is undeniable. According to Vinten et al., (2004) and Thurik et al., (2004), entrepreneurship help to establish a quality of human capital that is highly skilled, resilient and competitive, innovative and creative in business.

Recently, Lenggong has been a popular cultural heritage attraction (Saidin, 2010). Lenggong is situated in the Lenggong Sub-district, District of Hulu Perak in

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the state of Perak, Peninsular Malaysia about 100km from the state capital, Ipoh. Lenggong Valley is located in between two mountain ranges, namely the Titiwangsa Range and Bintang Range that makes it suitable for agriculture and animal husbandry. Made up of few villages, Lenggong now has a big name in a world map after it has been acknowledged as one of the world heritage site. According to geologist, Lenggong is one of the earliest inhabited places in Malaysia that is, about 1.83 million years ago (Saidin et al., 2011). In addition to that, geological studies of Bukit Bunuh, Lenggong showed that this area was hit by a meteorite about 1.83 million years ago (Ministry of Information, Communication and Culture, 2011). That recognition will provide an additional attraction value to Lenggong. Besides local tourist, the arrival of international visitors will help to boost the tourism development in this area. In view of various business opportunities will be created for local people, thus the local community plays an important role in supporting and ensuring the successful development in Lenggong.

Local community is defined as a group of individuals living or working within the same geographic area with same shared cultures or common interests. Local community is a basic element of rural tourism development (Aref et.al, 2010) and form as a focal point for the tourism businesses such as supply of accommodation, catering, information, transport, facilities and service for tourism development (Godfrey et al., 2000). Entrepreneurship contribution in tourism industry has been discussed in various context such as providing income to the country and boosting the tourist destination (Mohamad, 2008) and community development (Richards et al, 2000). Specifically focusing on community entrepreneurship and tourism development, Richards et.al, (2000) and Ghazali & Sirat (2011) review the positive and negative impact of economy and social implication of local community involvement in tourism. In order to ensure the continuous income generation from tourism development, sustainability aspect must be given a priority by local community (Richards et al., 2000).

Previous studies on EI has been focusing on students in higher education (Davidsson et al., 1995; Turker et al., 2008; Douglas and Fitzsimmon, 2008; Leon, 2008; Indirti, 2009; Schwarz et al., 2009; Zahariah et al., 2010; Joyce et al., 2010 and Zarafshani et.al, 2011). However, there are only limited study focusing on entrepreneurship and heritage tourism. Hampton (2005) for example stresses on the importance of high participation among local communities in Indonesia to ensure development of tourism industry. Lack of coordination, intention and integration of local capacity impedes successful local involvement in tourism and entrepreneurship (Liu, 2006).

Recently, there is a mushrooming tourism literature that looking into entrepreneurship development in tourism sector (Jaafar et al., 2011., Glancey and Pettigrew, 1997, Ateljevic and Doorne, 2000 and Hollick and Braun, 2005). However literature that specifically focusing on EI on local community in tourism sector is still limited. Currently, there have been a world trend on the development of heritage site as one of the tourism attraction, thus, the objective of this study is to identify the EI related factors that could possibly influence the EI among local community in Lenggong Valley, Malaysia.

Literature Review

The concept of entrepreneurship has been explained based on three major perspectives namely economic, sociology and psychology. Scholars for example

Cantillon (1755), Jean-Baptiste Say's (1767), Marshall (1930), Schumpeter (1934), Mises (1949), Praag (1999), Hisrich and Peters (2002) view entrepreneurship from the perspective of economic; Thornton (1999) and Keister (2009) view from the perspective of social while McClelland (1961), Rotter (1966), Hornaday and Aboud (1971) and Shane and Vankataraman (2000) view entrepreneurship from the perspective of psychological. Psychology perspective includes psychology characteristics or entrepreneur traits in the aspect of demographic background, motivational characteristics, behavior, skills and abilities owned by entrepreneurs. However, Robinson et.al (1991) argues that attitude is a better approach of looking psychology aspect of entrepreneur. Entrepreneur has been acknowledged to have a significant different behavior or attitude between non-entrepreneur (Routamaa and Miettinen, 2006; Zahra,2007 and Zarafshani and Rajabi, 2011). In relation to that argument, Bird's (1988) agrees that entrepreneur's intention will determine how entrepreneur think and behave. From the perspective of behavioral study, the EI concept has been explored by few scholars such as Leon, (2008), Indirti, (2009), Schwarz et al., (2009), Zahariah et al., (2010), Joyce et al., (2010) and Zarafshani et.al (2011).

Intentions are classically defined as the cognitive state temporally and causally prior to action (Bagozzi, 1982) and have become the best predictor of entrepreneurship (Krueger and Carsrud, 1993). Besides that, many scholars such as Katz & Gartner, (1988), Davidsson et al., (1995), Turker et al., (2008) and Douglas and Fitzsimmon, (2008) using the similar definition of EI that is refer to a process or action to found information-searching which can be used to achieve a new venture. In a more specific definition, Bird et al., (1988) define intention as a state of mind, directing attention, experience, and action toward a specific object (goal) or pathway to its achievement and it seems to have influence an actual action toward intention. Shane & Vankataraman, (2000) argue that intention led to entrepreneurial cognition which is formed through an individual's perception and interpretation of information. They argue that information could be any news or fact related to marketplace, technology, social, political, regulatory and economic changes that ultimately enable the discovery and exploitation of new business opportunities.

EI concept has been explored from various angles. For example Indirti, (2009) and Schwarz et al., (2009) explore EI from the aspect of demographic profile such as gender, age, education and working experience; Devonish et al., (2009) looking the aspect of EI in terms of contextual factors such as perceived support, perceived barriers and close support; Engle et al., (2010) and Joyce et al., (2010) identify the personality traits in relation to EI such as extraversion and conscientiousness; Indirti et.al, (2010), Zahariah et.al, (2010) and Choo, 2011) emphasized EI from the perspective of need for achievement; Linan et.al, (2005); Ali et.al, (2011); Douglas et.al (2012) identify EI from the self-efficacy aspect while Indirti, (2009) looking from the aspect of environmental factors such as structural support, capital access, information access, and social networks. Besides that, there are also other factors that influence EI such as new socioeconomic factor of social capital (Linan et al., 2007), racial identity, role models, and entrepreneurial education (Leon, 2008; Zahariah et al., 2010; Joyce et al., 2010 and Zarafshani et al., 2011), career choice and peoples' attitudes toward income, independence, risk, and work effort (Douglas,2002), embeddedness (Raijman, 2001; Jack and Anderson, 2002) and emotional intelligence (Carson, 2000).

Attitude

Attitude refers to the degree to which the individual holds a positive or negative personal valuation about being an entrepreneur (Ajzen, 2001 and Autio et al., 2001). In a new venture context, Robinson et al. (1991) emphasize the necessity to distinguish between general attitudes related to the broad psychological disposition of an individual and domain attitudes referring to the person's more specific attitude toward entrepreneurship. In addition, general attitude such as attitude toward money and attitude toward change and specific attitudes such as attitude toward entrepreneurship has been found to be significant with intention to be entrepreneurs (Schwarz et.al, 2009). Following that, Ali et al, (2011) found that positive attitude toward entrepreneurship has a significant relationship with intention to be entrepreneur. Moreover a research findings developed by Engle, (2010) and Davis, (2012) indicate a significant relationship between attitudes with intention to become entrepreneurs while Schwarz, (2009) and Linan, (2009) study found that attitudes are positively related to intentions to a new venture creation.

Social Norm

Indirti, (2009) relate social norm to the environment and social context. Linan, (2009) also concludes that social norms are positively related to entrepreneurial intention. A study in Asian counties shows environmental factors such as social network, capital access and information access are significantly influenced entrepreneurial intention among students (Indirti et al, 2010). Besides that, Engle et al, (2010) found that social norms as a significant predictor of entrepreneurial intention in France and Spain. In the new venture context Rajiman, (2001) and Indirti, (2010) found capital access, information access, networking and embeddedness are the critical factor to start new venture.

Perceived Behavioral Control

Perceived behavioural control normally refers to the people's perceptions of their ability to perform a given behaviour (Linan, 2009). On the other hand, various literatures treat perceived behavioral control as self-efficacy (Linan et al, 2009; Indirti et al, 2010; Douglas et.al 2011). Perceived behavioral control is more important in influencing a person's behavioral intention particularly when the behavior is not wholly under volitional control (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1980). Perceived behavioural control emerges as the most important determinant of entrepreneurial intention (Autio et al, 2001).

Salovey and Mayer (1989-90) defined emotional intelligence as the "*ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and use this information to guide one's thinking and actions*" (p. 189). Kenneth and Rebecca (2007) suggest that emotional intelligence contributes to the understanding of the people who are able to successfully discover, create and exploit opportunities to start business. Mood regulation referring to the capacity to control negative emotions touted as an appropriate to influence people's intention to be entrepreneurs and deciding their career direction (Farnham, 1996). Carson & Carson, 1998 suggest that individuals high in emotional intelligence are self-starters with insight into their personal decision-making processes and they are good at networking. These skills push them to be more committed in their careers rather than working in an

organizations. In other study, emotional intelligence was found to have a significantly positive relationship with entrepreneurial behaviour and personal aspect of intention (Neghabi, 2011).

Methodology

Questionnaire design

Attitude has been measured using attitude toward money and attitude toward change which was adopted from Schwarz et.al (2009) while attitude toward start-up adopted from Linan, (2009). Social Norm covers the measure of capital access, information access and networking which adopted from Indirti, (2010), and embeddedness adopted from (Raijman, 2001), while emotional intelligence adopted from Carson (2000). Intention was adopted from Schwarz et.al (2009). The item measure were rated using a five Likert scale, with number 1 being strongly disagree and number 5 strongly agree.

Data collection

The questionnaires were distributed to the local community according to districts and village. Lenggong is represented by three districts namely Lenggong Districts, Temelong Districts and Durian Pipit Districts. In each district, there are six, eight and nine villages respectively. The total population of Lenggong valley are 16,320 residents. 500 local communities in Lenggong were selected as respondents comprises of 126 respondents from Lenggong Districts, 226 from Temelong Districts and 133 from Durian Pipit Districts. Personal survey is used to collect the data .The questionnaire been scrutinise and the usable questionnaire was 485.

Data Analysis

Factor analysis was used to identify the underlying construct to assess Entrepreneurial Intention. Following Parker, S.Endler ang Bagby (1993) the following criteria were used in order to determine what items should be retained: (a) items had to load significantly ($>.35$) on a given factor and lower than $.35$ on the other factors, and (b) following the rational approach to scale construction, an item was eliminated if it lacked conceptual coherence with its factor.

Table 1 depicts factor analysis of entrepreneurial intention. Looking at table 1, factor loading for attitude toward money is 0.84, attitude toward start-up ranged from 0.88-0.93, Capital access ranged from 0.5-0.8, embeddedness ranged from 0.78-0.91, emotional intelligent ranged from 0.8-0.92, and intention to be entrepreneur ranged from 0.90-0.95. The explained variation for the six factors were 52.83%,27.19%,34.68%, 28.42%, 75.76%, 88.04%.

Table 1: Component and Items for Entrepreneurial Intention from Factor Analysis

Entrepreneurial intention–related factor	Factor loadings:					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Factor 1: Attitude towards money						
If you have a high income, that is a sign that you have had success in your life	0.840					

It is important for me to make a lot of money	0.838					
Factor 2: Attitude towards start-up						
Being an entrepreneur implies more advantages than disadvantages to me		0.874				
A career as entrepreneur is attractive for me		0.894				
If I had the opportunity and resources, I'd like to start a firm		0.929				
Being an entrepreneur would entail great satisfactions for me		0.921				
Among various options, I would rather be an entrepreneur		0.888				
Factors 3: Capital access						
I have access to capital to start to be an entrepreneur.			0.779			
I have enough starting capital			0.531			
I have no problem to raise capital			0.776			
Factor 4: Embeddedness						
I have good social networks that can be utilized when (networking)				0.780		
Someone in household in business currently or in the past				0.911		
My emotions are rarely out of control				0.879		
Factor 5: Emotional Intelligence						
My emotions are often out of control					0.800	
I can often shrug off a foul mood and go on with my day					0.892	
I feel negative emotions more strongly than other people					0.906	
I can regulate my moods so that they don't overwhelm me					0.919	
I have emotional battles inside me that interfere with my thoughts					0.906	
My feelings are so intense that I often feel overwhelmed					0.790	
Factor 6: Intention to be entrepreneur						
I am ready to do anything to be an entrepreneur						0.899
My professional goal is to become an entrepreneur						0.947
I will make every effort to start and run my own firm						0.953
I am determined to create a firm in						0.961

the future						
I have very seriously thought of starting a firm						0.945
I have the firm intention to start a firm some day						0.923
Percentage of variance	52.83	27.19	34.68	28.42	75.76	88.04
Alpha value	0.865	0.969	0.914	0.902	0.933	0.973

Discussion

This research has been conducted based on the objective to identify EI related factors on local community in the new world archeological site in Lenggong Valley. A complication of literature review done shows a study on EI of local community in tourism sector is very limited. Growing as a new rural tourism archeological attraction, this paper contributes to the knowledge gap by exploring the EI related factors in Malaysia. The first part of this study describes the attraction of Lenggong Valley as a new developing tourism attraction. Having involves in agricultural based activity, the EI of local community towards entrepreneurship is an interesting area to be explored. Based on literature review, few measures on EI determinant has been tested on 500 local communities in Lenggong Valley.

The factor analysis has categorized the EI related factors into six factors that are attitude toward money, attitude toward start-up, capital access, embeddedness, emotional intelligence and EI. For the attitude variable, attitude toward change has been dropped due to low alpha value. The respondent felt that attitude towards money could be the best motivator for their entrepreneurship move. However, there seems to have less intention to start up new business venture and change their attitude to support their entrepreneurship venture.

Social norm variable consist of four elements which are capital assess, information access, networking and embeddedness. Information access and networking has been dropped during factor analysis. Recent literature view embeddedness as a process of becoming part of local social structures and considered it as a necessary mechanism for entrepreneurs to understand local rules, access local resources and to create value (Jack and Anderson, 2002). According to Burt, (2002) for the embedded local community, networks can provide access to resources such as information, goods, and services. The primary argument of embeddedness is that actors' purposeful actions are embedded in concrete and enduring relationships that affect their motives, behaviours and decision making (Gnyawali and Madhavan 2001).

Emotional intelligence is a sole measurement for perceived behavioural control. Goleman (1998) define trait emotional intelligence as the ability to identify, assess, and control the emotions of oneself, of others, and of groups.. According to carson and Carson (1998), individuals with high emotional intelligence have possibility to start business and are more committed in their career. Emotional intelligence could be a significant factors in regulating the local community's intention to be an entrepreneur.

Conclusion And Recommendation

This study developed framework based on Theory of Planned Behavior. Factor, reliability and frequency analysis have been used to categorise the various variables

used in determining the EI of local community in heritage site attraction in Lenggong Valley. The EI of local community in Lenggong is said to be neither low nor high. The background development of people in Lenggong could have influence the level of EI in this area. The mean value indicate that attitude toward money show the highest value followed by emotional intelligence, attitude toward start-up, embeddedness and capital access. In particular, the results seem to confirm that the categorization of different variables that could influence the EI of local community in Lenggong Valley. Future research should be developed to confirm our findings. In particular, this study should be replicated with a wider sample among local community from different state and country.

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On-Line Tourism Destination Marketing: Case Study Of Canadian Atlantic Provinces

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Tourism destinations are faced with increased and intense competition in marketing and would use all means to promote and attract tourists to their sites. The tourists' desire for pleasing experiences should compel tourist businesses to consider effective means of destination marketing. Many tourists are turning to the internet as a source for travel and tourism information from attractions to visit to accommodation to patronize. Advertising, brochures, web pages are among various ways of promoting the destination however potential travelers are relying on destination reviews by other travelers who have visited the destination. The measurement of this factor is often overlooked but is an essential factor in marketing strategies to effectively respond to positive or negative experiences of the destination image. Hence in order for them to succeed, they must have a sound online marketing and promote themselves in a unique way all in the effort of attracting tourists. This study investigates the extent to which four provinces in Atlantic Canada, namely, Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia are marketing themselves on the internet to attract both domestic and international tourists and thus reaching out to the global market. The paper using a case study approach, identifies the factors in successful destination marketing and also explores the role and impact of traveler reviews to the four destinations using trip advisor as a virtual community and one of the most popular and reliable source of reviews.

Key words: attractions, Canada, destination, marketing, tourism

Introduction

The need to market a destination has been well-established as one of the essential management components required to ensure a competitive tourism destination (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). Destination marketing has traditionally focused on image creation and promotion aimed at achieving growth in domestic and international visitation (Cox & Wray, 2011). Recent research shows that destination marketing should adopt a sustainable approach where marketing is integrated with sustainable destination management and development objectives to ensure the needs of both visitors and residents are met in regional communities (Cox & Wray, 2011; Buhalis, 2000). Web-based marketing has emerged as a vital, if not dominant, medium for tourism marketing. Indeed, the effective use of Web-based

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marketing activities is pivotal not only for marketing and promoting destinations but also for creating a competitive advantage for them (Buhalis, 2000). The key to successful online destination marketing efforts depends primarily upon the integrative application of destination information provision, communication mechanisms, e-commerce functions, and relationship building (Cobos et al., 2009; Wang & Russo, 2007).

On-line information users are typically younger and better educated than off-line information seekers (Bonn, Furr, & Susskind, 1999; Jang, 2004; Miller & Henthorne, 2006; Morrison, Jing, O'Leary, & Cai, 2001). World tourism officials have come to recognize the significance of the Internet in reaching and influencing the travel-conscious consumer (Miller & Henthorne, 2006; Douglas & Mills, 2004; Organization of American States, 1998; World Tourism Organization, 2003). Early on, Weber and Roehl (1999) predicted that the tourism industry would be one of the top product/service categories to be most influenced by the emergence of the web. For travel information, consumers have become more dependent on the web as an information resource and are turning to it in place of more traditional forms of advertising media, e.g., television and magazines (Jeong & Choi, 2004). A study conducted by Trip Advisor in 2007 revealed that (96.4%) of the respondents use the Internet as an information source for planning pleasure trips. Their most frequent travel planning-related online activities are: looking at other consumers' comments/materials (90%), printing out maps/directions (82.7%), reading travel-related blogs (64.2%), requesting printed materials/brochures (59.9%), and printing out coupons (40.7%).

A majority of respondents (92.3%) use virtual communities (Trip Advisor, Virtual Tourist, Lonely Planet, etc.) to find other travelers' online reviews. Many also use travel guidebook sites (Frommers, Conde Nast, etc.) (60.6%), online travel agency/auction sites (Expedia, Orbitz, Priceline, etc.) (58.1%), search engines or portals (Google, Yahoo, AOL, etc.) (51.5%), local destination websites (44.6%), state tourism web sites (29.7%), and company sites (27.9%). Meta-travel search engines (Sidestep, Mobissimo, Kayak, etc.) were only reported as used by 13.4% of the respondents. Other web sites respondents listed were specific travel-related review sites (e.g. *cruisecritic.com*), general review sites (*epinions.com*), blogs, newspaper/magazine sites, and travel expert sites (e.g. Rick Steves). Travel review readers also stated that other travelers' online reviews have a variety of impacts on their travel planning. Almost all of the respondents strongly or somewhat agreed that other travelers' reviews influenced them in the following ways: learning about a travel destination, product or service (94.6%), evaluating alternatives (91.9%), avoiding places or services they would not enjoy (91.8%), and providing them with ideas. This paper examines the destination features of the four Canadian Atlantic Provinces (Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia).

It also analyses the relationship and impact of those features and image induced by travelers reviews of the four destinations in Atlantic Canada. Finally, the paper seeks to identify the impact of on-line tourist information sources in promoting destination marketing.

Factors For Successful Destination Marketing

The success of a tourism destination in its approach to destination management can be influenced by a wide range of factors. As a dynamic and complex industry, destination managers need to be continually monitoring, reviewing and evaluating

tourism performance and management strategies to ensure the long-term sustainability of tourism in the destination. For instance, first, most of the tourist behavior models incorporated the search of external information as an important component (Bettman, 1979; Engel, Kollat et al., 1978; Gursoy and McCleary, 2004; Howard and Sheth, 1969; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Schmoll, 1977; Um and Crompton, 1990; Woodside and Lysonski, 1989). Second, some studies have examined the influence of information sources on tourists' preferences and intentions (Mayo, 1973; Milman and Pizam, 1995). Third, other studies have centered on the relationship between information sources, destination selection and travel decisions (Baloglu, 2000; Bieger and Laesser, 2004; Capella and Greco, 1987; Chen and Gursoy, 2000; Eagles, 2000; Getz and Sailor, 1993; Gitelson and Crompton, 1983; Goossens, 1994; Gursoy and McCleary, 2004; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Santos, 1998; Schmoll, 1977; Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005; Um and Crompton, 1990; Wicks and Schuett, 1991, 1993; Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Woodside et al., 2000; Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002). Finally, another important factor is image. Image plays an important role for destination marketers so as to differentiate their destination in this highly competitive market (Molina et al., 2010; Yilmaz et al., 2009). A well-differentiated and consistent image also is a key component to the success of modern-day branding (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Miller & Henthorne, 2008). Although the branding concept has not been widely discussed or applied in a tourism context to date, notable exceptions do exist. Finally, it is critical that the product be perceived as unique in a manner important to the consumer. The Unique Selling Point approach seeks to emphasize unique product attributes in a manner that is understandable, approachable, and accessible to the potential purchaser (Miller & Henthorne, 2008).

Tourism In Canada

Canada is a country with 10 Provinces and 3 Territories and is considered among the top destinations to go. Tourism is an important driver of economic activity in all regions of Canada. Tourism contributes as much to our country's wealth as agriculture, fisheries and forestry combined. In 2008, tourism activity generated over \$74 billion in revenues, represented 2% of Canada's gross domestic product (GDP) and directly employed over 660,000 Canadians. The Canadian Tourism Commission developed a regional hub approach in 2011 to achieve greater consistency and effectiveness in marketing while remaining responsive to local market needs and opportunities. By taking a global approach to executional strategy and communications planning, the CTC strives to create a universal Canada travel brand, reflect the business practices for multinational sales and marketing and maximize available funding for important program activities.

The CTC focuses on those markets and consumer segments where there is the highest potential for return on investment, promoting Canada's tourism brand in the emerging and transition markets of Brazil, China, India, Japan, Mexico and South Korea, as well as the core markets of France, Germany, Australia, United Kingdom and the United States. This plan focuses on the need for Canada to stimulate international visitation. Over the past decade, there has been a dramatic shift in the profile of travellers. Currently, 80% of tourism revenue comes from domestic travellers, an increase from 65% in 2000. Relying on more than 80% of revenue from the domestic market reduces the large opportunity to generate international revenues as Canada's tourism industry becomes increasingly reliant on supporting regional and domestic tourism experiences at the expense of those experiences demanded by high

yield international travellers. This will over time reduce Canada's competitive set in global markets (CTC, 2012). Traveler's choice of 2011 by trip advisor highlighted the Top 25 destinations in Canada. Of the destinations listed, Halifax, Nova Scotia was number 9, Charlottetown, PEI was number 13 and St. John's Newfoundland was number 17. Many travelers often have to consider factors such as the weather, travel costs, attractions on offer and the overall marketing experience on the web to enable them consider travelling to a particular place. More internet users are heavily relying on the reviews section on various sites to decide whether or not to visit a particular location and so destination marketers cannot ignore or overlook this factor.

Study Areas

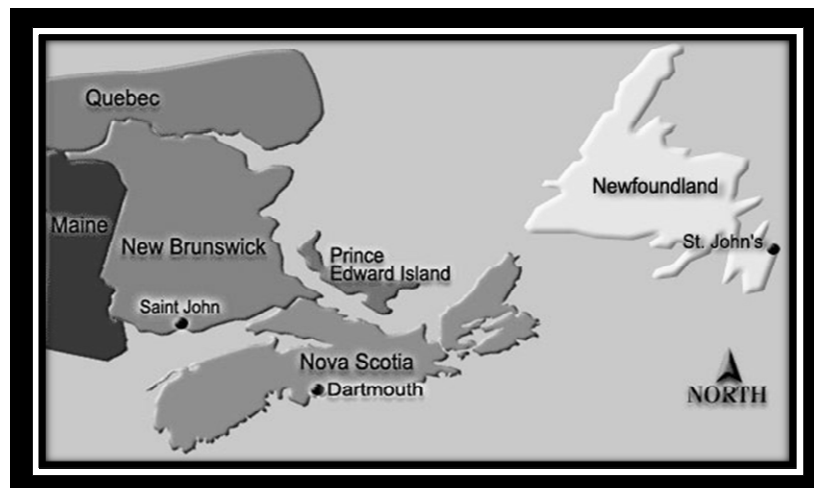


Figure 1: Map showing the 4 Atlantic Provinces
Source:www.listingsca.com. Retrieved on 4th September 2012

Newfoundland

Newfoundland and Labrador is located on the eastern edge of North America. With the North Atlantic Ocean at our doorstep, Newfoundland and Labrador is home to Iceberg Alley, one of the best places in the world to view icebergs. The island of Newfoundland covers 111,390 square kilometres (43,008 square miles) - an area that rivals the size of the three maritime provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island combined. With the addition of the vast territory of Labrador, the province covers a total area of 405,212 square kilometres (156,453 square miles), and has more than 29,000 kilometres (18,000 miles) of unspoiled coastline. Though Newfoundland and Labrador is larger than some countries, it certainly doesn't feel crowded with a relatively small population of 510,000. When it comes to landscape, Newfoundland and Labrador is as vast as it is varied. On the west coast of Newfoundland, Gros Morne National Park, a UNESCO World Heritage Site, is home to the Long Range Mountains and North America's northernmost part of the International Appalachian Trail. Tongat Mountains National Park, located in Northern Labrador, encompasses a vast, untouched wilderness area and some of the oldest mountains in the world. In the Central Region, you'll find boreal forests, consisting of dense forests, marshes, and green meadows that extend all the way to Labrador. Newfoundland and Labrador is known for its friendly people. Perhaps that's why, according to Macleans magazine, Newfoundland and Labrador has one of the Top 10 Friendliest Cultures in the World! The unique culture of Newfoundland and Labrador

is a product of our English, Irish, French, and Aboriginal heritage (*newfoundlandlabrador.com*).

Prince Edward Island - PEI

Prince Edward Island is Canada's smallest and greenest province. The Island is a place of natural beauty where the air and water are fresh and clean (*tourismpei.com*). Prince Edward Island is located on the east coast of Canada and is connected to the mainland by the confederation bridge. The province is also called 'PEI' or simply 'the Island'. The capital city is Charlottetown. In July 2010, the province's population was estimated to be 142,266. This represents a 0.8 per cent growth since 2009. (*Source: Prince Edward Island Department of Finance and Municipal Affairs 2010*). The total land area of PEI is 5,656 sq km (2,184 sq mi).

New Brunswick

New Brunswick, the largest of Canada's three Maritime Provinces, is located under Quebec's Gaspé Peninsula and beside the State of Maine. According to 2006 census data, New Brunswick has a total population of 729,997. Saint John is the largest city in the province, with a population of 68,043; it is also the province's oldest city, while Fredericton, the provincial capital, has a population of 50,535. New Brunswick is Canada's only official bilingual province. About 33 per cent of the population is French-speaking. New Brunswick covers 73,440 square kilometres in roughly a rectangle shape about 242 kilometres (150 miles) from east to west and 322 kilometres (200 miles) north to south (*tourismnewbrunswick.ca*). New Brunswick's communities vary from its eight major cities, to its many attractive towns and villages located throughout the province that offer a wide range of attractions to visitors and residents alike.

Nova Scotia

Nova Scotia is one of Canada's three Maritime Provinces and is the most populous province in Atlantic Canada. The provincial capital is Halifax. Nova Scotia is the second-smallest province in Canada with an area of 55,284 square kilometres (21,300 sq mi). As of 2009, the population is 946,397, which makes Nova Scotia the second-most-densely populated province. Nova Scotia was already home to the Mi'kmaq people when French colonists established the first permanent European settlement in Canada and the first north of Florida in 1604. In 1867 Nova Scotia was one of the four founding provinces of the Canadian Confederation. Tourist bureaus portray Nova Scotia as a province whose true essence is found in primitive, rustic, and unspoiled traditions outside the process of modernization, and highlight all things Scottish. People with Scottish ancestry are the largest self-identified ethnic group in the province after Canadian (that population is 29.3% as of 2011). Nova Scotia's Culture is a mix of Acadian, Mi'kmaq, Scottish and African Nova Scotian foundations; a passion for the past; and an unparalleled love of a good kitchen party. From the spectacle of an Antigonish Highland Games to simple storytelling around a sacred fire to searching out your family tree in small town archives, there are endless ways to experience your own personal Nova Scotia (*novascotia.com*).

Methodology

A case study methodology was used to develop an understanding of four Atlantic Provinces with regards to destination marketing and the importance and impact of on-line traveler reviews of the destinations. The case study approach is considered to be a highly suitable research strategy to understand and develop in-depth understandings of internet process to help identify suitable marketing strategies from travelers' point of view. Data was collected from all official provincial tourism websites, travelers' website (Trip Advisor) as well as secondary research articles for literature review. The data was analyzed based on both positive and negative reviews from the travelers regarding the various list of attractions identified. Relevant statistical tables from Destination Canada, Statistics Canada and Canadian Tourism Commission were also obtained to show the trend of tourists' attraction and flow into the country.

Results And Discussion

Destination Features: Domestic Tourism

Table 1: Trips By Canadians In Canada

Country/Provinces	Person-trips (destinations)				
	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Canada	207,470	214,559	214,498	227,121	229,158
Newfoundland	3,068	2,939	3,006	3,256	3,500
Prince Edward Island	1,018	1,057	1,082	1,196	1,091
Nova Scotia	7,318	7,087	7,131	7,604	8,115
New Brunswick	5,254	5,349	4,937	5,358	5,458
Quebec	57,278	57,240	58,410	62,736	60,169
Ontario	83,036	86,903	84,995	88,412	90,174
Manitoba	7,275	7,294	7,109	7,935	7,984
Saskatchewan	7,874	8,164	8,028	8,464	8,624
Alberta	17,364	20,052	20,601	20,398	21,558
British Columbia	17,908	18,418	19,126	21,619	22,380
Yukon/NWT/ Nunavut	77 ^E	56 ^E	74 ^E	144 ^E	F

* Source: www.statcan.gc.ca accessed on 19/12/2011

*E use with caution *F Too unreliable

The four Atlantic Provinces according to Table 1 seem to have the least number of domestic tourists compared to other provinces in Canada with Nova Scotia in the lead while PEI has the least number of tourists. The story of Anne Green Gables which is known throughout the world could be strategically positioned and marketed to the locals and used as a unique selling point to attract domestic tourists. Newfoundland can use its unique English language, culture and heritage sites as marketing tools to get more traffic to the islands.

Table 2: International Tourism Arrivals

Province	2010	2011	%
Newfoundland	42,598	41,862	-1.7
Prince Edward Island	2,055	2,015	-1.9
Nova Scotia	175,115	181,782	3.8
New Brunswick	346,668	317,939	-8.3

CTC, 2011

With regard to international tourism arrivals (Table 2), New Brunswick has the highest numbers followed by Nova Scotia. Destination marketing is very successful in attracting foreign tourists in order to This could mean that more destination marketing strategies could be employed to attract international tourists to PEI and Newfoundland using cultural and heritage attributes.

Table 3: Top 10 Attractions In Canada

No.	Attraction	Province
1.	The Canadian Rockies	British Columbia/Alberta
2.	Niagara Falls	Ontario
3.	Pacific Rim National Park	Vancouver Island, BC
4.	Cabot Trail	Nova Scotia
5.	Baffin Island	Nunavut
6.	Vancouver/Victoria	British Columbia
7.	The Prairies	BC/Ontario/Saskatchewan/Manitoba
8.	The Rocky Mountaineer	British Columbia/Alberta
9.	Old Quebec City	Quebec
10.	Bay of Fundy	New Brunswick/ Nova Scotia

Source: www.DestinationCanada.info accessed on 21/10/2012

The Destination Canada (Table 3) has taken a look at Canada’s many unique attractions and picked these 10 to recommend to visitors to Canada – or to Canadians who wish to experience more of their own vast and beautiful country. Their picks have been made subjectively based on personal experience and extensive research. Other potential destination that could have easily been picked included the Viking trails and Green Gables in PEI. From the above table, only 2 of the attractions are in the Atlantic Provinces and these statistics are very low compared to other provinces like British Columbia, Alberta and Ontario areas.

The Role Of Traveler Reviews: Trip Advisor

Trip advisor is the world’s largest site which offer reviews by travelers categorized as excellent, very good, average, poor, or terrible and between 5 and 1 star. The current generation of travelers is well informed and want to well-equipped before they travel and as such rely heavily on experiences of other travelers/tourists who have been to the places that they would like to visit. The role of internet marketing therefore, cannot be overlooked as this could make or break the destination in terms of visitor numbers to a particular attraction. In this study, Trip advisor list various things to do (Table 4) while visiting the various provinces of the Atlantic Canada. The information on accommodation, restaurants, flights and holiday rentals are also available to travelers. Nova Scotia tops the list with the most notable number of attractions (307) and the most number of traveler reviews. This is followed by New Brunswick having 105 attractions.

The most prominent attractions in Atlantic Canada include: Signal Hill, St. John’s; Gros Morne National Park; Cape Breton Highland National Park, Cabot Trail in Nova Scotia; Happy Clammers, Basin Head Provincial Park in PEI and Hopewell Rocks and Roosevelt Campobello International Park in New Brunswick.

Table 4: Trip Advisor “things to do”

No	Destination	Attractions	Tours	Nightlife	Shopping	Traveler Reviews
1.	Newfoundland	123	45	12	9	216
2.	Nova Scotia	307	71	22	56	832
3.	PEI	110	28	14	16	323
4.	New Brunswick	135	28	8	5	428

When travelers are planning to visit a destination, Nova Scotia province has the highest number of attractions to visit and as seen in Table 5.

Table 5: Trip Advisor Categories Of Attractions

Attractions	Newfoundland	PEI	New Brunswick	Nova Scotia
Landmarks/Historic Sites	40	34	36	67
Museums, zoos and aquariums	17	20	24	65
Parks, gardens and nature	20	5	30	45
Water and water sports	6	7	7	30
Sports, golf and outdoor activities	12	17	11	34
Education sites and libraries	4	1	2	17
Factories, wineries and breweries	4	5	14	14
Spa	5	0	0	8
Amusement/theme parks/arcades	1	8	1	6
Religious sites	2	0	2	5
Theatre, art and performances	9	8	5	11
Gambling	0	2	1	1
Military sites	1	0	0	1
Spectator sport	1	0	1	3
Other	1	3	1	0
Total Attractions	123	110	135	307

Conclusion: The Role Of Traveler Reviews

It is important to take into consideration the role that traveler reviews make into the contribution of destination marketing. Many travelers now rely on the word of mouth as some destinations have been found to do false advertising and hence many would prefer someone who has actually been there and had the experience of the destination in question to act as a guide or reference for others. Below are some of the reviews both positive and negative on the four Atlantic Canada destinations.

Positive Reviews

“Friendly destinations”
 “Interesting”
 “Safe”
 “Beautiful”
 “Clean”

Negative Reviews

“I take exception to the provinces TV advertising”
 “Expensive”
 “Unimpressive”
 “Not much to do – walking and taking photograph only”
 “Small museum; good way to kill time”

The tourism boards and marketing will have to pay attention to the customer needs and consumer trends in these destinations if they have to remain competitive. The destination will have to cultivate a culture of building relationships with their customers who are the tourists as well as service providers in these areas. The attractions should support and offer review sections for tourists and other service providers for constructive feedback to enable the destinations remain competitive and address any concerns that may arise in order to be more visible globally. In the final analysis, Canadian Atlantic destinations has a lot to offer and can succeed if proper marketing tools are enhanced so that tourist just don't travel to "kill time".

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The Impact Of Marketing Auditing On Employee's Commitment With Marketing Ethics In Jordanian Five Star Hotels

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The study aims to investigate the impact of marketing auditing on employee's commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels. The study population consisted of Jordanian Five stars Hotels employees. A questionnaire was distributed over a convenience sample amounting 200. 125 questionnaires were collected, that is (62.5%) of the total sample. The study results indicated that marketing auditing has positive impact on employee's commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels. There are significant differences in marketing auditing impact on employee's obligations with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to gender, academic qualification and experience.

Key words: five star hotels, marketing auditing, marketing ethics

Introduction

The marketing plan determines company marketing objectives and suggests strategies to be implemented; it does not contain all company's objectives and strategies. The company also has many objectives such as productivity, personal and, which can't be separated. Plan of any company includes number of sub-plans in addition to overall company's marketing plan, the need for matching and coordinating within the total action plan.

Marketing audit is a basic study for company's marketing environment, to specify marketing activities, and internal marketing system. It also includes company's markets study, customers, and competitors in terms of overall economic and political environment. It requires an implementation of marketing research and collecting historical information regarding company and its products (Ta'ae, 2001).

However, there are differences between organizations in marketing audit using levels, which can be attributed to different factors that may play an influencing role on its use. As well as its use can be reflected on different matters including commitment with marketing ethics.

Ethics discussion in general means, investigating individuals behavior and acts with their society. Ethics basically are concerned with answering what is correct and incorrect and to help individuals in interpreting many variables. So every individual is

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committed in developing ethical standards expressed by human behavior in line with the occurred value development in society actually and what it is supposed to be.

Organizations considered inhomogeneous mix of individuals that are characterized by different ethics standards which is reflected on their behavior with the end consumer. Consequently, understanding importance of marketing ethics is necessary to improve the service quality provided to consumer, which reflects positively on customer's organization image. Therefore this study aims to investigate marketing audit impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels

Study Importance

The study discusses impact of marketing audit on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels. Many professionals are calling for marketing ethics implementation to enable Jordan companies to cope with continuous development in this field. Therefore study importance is summarized as follows:

1. This study addresses one of the most important topics for organizations namely the impact of marketing audit on employees commitment with market ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels.
2. It attempts to highlight on one of the most important economic sectors in Jordan, namely the Tourism sector.
3. It attempts to provide a set of needed recommendations to activate the topic benefit in enhancing the awareness of marketing ethics importance in organizations in general and tourism sector in particular.

Study Objectives

The study attempts to achieve the following objectives:

1. To investigate marketing audit impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels.
2. To find out the differences in marketing audit impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to demographic variables (gender, qualification, and monthly income)

Study Statement

Recent years witnessed an increased interest in profession ethics topic since it is the basis for organization success whatever its work nature. Such interest was reflected through conferences held recently on world level in this respect. Due to the lack of studies that addressed marketing ethics topic and its relation with marketing audit in services sector -which may be attributed to special services aspects such as intangibility- (Diacon& Ennew, 1996), therefore the researcher decided to conduct this study in order to identify the impact of marketing audit on the employees commitment with marketing ethics in the Jordanian Five star Hotels.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to answer the following questions:

1. What is the impact of marketing audit on employee's commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels?
2. Are there differences in impact of marketing audit on employee's commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to demographic variables (gender, educational level, and the experience)?

Study Hypotheses

The following are the hypotheses formulated in negative form (Ho):

1. HO: Marketing audit has no impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels.
2. HO: There are no significant differences in marketing audit impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to gender.
3. HO: There are no significant differences in marketing audit impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to educational level.
4. HO: There are no significant differences in marketing audit impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to experience

Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire consisted of two main parts: the first includes participants' demographic (education, gender, and experience), while the second section includes information regarding the marketing ethics variable (1-20) and marketing audit variable (21 -26). 5-points (Likert) scale was used as follows: strongly agree= (5) points, agree,= (4) points neutral= (3) points, disagree= (2) points, strongly disagrees= (1) point.

Reliability Test

Cronbach Alpha test was used to find out instrument reliability. The value was = 81.2% for the questionnaire as a whole. While the reliability values of marketing ethics variable was 72.4%, and marketing audit variable was 69.6%. All values are accepted since they are more than 60%. (Malhotra, 2004, p.268)

Statistical Treatment Methods:

The “SPSS” statistical package program was used in order to analyze the collected data through the questioner. The following statistical methods were used:

1. Frequencies and percentages.
2. Means and standard deviations.
3. Simple regression test.
4. ANOVA.

Related Studies

1. Abu Hamida (2006) study aimed to identify the extent of Jordan pharmaceutical companies commitment with marketing ethics. The research population consisted of pharmacists, and physicians who are working in the capital governorate and deal with Jordan pharmaceutical companies. The study concluded that Jordan pharmaceutical companies are committed with pharmaceutical marketing ethics, and are not committed with pharmaceutical pricing ethics. This study is very important because it highlights the importance of marketing ethics in companies.
2. Attia, et al, (1999) study aimed to compare ethics values, and ethics realization level between American and Middle- Eastern marketers. The sample consisted of 2000 American marketers .453 questionnaires were collected, 446 questionnaires were valid. The Middle Eastern countries sample was selected from: Egypt,

Jordan, and Saudi Arabia. 138 questionnaires were collected 134 questionnaires were valid. The distribution was as follows: 63 questionnaires from Egypt, 63 questionnaires from Jordan, and 8 questionnaires from Saudi Arabia. It was found that there are no differences between the two samples regarding ethics philosophy. American marketers have ethical realization more than Middle Eastern ones, but Middle Eastern have special ethical value for their organizations better than Americans. This study highlights the importance of conducting frequent researches in the field of marketing ethics.

3. Singhapakdi (1999) study, aimed to identify the impact of social responsibility and ethics realization on marketers ethical intentions, in addition the impact of ethical problems, and gender on ethical intentions. A sample amounting 2000 American marketers were selected, 453 questionnaires were collected, of which 433 were valid. The study found that the realization of social responsibility and ethical problems importance impact marketers ethical intentions .The study also shows that there is a relation between ethical problems realization and marketer's ethical intentions, and there are differences in marketer's ethical intentions due to their gender. This study highlights the importance of conducting frequent researches in the field of marketing ethics
4. Creyer and Ross (1997) study aimed to identify consumers' expectations regarding ethical level of companies operations and their impact on their purchasing behavior. 450 questionnaires were distributed to primary schools students parents in the northeast of the United States of America, 280 valid questionnaires for analysis were collected. The study found that ethical level of companies operations is taken in consideration when taking purchasing decision. Companies commitment with high ethical standards increasing consumers well to pay high prices for their products, while they pay low prices for products of companies that do not commit with ethical standards as a form of punishment. This study also highlights the importance of conducting frequent researches in the field of marketing ethics
5. Peppas (2002) study, aimed to measure and compare MBA student's attitudes in business administration schools in the United States of America and Asia regarding ethical standards and ethical values for business. A questionnaire was distributed on a sample amounting 309 students at a university in the southeastern of the United States, the sample included 251 American citizens and the rest of Asian nationalities. The study concluded that there are differences between Americans national attitudes and Asian regarding the ethical standards and ethical values. This study highlights the importance of conducting frequent researches in the field of ethics in general.

Theoretical Framework

Marketing Ethics

Ethics means in general "a set of ethical principles and values that direct behavior" (Creyer & Ross, 1997), that means the behavior is considered ethical or not depends on a various set of ethical basis used as judgment base. Through this direction we could review the following definitions. Marketing ethics, are defined as "standards that govern marketers in the light of ethical values they have" .This definition has a clear indication that marketing ethics derive its existence from employees who are

working in the organization through what they value they have that compatible with standards established by the organization management.

It is also defined as "the literary principles that specify and identify the right from the wrong thing in marketing behavior". This definition is consistent also with the core of morals concept, which is determined mainly by the fact that human behavior distinguishes between what is right and what is wrong in order to do its work or abstain from (Al Bakri, 2006.p2)

It is worth to say that there are ethical problems within marketing concept and can be grouped in the following fields:

1. Deceit and deception practiced by (Producers and marketers) toward consumer in various fields as, title contents and components, contrast and manipulation with marks, bad promotion and other considerations.
2. The extent of Tenacity intermediaries in decided profit margin through dealing with goods that delivered to consumer without obtaining unacceptable increases in prices
3. To reduce goods display to public in the required quantity or to hide them for the purpose of causing speculation in commodity trading in the market and increase prices
4. Commitment extent of displaying correct data and facts that represent reality advertised products and through various promotional means, without the consumer is exposed to deception and disinformation. (Deuhoji, 2000)

Marketing Audit

Marketing audit is an organization marketing behavior control mechanism, and it's considered the most important mechanism in management process (Kloudová, 2005). It means accurate examination, exercises evaluation, and marketing results (Schildge, 2006). It offers performance standards base and framework for effective institutional planning in order to maximize the external positive concept and demand creation. Many institutions select the quantitative results as a mean to determine marketing efficiency, which should be based on a previous standard that includes factors such as sales cycle reduction and sale operation expenses reduction. It is possible to refer to this audit periodically to know if any modification has a positive impact on a company performance in terms of sales growth and companies values or to indicate the modification that might be required such as organizing or order creation on sales departments (Cravens & Piercy, 2003). It is a continuous process to detect and measure deviation from the desired results and take corrective procedures (Al-Sumaidai, 2004).

Al Bakri (2006) has defined that successful market system audit features are as follows:

1. Fitting the nature of organization activity and its size, the more organization is large the control system is more complicated
2. Flexibility for purpose of adapt with internal and external environmental variables of organization.
3. Clarity and accuracy of used data and standards from existing on control system in the organization.
4. The early identification of deviations and fast processing for implementation of the wrong plan to achieve the best goals.
5. To make the realized revenue from audit system is greater than its expenses.

Kloudova (2005) study stressed on 276 Czech companies that marketing audit which occur outside the company is more complex that occur inside, it also stresses on the importance of continuously periodical existence in

Marketing audit took place through the following fields

- Market environment audit
- Strategy audit
- Marketing system audit
- Marketing system efficiency audit-
- Marketing function audit (Al-Sumaidai & Al- Sa'ed, 2007)-

Marketing Audit Features

Ma'ala (2008) identified four basic features of marketing audit as follows:

- Comprehensive: since it covers all field related to marketing activity for institution.
- Regularity: it is important to take place regularly and pour concentration on two external and internal environments analyses for organization and its marketing objectives and strategies.
- Independence: from other managements.
- Periodical: in terms of continuously and un-limiting specific period.

Analysis And Discussion

Frequency and percentages were computed for sample's characteristics

Table 1: Sample's Distribution According to Demographic Information

Category	Frequency	Percentage%
Education		
Diploma or less	48	38.4
Bachelor	69	55.2
High studies	8	6.4
Total	125	100%
Gender		
Male	79	63.2
Female	46	36.8
Total	125	100%
Experience		
Less than 5	75	60.0
5-10	40	32.0
Above 10 years	10	8.0
Total	125	100%

The table above indicates that 38.4% of the sample has Diploma or less, 55.2% of the sample has bachelor degree and the rest has high studies. The above table also shows that males were more than females. They were (79) with a (63.2%). females were (46) with a (36.8%) percent. With respect to experience table shows that less than 5 years was (60%). (5-10years) was (%32) and above 10 years was (8%) percent.

Table 2: Means and Standard Deviations for sample's responses toward marketing ethics

Statement	Mean	S. Deviation
You sympathize with customers who are in genuine difficulties in obtaining service	3.7760	1.35518
Cares are being made to make sure that the customer gets the appropriate service	3.6240	1.26149
Hotel employees do not ask customers private and embarrassing questions	3.6320	1.16076
Customer Complaints are handled promptly	3.6000	1.15703
The hotel observes to reduce any negative effects may a hotel face with service delivery	3.5280	1.20199
Hotel's invoices are accurate	3.3680	1.18822
Individual's income is not taken in consideration to increase the cost on his invoice.	3.3040	1.09415
Hotel employees do not offer false reductions on its services prices	3.8080	.99755
Hotel employees do not impose double tax on customer upon service rendering	3.8640	1.10966
Hotel employees do not exaggerate in linking high price with render service with high quality	3.4240	1.49334
Hotel employees don't make false bookings	3.4400	1.45580
Hotel employees are obliged to offer high quality of services	3.5200	1.31738
Hotel employees educate customers with all related regulations in the hotel	3.5440	1.33504
Hotel employees don't make comparisons in services untruthfully.	3.5920	1.18523
Hotel employees don't provide false promises to its customers	4.0160	1.18447
Hotel employees don't favor local customers when providing the service	3.9520	1.21719
Hotel employees don't offers all types of services without discrimination	3.5280	1.46230
Hotel employees don't impose additional charges on providing service to customers according to their nationality	4.2000	1.03954
Hotel employees are willing to provide all customers needs of accommodation services	3.8160	1.22068
Hotel employees are willing to provide housekeeping services properly.	3.7440	1.31924
Total	3.664	0.49788

Table(2) above indicates that means of sample's responses ranged from (3.304-4.20).All means are more than the virtual mean (3), this means that sample's respondents agree on all statements regarding the marketing ethics. The total mean also reflects that there are positive attitudes toward marketing ethics

Table 3: Means & Standard Deviations for sample's responses toward marketing audit

Statement	Mean	S. Deviation
Management empathy with consumers who have difficulties on obtaining the service	3.5840	1.34515
Management exerts its best efforts to assure that every customer obtain the require service	3.6240	1.20258
Hotel employees do not ask customers private and embarrassing questions	4.0720	1.17209
Customer Complaints are handled promptly	4.0000	1.21150
The hotel observes to reduce any negative effects may a hotel face with service delivery	3.6240	1.46279
Hotel's invoices are accurate	4.2400	1.03488
Total	3.8573	0.78451

Table(3) above indicates that means of sample's responses ranged from (3.584-4.24).All means are more than the virtual one (3), this means that sample's respondents agree on all statements regarding the marketing audit . The total mean also reflects that there are positive attitudes toward marketing audit

Hypotheses Testing

1. HO: Marketing audit has no impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels.

Table 4: Test of hypothesis (1)

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.666 ^a	.444	.439	.37282

a. Predictors: (Constant), ind

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	13.642	1	13.642	98.150	.000 ^a
	Residual	17.096	123	.139		
	Total	30.738	124			

a. Predictors: (Constant), ind

b. Dependent Variable: dep

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.033	.168		12.105	.000
	ind	.423	.043	.666	9.907	.000

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.666 ^a	.444	.439	.37282

a. Dependent Variable: dep

Simple Regression was used to test the hypothesis. The table indicates that F calculated value is significant at (0.01) level. This means that null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted, therefore, Marketing audit has an impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels with high Pearson correlation 0.666

2. HO: There are no significant differences in marketing audit impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to gender.

Table 5: Test of hypothesis (2)

Moderate variables	R Square	F calculated	Sig
Gender	0.723	3.859	0.000**

** Significant at (0.01) level

Two Way ANOVA was used to test this hypothesis, table indicates that F calculated value is significant at (0.01) level with r square = 0.723. This means that null hypothesis is rejected, so there are no significant differences in marketing audit impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to gender. And this effect increases in the opinions of female sample more than males

3. HO: There are no significant differences in marketing audit impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to educational level.

Table 6: Test of hypothesis (3)

Moderate variables	R Square	F calculated	Sig
academic qualification.	0.792	5.992	0.000**

** Significant at (0.01) level

Two Way ANOVA was used to test this hypothesis, table indicates that F calculated value is significant at (0.01) level with r square = 0.792. This means that null hypothesis is rejected, so there are no significant differences in marketing audit impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to education level for the favor of Bachelor degree.

4. HO: There are no significant differences in marketing audit impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to the experience

Table 7: Test of hypothesis (4)

Moderate variables	R Square	F calculated	Sig
Academic qualification.	0.806	4.969	0.000**

** Significant at (0.01) level

Two Way ANOVA was used to test this hypothesis, table indicates that F calculated value is significant at (0.01) level with r square = 0.806. This means that null hypothesis is rejected so there are no significant differences in marketing audit impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to education level for the favor of more than 10 years experience

Conclusion

Upon the above analysis the following results are concluded:

1. Marketing audit has an impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels with high Pearson correlation 0.666.
2. There are no significant differences in marketing audit impact on employees' commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to gender.
3. There are no significant differences in marketing audit impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to education level.
4. There are significant differences in marketing audit impact on employees commitment with marketing ethics in Jordanian Five star Hotels due to experience.

Recommendations

1. Activating the role of marketing audit function in hotels and reconsideration of the organizational structure and the establishment of a special section that function..
2. Giving more courses for managers of departments and heads of departments in the hotel in relation to marketing audit.
3. Focusing on the follow-up customer complaints and suggestions in order to address them and meet their proposals.
4. Activating process control on the implementation of the ethics of marketing in the hotel for its role in the formation of a positive mental image of the customer
5. Noting to exaggerate the link between the price of the service and the high quality
6. Further studies on the subject of the study application on other economic sectors

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Developing Destination Brand Identity: Towards Sustainability Of Tourism Destination From The Perspective Of Stakeholders And Theory Of Social Identity

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This is a conceptual paper on the concept of destination brand identity from the perspective of stakeholders. In planning and strategising for sustainable tourism destination, destination branding is a critical issue that needs to be explored. The nature of a destination domain is one where there exists an "open-system" of interdependent, multidimensional and multiple stakeholders where the actions of one stakeholder will impact the rest of the actors in the destination, thus making the process of developing destination identity very complex. The difficulties in dealing with different interests amongst the stakeholders make the process of developing destination identity more complicated, resulting in difficulties in achieving unity and understanding about the "shared image" for a destination brand. Moreover, to produce a sustainable tourism destination, the supports offered by stakeholders to the planning and development process is a key element for the successful operation, management and sustainability of the destination. The destination branding literature shows consistency in the consideration of the power of stakeholders for branding destination. Therefore, based on the theory of stakeholders and the theory of social identity that underlies this paper, the study will identify the relationship between the stakeholders and brand development for a destination domain. This paper introduces a framework designed to study the implications of stakeholders towards the destination brand.

Key words: destination branding, brand identity, stakeholders, theory of stakeholders, theory of social identity

Introduction

Tourism destinations have long been identified as an industry that helps generate money for a country. Nowadays, any tourism destination will face keen competition from all other tourism destinations in the world. Thus, at this current stage, place marketing and the development of destination brands have become strategic tools for

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tourism businesses all over the world due to growing competition among destinations. This scenario becomes normal when the number of destinations that adopt the concept of destination-brand-building continuously keeps growing. All this can be seen in destinations or places like Serbia, New Zealand, Australia, Spain, Colombia and Brazil which apply the place branding strategy in order to market their destinations among the international and local tourists.

The positive impact of developing brand strategy for destinations and places from the economical perspective can be seen when Colombia in 2004, tried to change the image of its country by launching the new campaign namely, "Colombia is passion!". The new image launched by Colombia doubled its volume of foreign tourism in 2006 (Garcia, Gomez and Molina, 2012). Following this, many destinations, for example, Australia pursued an intense branding campaign with a new image launched in May 2004 and which since has been recognised as the world's number one nation brand (Global Market Insite Inc., 2005). Gold Coast, for example, began a new branding effort worth A\$2.3 million in November 2004. Stiff competition among the tourism destinations show the urgency for tourism destinations to get the attention, respect and trust of potential consumers, investors, tourists, media and governments of other nations, especially in this era of globalisation. This action is necessary to develop a positive and strong destination branding.

However, developing successful branding for a destination is intricate, mainly because of the destinations' features and the stakeholders' roles in determining or influencing the future of tourism destinations. The existing brand development models and frameworks that have been used for developing brand identity for other normal products and services are not applicable for tourism destination because of the reasons mentioned. Moreover, the conceptual models and the practical applications of place branding are developing at different speeds so far. A more general theoretical approach underpinning place branding have been developed by researchers such as Kotler and Gertner (2002) and Hankinson (2004, 2007, 2009). They attempted to establish relationships between literature on place marketing and branding with classical branding theory and new marketing paradigms. Nevertheless, most empirical studies are exploratory (Freire, 2009; Morgan, Pritchard & Piggott, 2003; Risitano, 2006) or based on case studies.(Pike, 2009)

Due to the lack of empirical research in developing destination branding and because most researches have been only focused on destination image (Boo, Busser & Baloglu, 2009), the development of a framework which lto study the concept of destination brand identity from the perspectives of stakeholders and theory of social identity becomes imperative.

Destination Branding

To what extent is branding important for a destination? The process of destination branding is necessary in the current destination management practice, as the widening of tourist opportunities and travel locations have resulted in many choices for tourists although there is little differentiation amongst a few of the destinations (Pike, 2005). Although destination branding is relatively a new development, it needs to be implemented immediately especially to new destinations or those places that need to be rebranded for particular reasons. Besides, an effective destination branding provides positive impacts to the destinations itself. For example, it gives visitors an assurance of quality experiences, reduces visitor search costs, and offers a way for a destination to establish a unique selling proposition (Blain et. al., 2005). Furthermore,

developing strong destination brands also have positive differential marketing effects because (i) it attracts more favourable attributes and benefits perceptions and overall preferences; (ii) it can also attract greater price premiums; and (iii) it can result in consumers paying greater attention to communications, retaining more information from them and reacting in a more positive way (Hoeffler & Keller, 2003).

Basically, destination is a combination of tourism facilities and services produced in isolation (such as accommodation, transport, catering and entertainment) as well as a variety of general merchandise (ranging from landscapes, scenery, sea, lake, socio-cultural environment, the atmosphere and so on) (Buhalis, 1999). Each destination has privileges that can be combined and applied to generate a unique identity and a strong personality to attract tourists. According to Morrison and Anderson (2002), destination branding is the process used to develop a unique identity and personality that is different from all competitive destinations. Destination branding has also been considered synonymous with (re)positioning (Gilmore, 2002), image-building (Curtis, 2001; Cai, 2002), and image-reconstruction (Hall, 2002) of a destination. The expansion of the tourism industry all over the world has contributed to the crucial part for developing destination branding. Parallel to any product and service offered by organisations, it is important for destinations to differentiate themselves with other destinations that are in the same category or have similar characteristics or features. Since tourism destination could generate profits and economic growth for a country, the development of destination branding is necessary in order to attract tourists' attention towards their destination.

However, the diversification of features possessed by a destination or place makes the process of developing destination brand intricate. Moreover, the process to develop destination brand should not be treated using similar concepts, models or frameworks for other common products or services. In establishing destination brand, the concept of the visitor experience needs to be incorporated into the process of branding. A place branding strategy's success is only possible when public organisations manage to coordinate every stakeholder, including those mainly responsible for formulating the policies, and all of them are joined through the brand's effective long-term management (Anholt, 2006).

Nevertheless, the hardest task in the process of place branding is bringing all the stakeholders together and getting them to work as a group (Van Gelder, 2008). Winning over a destination's stakeholders is not only a crucial platform for successful destination branding, but is also an indicator of a sustainable approach in tourism development. A successful development of destination branding involves the commitment and collaboration of all the stakeholders involved, which, in itself is a highly complex and dynamic process (Morgan et al, 2003; pp 2869).

Destination-Brand Identity

Brand identity is a component that is associated with the formation of a brand's core. The creation of a brand identity is also the most important phase in the process of image formation which includes the establishment and preservation of a unique set of correlations displayed through the brand elements (Rainisto, 2003; Keller, 1998; Aaker, 1996; Grundey, 2002). The American Marketing Association (AMA) (2004) defines brand as a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of all of which is intended to identify the products or services offered by a person or group of sellers and differentiate themselves with competitors. Two key elements that should be possessed by a brand are, (i) have an element of identification, and (ii) the brand

should have the factors that differentiate them from competitors. Generally, brand is considered as the main tool to create differences in product or service for the based-profit sectors. In addition, brand also represents marketers' promise of the value that can be granted by the product or service (Upadhyaya, 2012). Brand is also able to evoke emotions and prompt behavior among the target audience, because the brand is said to have social and emotional value to the consumer.

In the process of brand formation, the structure of brand identity can be divided into two parts namely, the core identity and extended identity (Aaker, 1996). The two forms of identity can be combined in an effort to create a brand identity for a product or service. According to Kapferer's model (1992: 1998), there are six aspects of identity suggested in his 'prism of brand identity' that need to be identified in order to develop brand identity for a product or service. The aspects are made up of physical, personality, relationships, culture and self-image.

Destination brands, compared to products brands, are more complex as they are "consumed" by various stakeholder groups in different ways and for different purposes-including employment, investment and for the creation of identities (Balmer & Greyser, 2006). Identity comprises the ways that a destination or tourism provider hopes to identify or position itself or its products. An effective brand identity promotes the destination's character and value proposition, conveys the character in a unique way, and delivers emotional strength and not just a mental image (Kotler, Haider & Rein, 1993). Identity is the source of the desired image, and control of it would mainly lie in the hands of the destination stakeholders.

Brand identity also relates to how brand owners want the destination to be perceived, covering the features and beneficial attributes, as well as the symbolic, experiential, social and emotional values of the place which are embedded in the brand (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). In view of the fact that destinations are multidimensional brands (Morgan et al., 2004), with multidisciplinary roots, there is thus a need to address a complex composite of stakeholders, landscapes and social processes, all of which might or might not coexist cohesively (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). The challenge associated with studying and understanding these factors in applications of branding to destinations are acknowledged in the literature where the mix of tourism stakeholders and range of tangible and intangible attributes associated with most destinations make the task of establishing a distinctive and coherent brand identity especially difficult (Anisimova, 2006; Morgan, Protchard & Piggott, 2003; Ooi, 2004).

Hence, to create destination brand identity, a special theoretical framework is developed from the perspective of stakeholder and social identity theory for identification of a destination brand identity.

Destination Stakeholder and the Theory of Stakeholders

Basically, destination branding is a process to build a unique identity and personality (Morrison & Anderson, 2002). However, the challenge to develop a destination as a brand is more complex than consumer products and other types of services. Why? Because there is a need for uniformity in terms of views and opinions among destination stakeholders about the identity of the place (Morgan et al., 2003).

According to Freeman (1984):

"Stakeholder is any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation objective", (pp. 6).

Based on the definition, stakeholders consist of customers, employees, residents, suppliers and distributors, shareholders, the media, the public in general, business partners, the future generation, the last generation (founder of the organisation), academics, competitors, NGOs or activists (which is considered as an individual, stakeholder representatives), financiers (debt holders, bond, creditor), the government, regulators and policy makers. Wheeler & Sillanpaa (1997) categorise the stakeholders into primary, secondary, social and non-social as follows:

<p style="text-align: center;">Primer Social Stakeholders</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shareholders and investors • Employees and managers • Customers • Local communities • Suppliers & other business partners 	<p style="text-align: center;">Secondary Social Stakeholders</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Government and regulation • Civic institution • Social pressure groups • Media and academic commentators • Trade bodies • Competitors
<p style="text-align: center;">Primer Nonsocial Stakeholders</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The natural environment • Future generations • Nonhuman species 	<p style="text-align: center;">Secondary Nonsocial Stakeholders</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Environmental interest groups • Animal welfare organisations

In developing a destination brand identity, participation and collaboration with the stakeholders should start at the early stage in the identification of core values and the development of a destination's brand. The process of brand development between destination and other products and services is different in terms of the owner. Unlike other products and services available in the market, a tourist destination has no single owner or authority to determine the destination brand. For a destination, every stakeholder has the possibility to influence the future of a destination brand. The reason is the destination stakeholders are the provider of the main structure of tourism and products that will be offered, and are involved directly with the destination activities (Sheehan & Ritchie, 2003; Morgan et al, 2003; Bornhorst et al, 2009).

The failure and success of developing destination branding depends a lot on the destination stakeholders. In fact, stakeholder theory has been widely used in the tourism research as it has clearly been identified as an important component of tourism destinations (Carroll, 1993; Freeman, 1984; Langtry, 1994; Mitroff, 1983; Starik, 1994). Stakeholder involvement is not only for the purpose of profit, but it also provides competitive advantage in terms of efficiency or improved profitability, as well as capable of stopping or preventing undesirable or damaging behavior (Campbell, 1997; Hutton, 2002). Among the studies that have proven the power of stakeholder to the future of destination is the study that was done by Sheehan & Ritchie (2003) on stakeholders. The main problems that often involved stakeholders which resulted in the failure in tourism destination marketing are: (i) poor cooperation and communication; (ii) the financing problem; (iii) disagreement on the promotion method implemented by the marketing organisation; and (iv) lack of understanding.

Identification of stakeholders is the first step in developing sustainable tourism development. Once the stakeholders are identified, they should be included in the tourism development process. As Donaldson and Preston (1995) suggested, all stakeholders do not need to be involved equally in the decision making process, but all interests should be identified and understood. Thus, in order for a branding campaign to be successful, the tourism development plans should not ignore the legitimate needs of residents. It is necessary to make sure that the utilisation of

resources favour the locals or at least increase their ability to access it (Walle, 1998, p. 118). The rights of locals should not be neglected as this will affect their attitude towards the destination. These locals help to shape the perceptions of a city based on the relationships formed with the city's unique nature, urban environment, and social structure and can therefore assist destination managers with valuable input regarding the quality of its functional benefits. In fact, locals can "contribute to the alignment of cognitive or emotional destination characteristics by giving the exact words, colors, smells, and images that express the identity of a destination" (ibid.).

Destination branding can be successful when hosts, policy objectives, and tourists' demands are aligned. The existence of multiple stakeholders and little or no management control in destination branding poses additional challenges (Morgan & Pritchard, 2005). Thus an increasing number of tourism scholars and destination managers have suggested that locals' input is necessary and should be taken into account in the development of destination brand (Morgan, Pritchard & Piggott, 2003). The complex situation which surrounds the development of destination branding was described by Jamal and Getz (1995):

"the destination domain is thus characterised by an 'open system' of interdependent, multiple stakeholders, where the actions of one stakeholder impact on the rest of the actors in the community. Furthermore, no single organisation or individual can exert direct control over the destination's development process" (pg. 193).

Based on the theory of stakeholder, power is one of the attributes which is considered critical for understanding 'who and what really counts' (Mitchell, Agle & Wood 1997). In the study conducted by Marzano and Scott (2006), the existence of different opinions among the stakeholders on destination branding resulted in the concepts of collaborative and power in order to produce a successful destination tourism plan. Power is defined as "the affect" and manifested in social relations based on four forms namely coercion, manipulation, persuasion and authority (Lukes, 1978; Wrong, 1979). The unity and cooperation among the stakeholders on destination branding is critical in achieving uniformity or consistency of destination brand values through a set of shared meaning (Morgan et al., 2003). In the context of tourism destinations, a tourism plan that ignores the needs of stakeholders will simply be a futile effort (Laws, 1995). The stakeholders such as local residents or communities act as little ambassadors who are directly involved with the experience offered to the tourists. Any refusal or failure by the marketers to engage them in destination branding will only create conflict or tension, and result in the inability to fulfill the promised and publicised experiences to tourists.

The residents or locals could also act as a contributor of unofficial information through word of mouth. Although this type of communication is informal, it can still be considered as an effective source of information (Baker, 2007; Mazzarol, Sweeney & Soutar, 2007). Based on previous studies, there are three personal motives that show why community and tourists are engaged in this type of communication: (1) the responsibility to share information with the community; (2) the enjoyment derived from information sharing; and (3) the desire to help others for not getting the same experience which not meeting their expectations (Baker, 2007; Walsh, Gwinner & Swanson, 2004). Hence, this is a reminder that should be taken into account by marketers when developing brand identity for a tourist destination. In the context of destination, brand is not what is required by the marketers, but it depends on experience, opinion and agreement of the stakeholders as to how they see the

destination. According to Blain, Levy and Ritchie (2005), a successful brand must reflect the exact image of experiences offered by the said destination.

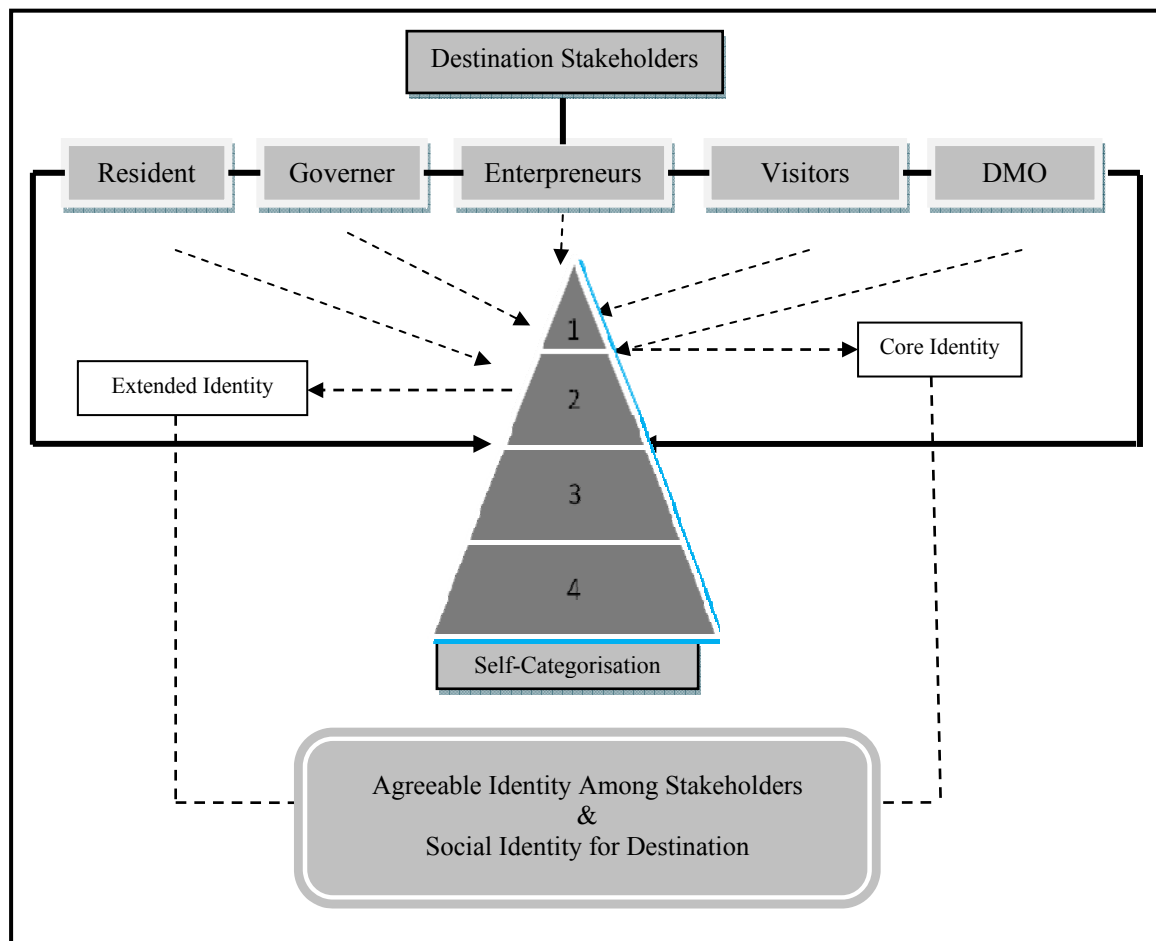
Theory of Social Identity

The theory of social identity refers to how people perceive and categorise themselves. Self is said as reflexive because it can take itself as an object and can categorise, classify or name itself in particular ways in relation to other social categories or classification, which is also known as self-categorisation (Stets & Burke, 2000). According to this theory, individuals form self-conceptions based on two elements, namely: (i) personal or self identity; and (ii) collective identity. Personal or self identity refers to our unique, personal qualities such as our beliefs, our abilities and skills, etc. The collective self includes all the qualities that arise from being part of a society, culture, family, groups, clubs, etc. For example, you may identify yourself as a Malaysian, Kelantanese, psychologist or tourist.

Based on social identity theory, a person has not one “personal self”, but several selves that correspond to the widening of circles of group membership. Different social contexts may trigger an individual to think, feel and act on basis of his personal, family or national “level of self” (Turner et al, 1987). Apart from the “level of self”, an individual has multiple “social identities”. Social identity is the individual’s self-concept derived from perceived membership of social groups (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Hogg & Vaughan, 2002). In other words, it is an individual-based perception of what defines the “us” associated with any internalised group membership. This can be differentiated from the concept of personal identity which refers to self-knowledge which is derived from the individual’s own unique attributes or personality. By internalisation of the social categorisation which defines a particular group’s memberships, they achieve specific social identities which may either have a positive or negative value. Members of stronger and higher-status groups gain a positive social identity and high self-esteem from group membership; members of the lower- status or subordinate groups have a less positive social identity and lower self-esteem (ibid).

Social identity theory introduced two groups based on social comparison process. There are (i) in-groups which refer to the persons who are similar to the categorised self; and (ii) out-groups, the people who differ from the categorised self. This theory emphasises that group membership creates in-group or self-categorisation and enhancement in ways that favor the in-group at the expense of the out-group. Turner and Tajfel (1986) for example, showed that the simple act of individuals categorising themselves as group members was sufficient to lead them to display in-group favouritism, which in turn, creates positive self-esteem by positively differentiating their in-group from a comparison out-group on some chosen value dimension. This reflects a positive distinctiveness where people’s sense of who they are is defined in terms of ‘we’ rather than ‘I’. Tajfel and Turner (1979) also identified three variables which contributed to the emergence of in-group favouritism- (i) the extent to which individuals identify with an in-group to internalise that group membership as an aspect of their self-concept; (ii) the extent to which the prevailing context provides ground for comparison between groups; and (iii) the perceived relevance of the comparison group, which itself will be shaped by the relative and absolute status of the in-group. Individuals are likely to display favoritism when an in-group is important to their self-definition.

Having a particular social identity means being identified or synchronised with a certain group, being like others in the group, and seeing things from the group's perspective. The basis of social identity is in the uniformity of perception and action among group members. In group-based identities, the uniformity of perceptions reveals itself in several ways (Hogg and Abramn, 1988; Oakes, Haslam and Turner, 1994). These may be categorised along cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral lines. Conceptually, social identity theory is the basis to transform the understanding of identity in psychology. It focuses on the sociality of the construct in at least three ways. The first looks at, social identity is a relational term that is- defining who we are as a function of our similarities and differences with others. Secondly, social identity is shared with others and provides a basis for shared social action. Thirdly, the meanings attributed with any social identity are basically a result of history and the presentday. Social identity is therefore something that links us to the social world. It is the link between the individual and society. Thus, based on the theory of stakeholders and theory of social identity discussed above, the proposed model to identify the identity of a destination and developing a successful brand for a destination are as follows:



The framework is mostly centred on stakeholders and their agreeability on the social identity of the selected destination. Stakeholders consist of local residents, the governor, entrepreneurs, visitors and DMO. TO develop a successful destination brand, these shareholders should work together to develop the different types of identities for the destination including core identity and extended identity.

First, the perception of stakeholders on the identity of a destination should be initially understood before any decision on destination branding can be developed. Through the identification of stakeholders' perception on how they see or perceive the destination, the identities mentioned will be categorised in the pyramid to measure which of the identity is most salient amongst them.

Once the identity is identified accordingly, the stakeholders' consent is needed in identifying which identity is agreeable as the salient identity (core identity) and extended identity. Once there is agreement amongst the stakeholders, then the social identity for the destination is developed and used to promote the destination.

Conclusion

As the stakeholders' perception and voice is very crucial in developing a successful brand for a destination, this framework will be tested its application in developing brand identity for a destination. Especially for those destinations that are in the process of developing its identity. And in future research, we will analyse how this framework is succeed in helping DMO builds 'glorious' brand for a destination.

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Building Lenggong World Heritage Site Brand Identity: Assessing Core Values Of Local Community

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This paper looks into the preliminary but yet critical step in developing a strong brand for the Lenggong Valley World Heritage site, that is the development of the site's brand identity. The Lenggong Valley has recently been listed as UNESCO's world heritage site. At this nascent stage, it is critical that the brand identity of the site is identified to ensure consistency and effectiveness of future promotion and marketing efforts. Brand identity in this study refers to the brand elements considered important by the stakeholders to be projected to the target audience. It represents the stakeholders' promise to the audience. As established in the literature, in developing tourism destination brand identity, it is important that the aspirations and cultural values of the brand owner (e.g. local residents, state and central Governments) is established at an early stage so that the development of tourism destinations will be pegged to their aspirations and values rather than external and alien values. The agreement of the stakeholders on the brand identity is very important not only to ensure a consistent and integrated brand identity will be projected to tourists, but also to assure that they will support and work together for the sustainability of the Lenggong Valley WHS. This research assesses the core values and aspirations of one of the key stakeholders of the Lenggong Valley World Heritage Site that is the local community. Twenty local community representatives, including the head of village and the head of an indigenous tribe, and local residents were interviewed to gain insights on what they consider to be key values to be encapsulated as the identity of the Lenggong Valley World Heritage Site. The findings revealed that the local community's values do not coincide with the values that were promoted in getting the valley enlisted as the World Heritage Site. The heritage that is highly valued by the local community encompasses non-archaeological heritage.

Key word: archaeological heritage, archaeological tourism, branding, brand identity, destination brand

Introduction

The Lenggong Valley was declared UNESCO's World Heritage Site in July 2012. The valley was selected based on its rich paleontological findings that span close to

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two million years, one of the longest records of early man in a single locality, and the oldest outside the African continent.

Consequent to the declaration, a pertinent question is how to develop the Lenggong Valley World Heritage Site (LVWHS) as a strong destination brand. The argument for developing the site as a brand is that strong resonance will be developed between the stakeholders and the destination that will encourage stewardship for the protection and preservation of the site. A strong brand will also contribute towards developing sustainable tourism at the site, characterized as a tourism that is ecologically sustainable, economically viable as well as ethically and socially equitable. The research presented here is part of a wider study on developing a strong brand for the LVWHS conducted under the Strategic Tourism Research Cluster, Universiti Sains Malaysia. The branding process often starts with identifying and developing the internal dimension of the brand, the brand identity. This paper explores the essence of the brand identity from the perspective of the local community to inform the development of the brand identity for the LVWHS.

Brand identity refers to the inclusion of brand associations considered important by the brand owner (or stakeholders) to be featured on the target audience and is a representation of the brand promise to the audience (Aaker, 2010). In this paper, the brand identity of destination is approached from the value-based perspective (Saraniemi 2009; Wheeler *et. al* 2011). The value-based perspective emphasises the values of internal stakeholders (e.g. local residents, state and central Governments) as opposed to external stakeholders (e.g. tourists) in developing the brand identity.

It is critical that the aspirations and cultural values of the internal stakeholders, particularly the local community, be established at an early stage so that the development of tourism destinations will be pegged to the values of local culture and not driven by the external values driven by commercialisation (Konecnik and Go, 2008). A brand identity that encapsulates the values of the local community will allow them to relate to the brand and encourage them to 'live' the brand and assume stewardship in the promotional, protection and preservation activities. Since the Lenggong Valley has been declared a world heritage site, we focus our research on the meaning of heritage as the essence to the LVWHS brand identity. Specifically, the questions that we seek to answer are (1) what does the term heritage mean to the local community and whether the community's perspectives on heritage are parallel to what have been declared by UNESCO (i.e. archaeological heritage) (2) what does the term world heritage mean to the local community (3) what are the key brand identity elements from the local community perspectives that could be identified for the LVWHS?

Literature Review

Destinations as a Brand

Brands are products that have been augmented in some ways to make it different from other similar products (Aaker 2010; Keller 2012). For example, archaeological heritage destinations, such as the Olduvai Gorge and the Lenggong Valley World Heritage Site, may be perceived as similar by the uninitiated. On the other hand, heritage destinations that have been differentiated through the values endowed on the brand name will help stakeholders generate a unique meaning to the destination brand.

Destination branding, however, are more complex than product branding because a destination brand (1) is more multidimensional than product brands, (2) has heterogenous stakeholders, is politically more complex, (3) requires a bottom-up approach that encapsulates community consensus, (4) is hard to measure in terms of its brand loyalty and (5) often faces problems in funding in both scale and consistency (Pike 2005). The third point on community consensus is particularly pertinent to the the development of brand identity of an archaeological heritage destination. The community consensus on the identity of the destination will ensure that they will feel ‘in sync’ with the brand, that is to have brand resonance (Keller 2012), such that they will be willing to assume stewardship in promoting, protecting and preserving the destination heritage. Brand resonance can be categorized into four categories: behavioural loyalty (e.g. consistently promoting the destination brand), attitudinal attachment (e.g. viewing the archaeological heritage as special), sense of community (e.g. feeling of community ownership over the destination) and active engagement (e.g. actively participating in conservation efforts or promoting the archaeological sites).

In building a strong brand, Keller (2001) suggested four steps 1) establishing the proper brand identity to create brand awareness, 2) creating the appropriate brand meaning through strong, favourable and unique brand associations, 3) eliciting positive, accessible brand responses, and 4) forging brand relationships with customers that are characterized by intense, active loyalty. This research focuses on the first and crucial step, that is developing the brand identity for the LVWHS.

Destination Brand Identity

At the core of a brand is its identity. Brand identity refers to the set of unique associations that represents what the brand stands for and encapsulates the brand owners’ promise of value or benefit to the customers (Aaker 2010; Kapferer 1999; Keller 2012). While a brand may have numerous elements associated to it, only the most salient among these associations form a brand’s identity (Keller 2012). These salient elements acts as the identifying factor and differentiate the brand from the rest of the competitors (Keller 2012, Aaker 2010). It is important to note that the concept of brand identity differs from the concept of brand image in that brand identity refers to the quality and values perceived by the brand owner whereas brand image refers to the values quality and values perceived by the consumers. The images that are formed by the consumers are not necessarily the ones that originate from or aspired by the brand owner.

The key to successful branding is to identify the brand identity clearly and communicate it effectively to the target consumers (Aaker 2010) because the brand identity helps consumers in their meaning making process. An identity that is distinctive and relevant provides added value to the consumers and helps the brand to generate market preference and command a price premium (Schmitt and Simonson 1997). Moreover, a consistent identity generates trust among consumers and encourages brand loyalty (Godeswar 2008).

Drawing from the brand marketing literature, the concept of brand identity has also been adapted to tourism destination context. In general, the principles are similar to product or service brand identity in that destination brand identity refers to essence of the destination or the destination’s sense of place. Like product or service brands, the identity is derived from the set of associations such as the geographical and

physical attractions, cultural elements and personality that are linked to the destination.

Unlike product and service brand identity development, the concept of brand identity are more complex in the destination context due to the multidimensional nature of brand destinations that involves multidisciplinary roots, numerous stakeholders and landscapes that lead to multiple identities that may or may not happily co-exist (Wheeler *et. al* 2011). For example, while the identity of products and services are defined based on the brand owner's perspective, the identity of destinations needs to refer to the various 'brand owners' or stakeholders that may lay claim to the destination. In the case of archaeological destinations, these stakeholders may include the state and federal government representatives, the archaeologists working on the site, the local tourist operators and the local community that may have contradicting perspectives on which elements should forms the core identity.

The value-based approach has been proposed as one of the solutions in addressing the complexity in developing brand identity (e.g. Wheeler *et. al* 2011; Saraniemi 2009). The value-based approach emphasises the 'buy-in' of the internal stakeholders so that they will 'live' the brand and assume stewardship in developing, maintaining and promoting the brand's core essence. In this approach, destination brands are designed to create a unique and appealing identity conveying values that are consciously or intuitively linked to the destination's sense of place (Williams *et. al* 2004). As brand identity by definition is inherently related to the internal stakeholders (i.e. those other than the customers or tourists), the value-based approach in developing brand identity focuses on engaging the values and identity of the internal stakeholders (Wheeler *et. al* 2011). These internal stakeholders are considered as the 'brand owners' as they are directly (e.g. tour guides) or indirectly involved (local community) in delivering the brand experience by facilitating the brand experience and the formation of the sense of place for the visitor.

The value-based approach in branding views brand identity not as something that a destination has (e.g. monuments and local food) but something that emerges from the interaction between the visitors and internal stakeholders (Cornelissen and Harris 2001). The interaction between the visitors and the internal stakeholders facilitate the visitors in conveying not only the objective meaning of the their various encounters with the destination attractions (e.g. monuments and food) but also their subjective, emotional values, thus providing a deeper level of meaning to their experience at the destination (Saraniemi 2010; Wheeler *et. al* 2011). As the brand promise is ultimately delivered through the interaction between the visitors and the internal stakeholders it is imperative that brand identity identified for the destination reflect first and foremost the value of the internal stakeholders as opposed to value of the visitors (Wheeler *et. al* 2011). Thus, the value-based approach emphasises both the functional benefits that visitors derive from the tangible offerings (e.g. monuments and food) but also the symbolic benefits derived from intangible offerings (e.g. the emotional connection to the monument and food).

It is imperative, however, that the destination brand identity that has been identified is agreed upon by all the key internal stakeholders. The buy-in of these stakeholders are important so that the core values of the brand will be communicated consistently through a set of shared meaning (Morgan *et. al* 2003). Conflicting views among the stakeholders and will result in the failure of the destination to deliver its promise. It is acknowledged, however, that identifying the values that all internal stakeholders will agree upon is not an easy task as these stakeholders "consumed" the

destination brand for different purposes including investment (e.g. tourist operators), academic pursuits (archaeologists) and employment (Wheeler et. al 2011). In this study, the values of the local community will be explored as a first step towards developing the brand identity for the LVWHS.

Background Of The Lenggong Valley World Heritage Site

The Lenggong Valley is a small district that lies in Hulu Perak, about 100 km away from Ipoh, the capital of Perak. The valley is surrounded by lush forests and hills featuring a number of rivers, waterfalls, caves and lakes. The valley was declared as UNESCO World Heritage Site in July 2012.

The LVWHS features four archaeological sites in two clusters which span from 1.83 million to 1,700 years ago, one of the longest records of early man in a single locality, and the oldest outside the African continent. The number of sites found in the relatively contained area suggests the presence of a fairly large, semi-sedentary population with cultural remains from the Palaeolithic, Neolithic and Metal ages.

The archaeological heritage are found in open-air and cave sites with Palaeolithic tool workshops that provide evidence of early technology. Workshop sites containing multiple tool types dating to 70,000 b.p were found at Kota Tampan, 200,000-100,000 b.p at Bukit Jawa, 40,000 b.p at Bukit Bunuh and 1000 b.p at Gua Harimau. Undisturbed *in situ* Palaeolithic stone tool workshops were also found on the shores of a paleolake and ancient river gravel beds and dated in a long chronological sequence. Hand axes found at Bukit Bunuh were among the oldest discovered outside of Africa, dating to 1.83 million ago thus suggesting an extremely early date for hominid presence in South-East Asia.

The Perak Man, South-East Asia's oldest most complete human skeleton, was discovered within Gua Gunung Runtuh cave. Perak Man is. It is radiocarbon dated to 10,120 b.p. The Perak Man was identified as Australomelanesoid, a hominid type occupying the western part of the Indonesia archipelago and continental South-East Asia at the end of the Pleistocene and early Holocene.

Methodology

The findings are based on in-depth interviews with 20 purposely composed samples of the Lenggong Valley local community. They are chosen to provide the layman perspectives of the local community of various social, cultural and functional backgrounds. They are not expected to provide expert views on archaeological heritage.

One respondent was the head of the Lenggong village that consists of several smaller villages. His work as the village head allowed him to gain in-depth insights on the social, cultural and economic aspects of the local community. He is also a historian by interest and has in-depth knowledge on the history of the valley.

Four of the respondents were members of the Lanoh indigenous group, or *orang asli Lanoh* – one of them is the head of the village, and the other three are individuals from different age groups (teenager, mid-thirties and elderly). The *orang asli Lanoh* represent the oldest members of the Lenggong Valley community and are expected to have in-depth knowledge on the heritage of the Lenggong Valley.

Two respondents were selected because their occupation allowed them to work close to the archaeological sites – one was the security guard at the archaeological field research centre and the other was the janitor at the caves

archaeological sites. The two, although not experts in the field of archaeology or heritage, have some awareness on the significance of the archaeological heritage.

Thirteen other respondents were individuals from six villages (the Ring, Beng, Geluk, Luat, Dinding and Geluk villages) that are located close to the archaeological sites. The Ring and Beng villages attract many tourists as they are located on an island abreast a river. The respondents from all six villages varied in their age, gender and occupation. The interviews ranged from half an hour to two hours. The objective of the interview was to gain rich and meaningful data. Interpretive thematic analysis was used to identify themes that help to answer the research questions.

Findings

The Meaning of Heritage

In exploring the essence of the LVWHS identity, the local community was inquired on what the term heritage meant to them. The respondents indicated that in general the term referred to the elements from the past that have been passed down from one generation to another. The elements may include both the tangibles such as artifacts, the natural environment and the intangibles such as ancestral line, myths, folklores and cultural manifestations including food, language, traditional dances, everyday norms and rituals. It is important to note, however, that the responses from the indigenous group, or *orang asli*, were markedly different from the other local community. The *orang asli* grappled with the concept of heritage, struggling with the dichotomy of the past and present, and the concept of the ordinary and special. In the discussion below, attempts have been made to differentiate the responses between the *orang asli* and the local community.

Top of mind to the local community when asked about the meaning of heritage was the natural environment including the caves, rivers, waterfalls, lakes and hills around the Lenggong Valley. Of these natural environment, the caves (or *gua* in the Malay language) were most highly appreciated because they have to an extent become one of the key identifying elements of Lenggong. The respondents indicated that the caves have drawn foreign and local visitors of different types, from the ordinary tourists to reknown professors, thus putting the remote small town of Lenggong on the world map. The respondents were aware that the caves attract visitors not only due to its physical attractiveness but also the archaeological richness that are hidden inside, particularly the with the findings of the Perak Man at the Gua Gunung Runtuh, and artefacts of such as pots and tools, and cave paintings in the other local caves. The respondents were aware that the caves have been gazzeted as national heritage under the purview of the National Heritage Department. It is important to note here that it is the cave on its own that are top of mind to the respondents rather than the archaeological findings. To the respondents, the archaeological findings were secondary in its importance as the caves in itself is special to them.

Interestingly, while the archaeological findings in the caves were clearly the key attractions to the visitors and become a national pride, they do not seem to be the key reason that have held the fascination of the local community. Instead, the local community were more keen to talk about the myths and folklores that are linked to the caves. Many talked about the rock formations inside the caves, purported to be the petrified humans and animals that have been cursed by a mythical force. For example, in the Gua Puteri one could find the rock formation of a princess, draped in a wedding gown, who had been cursed during her wedding. According to the

respondents, the local community used to be able to go to the the caves and request for wedding paraphernalia such as pots and pans that would appear in the caves the next day. The *orang asli* on the other hand did not appear to have the caves top of mind despite the fact that they believe the archaeological findings, including the Perak Man, were of *orang asli* origins. The *orang asli* used to live in the Gua Puteri or known as Gua Kajang to them, and thus the caves were viewed as part of life practicalities (i.e. providing shelter or in some cases used as a cemetery).

Other than the caves, the scenic elements of the Lenggong Valley are considered to be a valuable heritage. The local community is proud that the area has many natural attractions such as rivers, waterfalls, hills and forests that are still untouched by modernisation. To them the natural environment offers peace and tranquility, and sets their life apart from the busy life of the city. They are happy to share the nature with visitors and believe that while the visitors' key intention of visiting Lenggong might be to visit the archaeological sites it is the natural environment that will make them want them to stay longer. It appears from their responses that the archaeological heritage are important in drawing the visitors in but it is the natural environment that local community would really like to share. Their work as farmers, rubber tappers and fishermen have brought them close to nature and have made them highly appreciative of it. The *orang asli* in particular rely heavily on the forests for their daily income, everyday sustenance and medicine. Thus the natural environment resonates with the life of the local community and the *orang asli* more than the archaeological findings. They are able to articulate what it means to visitors better than what they could with the archaeological findings which meanings are felt better left to the interpretation of the academics and relevant authorities.

Many respondents refer to their Pattani ancestral line as part of the important heritage of the Lenggong Valley. The Pattanis are of the Thai origin and have incidentally become Malaysians due to historical resolutions over land ownership between the old Thai government and the colonial British. The local Pattanis consider themselves different from the other local Perak residents mostly due to their dialect, which to some extent is a language of its own with unique words that are not shared elsewhere in the country. Within the Lenggong community, the dialect sets the Pattanis and non-Pattanis apart. A respondent have even compiled a list of Pattani words that he has been sharing with a university professor. In terms of personality, the Pattanis in the Lenggong Valley describe themselves as friendly people who are easy to get along and are hospitable to visitors. These personality traits appear to be the pride of the community and are mentioned by almost all respondents.

The respondents also referred to their way of life as an important heritage. The communal elements are particularly strong in the community. House visits, either to visit the sick or just for a friendly chat, are common among the local community and are done during free time. To them the house visits allow them to show that they care for their neighbours and also a way to get the latest news. The village head explained that houses used to be built with a common, open area that adjoins the front part of the house and the kitchen. Visitors would know to head straight to the common area, bearing gifts during visits. These type of houses, however, are no longer around. A revisit to the past by rebuilding the houses might help to keep the tradition alive and at the same time help develop a stronger sense of place to the community and visitors alike. Another indication of strong communal elements are the concept of *gotong-royong*, identified as the idea of running community tasks together such as holding a wedding reception or cleaning the environment. While *gotong-royong* is not uncommon in Malaysia, the Lenggong community believes that the concept is

actively kept alive in Lenggong through regular group activities such as cleaning the environment and repairing the community mosque. A unique tradition is the grating of coconut activity, or *kukur kelapa*, which is done manually during the preparation for a wedding reception. The youth in the village will get together and sing along during the activity.

Food is another heritage that is the pride of the community. A food festival was held recently to showcase 52 local food, mostly derived from fresh water fish and local vegetations. The local community believes that their food is special because it is produced from sources that are grown or harvested locally and organically. The food might be available outside of Lenggong but they feel that the method and the ingredients used make them different in quality and taste. An example is the *ikan pekasam* (salty, fermented fish) that the community feels is of better quality than those from other places, attested by the fact that it is now a global export. Some food are unique to the valley, such as the *Ikan Cicah Air Kerabu* (fish dipped in a special herbal sauce), *Bloh Tok* (herbal, fermented fish), *Kebebe* (salad of various pounded leaves and seeds), and *Gulai Kemahang* (curry made of the kemahang root). The *orang asli* on the other hand feel that their food is ordinary and would not be of interest to visitors as they are not used to it. When probed on what they mean by ordinary, they explained that they prefer to eat rice and fish mixed with herbs cooked inside bamboo sticks because that would lend to a unique taste. Not realising that visitors may consider their 'ordinary' food as something special, for visitors they will cook curry chicken or food which visitors are more familiar with and cooked in normal pots and pans. An apparent difference here is that in the interaction with visitors, the *orang asli* strive to be hospitable by catering to the norms of the visitors and are prepared to be flexible in their way to meet those norms. While they are proud of their heritage, they might feel that their ways are too alien to the visitors; or perhaps they might feel that their ways are privy to the them and are not comfortable to share them with the visitors. The local community on the other hand is more enthusiastic about sharing their food and culture with visitors.

Myths and folklores permeate the responses of many respondents when explaining the origin of the places in the Lenggong Valley. Many extraordinary features of the place are traced to the works of mythical creatures such as one that had cursed a princess into a stone and another that has thrown a big rock from Kelantan (far east to Lenggong) which led to the formation of small lake in the area. Many of the names of the places in the area are linked to folklores. For example, Bukit Bunuh, literally translated as the Murder Hill, are better known among the local community for the tales of a husband and wife murder mystery rather than the paleontological evidence of human evolution dating back to 1.83 million years ago, one of the oldest in the world. Another area, Kampung Geluk is said to owe its name to a gold vessel (geluk) that appeared in the nearby river. What is quite intriguing is that the respondents seem to be convinced that the myths and folklores are historical facts that should be included in the interpretation of the area as a heritage site. The myths and folklores hold a special meaning for the local community in that they have turned the ordinary into something unusual, thus contributing to the uniqueness of the Lenggong Valley.

Archaeological findings are only top of mind to a few respondents when asked about the meaning of heritage. Of all the archaeological findings that have been excavated in Lenggong, the Perak Man predominates the responses. The respondents are aware of its existence and are able to provide considerable details on its identifying features and the location that it was found. However, their explanation did

not include the significance of the findings in terms of human evolution or culture, or what the findings mean personally to them other than the fact that it has made Lenggong famous at the national and global level. Their descriptions, based on what they have read in available literature or what they have heard from authoritative sources, are cursory, impersonal and lack the passion that accompanied the descriptions of the other abovementioned heritage. Perak Man, as a heritage, therefore does not resonate well with the local community, and it appeared to belong more to the 'others' (e.g. archaeologists, heritage authorities and the academia) rather than them. There are also respondents who disputed the interpretation of the the archaeologists based on religious grounds and ancestral historical accounts that ran in contrast to the interpretations. Nevertheless, they do acknowledge that the Perak Man is a significant, world-class finding and ought to be featured in the promotion of LVWHS.

The more recent paleontological findings at Bukit Bunuh that has led to the eventual listing of Lenggong Valley as UNESCO's world heritage site are hardly mentioned by the respondents. Many of the respondents are aware that there have been recent significant excavation at the site but are not seemed to be aware of the specifics of the findings. The only respondent who is knowledgeable on the Bukit Bunuh findings is a man who has worked as a security guard at the archaeologists research centre since the 1980s. He has also been a helping hand for the archaeologists at the excavation sites. His interactions with the archaeologists have made him well versed with the various archaeological findings in the area and thus is able to articulate the archaeological methods used in the field, the geological formation of over time, the meteor impact on the site and the significance of each of the archaeological findings. The Bukit Bunuh findings, despite bearing a significant meaning to the world of archaeology and reputed to challenge the current Out-of-the Africa Theory on human evolution, remain elusive to the local community.

The responses above revealed that to the local community the word heritage are linked more to historical elements with personal relevance such as the natural environment and cultural effects rather than archaeological findings that are excavated and found by 'others'. The heritage that they highlighted seems to have been assimilated as part and parcel of their life as a Lenggong residence, and hence it could be argued that the heritage have become part of their extended identity. The same, however, could not be said about the archaeological heritage. There was a sense of a distance when the respondents talked about the archaeological findings. As a heritage, the archaeological findings have yet neither to gain personal relevance with the local residents nor ownership. The sense of place of Lenggong therefore emanate more from the non-archaeological heritage.

The Meaning of World Heritage

The respondents were also asked on what the term world heritage means to them. Only the security guard working at the archaeological research centre could relate it to the UNESCO WHS listing and was able to identify Bukit Bunuh as the key site for the the paleontological findings that led to the eventual listing of the Lenggong Valley on the UNESCO's WHS listing. The other respondents appeared perplexed by the term but tried to provide an answer. Although some have heard of the term and that Lenggong Valley would be made a world heritage site they were not able to explain what the term actually means. Many felt that the term world heritage should relate to things from a considerable past as opposed to things from the immediate past. They also felt that a world heritage should be unique, referring to things that do not exist

anywhere else. According to some respondents, a world heritage should also be something that people from all around the world could appreciate. They felt that there are heritage that are of value to the local community but not to the people around the world, particularly those that have to do with the lifestyle and culture of the local community that are only relevant to them and thus are not of world-standard.

When asked for an example of a world heritage from the Lenggong Valley, the Perak Man appears as the clear favourite. The responses indicate that the choice could be attributed to the fact that the Perak Man has received wide recognition because it has been greatly researched by local and international researchers, has been officially recognised as a national heritage by the National Heritage Department and is also mentioned in history textbooks in schools. The respondents are unaware of the significance of the paleontological findings at Bukit Bunuh. This particular findings indicate that more work needs to be done in raising the awareness of the local community on the significance of the findings at Bukit Bunuh and how in combination of the other findings at the Lenggong Valley has led to its world heritage listing.

While raising awareness on the listing of the Lenggong Valley as a world heritage site is clearly in order, the more important task is to raise the level of stewardship among the local residents. At the moment, the local community do not seem to be able to relate to the archaeological heritage at the personal level. The archaeological heritage does not contribute to the local community's sense of belonging nor to their own identity as a Lenggong resident. As true stewardship could only occur if the archaeological heritage could lend a special meaning to the local community, the task for the brand manager is to develop a strategy in creating brand resonance that is linked to the archaeological findings.

Brand Identity Elements

When asked about the key identitying elements of the Lenggong Valley, they felt that the elements that are most synonym to the Lenggong Valley are the the *Perak Man* and the *Ikan Pekasam*. The Perak Man was rather an obvious choice considering that it has been widely acclaimed at the national and international level. The local community knew that the Lenggong Valley has made it on the world map because of the Perak Man. In another perspective it is an interesting choice because based on the findings presented above the Perak Man does not appear to bear significant personal relevance to the respondents. Yet, it has been chosen as the element to identify the Lenggong Valley. It could be implied that the the choice therefore was based on the outsider perspective, driven by the qualities and values that the local community think would be relevant to the visitors (the brand image) as opposed to qualities and values that are relevant to the community itself (the true brand identity). It has been warned that the use of such brand identity would lead to destination brands that fail to evoke a sense of place (Roberts and Hall 2001; *Wheeler et. al* 2011). It would be hard for the visitors to a form a meaningful engagement with the local community and tap on their knowledge when the community could only participate superficially in the interaction. The challenge in featuring the Perak Man as the key identity element of the Lenggong Valley WHS therefore is to develop an interpretation of the Perak Man that would be of value to the local residents.

The choice of the *Ikan Pekasam* as a brand identity element, while not an obvious choice, is nevertheless could be viewed as driven more by the internal stakeholders' perspective as opposed to the outsiders' perspective. To the local

community the *ikan pekasam* is valued not only as part of the local menu but also as a source of income to the many residents. The fact that it is now a global export has turned it into a local pride. Like the *Perak Man*, the *ikan pekasam* has also gone under academic research that has led to the establishment of the *ikan pekasam* production centre. Unlike the *Perak Man*, however, the *ikan pekasam* resonate at a personal level. The local community has a sense of ownership of this culinary heritage and would be able to offer a more meaningful engagement and more authentic brand experience to the visitors such as through the detailed explanation of the processing of the *ikan pekasam* or by cooking the *ikan pekasam* for the visitors' consumption. The choice of *ikan pekasam* as the key identifying element of Lenggong, however, poses a problem in terms of building the Lenggong Valley WHS as a destination brand because it does not have much to do with the area being promoted as a world heritage site. While it might not be feasible from the tourism perspective to feature the *ikan pekasam* as the core identity element, the *ikan pekasam* could be incorporated as one of the extended identity elements.

Conclusion And Implications

The findings of this research indicate that the meaning of heritage for the local community of Lenggong Valley does not coincide well with what has been listed in the UNESCO's world heritage listing. The UNESCO declaration commemorates the archaeological heritage of the Lenggong Valley because it bears significance to the current understanding of human evolution. The significance of the archaeological heritage, however, does not seem to strike much resonance with the local community. Instead, heritage to them, refers more to things that are personally relevant such as the natural environment, their ancestral line, their way of life, folklores and myths, and food. Although they do acknowledge the significance of the archaeological heritage they do not seem to be able to have an emotional or psychological attachment to it. The implication is that it will be a challenge to engage the local community to participate in the promotion, protection and preservation of the LVWHS if its brand identity is formulated based on the archaeological heritage alone. It is suggested that action is taken to encourage a higher level of emotional and psychological attachment to the archaeological heritage, perhaps through activities that will encourage the community to learn more about how the archaeological heritage are relevant to them now as well as the future. At the same time, the non-archaeological heritage that are highly valued by the community should also be incorporated as the extended identity of the LVWHS.

The findings also suggest that to the local community the key archaeological heritage that can be claimed to be world heritage is the *Perak Man*. Surprisingly, they do not seem to be aware of the more significant paleontological findings in Bukit Bunuh that has led to the valley being declared a world heritage site. The findings at Bukit Bunuh seem to be only appreciated by the 'others' such as the archaeologists, local and international researchers, local and foreign tourists. The mismatch in knowledge and awareness between the 'others' and the local community may prove detrimental to the sustainable development of LVWHS. Firstly, the local community might be communicating a brand story that does not relate to the paleontological heritage, thus failing to generate an authentic experience for visitors who are more interested in the paleontological heritage. Visitors might also be confused by the inconsistent stories that they experience through the media and their experience at the LVWHS. Secondly, it will be a challenge gaining stewardship from the local

community in terms of protecting and preserving the paleontological heritage would be harder than from the outside community. Protection and preservation effort may fall on deaf ears among the local community.

The non-archaeological heritage that were highlighted by the local community could be featured as the extended identity elements for the LVWHS. The LVWHS could be promoted as an area that are steeped in heritage, whereby the key heritage would be the key archaeological findings and the supporting elements would be the tangible and intangible heritage that bear more personal meaning to the local community. In doing this, a rich brand story could be developed for the brand. More importantly, the sense of place could be evoked to enrich the visitors' experience.

This research highlighted the key brand values from the local community perspectives. The alarming finding is that their values do not seem to coincide with the values that are promoted in getting the valley enlisted as the World Heritage Site. Although one might be inclined to dismiss such findings on the grounds that the local community has not been properly educated, the better response is to explore more on why there has been such a gap and how to bridge the gap. To this end, however, the research has only explored the values of one key stakeholders, namely the local community. More research is required on other internal stakeholders such as the tourist operators and local small and medium entrepreneurs to gain a better insight on the core values of the brand.

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An Importance-Performance Analysis Of International Visitors To Penang, Malaysia

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As one of the leading tourism destinations in Malaysia particularly after Kuala Lumpur and Pahang, Penang faces competition with its neighbouring competitors. To remain competitive, Penang needs to identify its strengths and weaknesses and consequently develop its future marketing strategies to secure high tourists' satisfaction. Indeed, tourist satisfaction needs to be measured and monitored. In light of this consideration, it is believed that the importance-performance analysis (IPA) was found to be a practical and useful technique for evaluating attributes that satisfy tourist and at the same time measure the importance of the same attributes to the tourists. This paper presents an application of the IPA technique to a sample of 372 international visitors who visiting Penang Island between September to October 2012. The data, analyzed quantitatively using matrices, showed the mean score of importance, which were plotted against performance onto two-dimensional axis. Results show that Penang performs well in five items namely (1) safety and security; (2) image of destination; (3) variety of attractions; (4) value for money; and (5) accessibility to the destination. On the other hands, findings show that there is room for improvement for accommodation services, and other areas like friendliness of the people and cultural/historical uniqueness appear to get too much attention. Moreover, this study is significant in identifying the prime market segments and evaluating the products and services provided. As a result, it provides an insight for tourism stakeholder such as hotels operators, public transport operators, food operators, policy makers and others towards enhancing future development of tourism in Penang.

Key words: importance-performance analysis, international visitors, tourist profiles, Penang

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Towards Sustainable Tourism: Synergizing Environmental And Social Practices In The Hospitality Context

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Sustainable business practices have gained prominence especially in the hospitality sector. Besides being environmental friendly, there is also a need to ensure that the businesses in the hospitality sector contribute to the local community. In this paper, the environmental and social community practices of an international resort in Phuket, Thailand are explained. A case study approach is used in this research, in which semi-structured interviews were conducted with the management and employees that are directly involved with the resort's sustainable practices. In addition, the resort's internal documents were also reviewed. The resort practices were benchmarked against other hotels' best practices to identify the performance gaps. The major key issues faced by the resort included lack of environmental awareness among its employees, the red-tape in releasing fund pertaining to investment on environmental practices, uncooperative customers, and local municipal's poor waste management policy. Three main areas that required focus and improvement are energy and water conservation and the channels of communication. Besides, the resort can further expand on its current linkages between its environmental and local community practices to ensure a wider outreach of local community in receiving benefits.

Key words: sustainable business, environmental management practices, social practices, linkages

Introduction

The hospitality business is one sector of the tourism industry that consumes high amount of water and energy and generates substantial waste. Hence, ensuring sustainable business practices is indeed essential in the hospitality sector so as to ensure the sustainability of the industry. The unsustainable tourism activities will then lead to lower tourists' attraction. Similarly, a destination may lose its appeal if there are social problems like commercialisation of culture and immigration of local people whose lives were affected by the tourism activities. Hence, there is a need for the business in the hospitality sector to participate in environmentally-friendly activities to ensure that all processes, products, and activities adequately address current environmental concerns and including the welfare of local community.

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Moreover, being green can be used as a competitive advantage given that there is trend of environmentally-minded consumers who choose hotels that demonstrated concern for the environment (Chan & Ho, 2006). Besides being environmental friendly, there is also a need to ensure that the businesses in the hospitality sector would contribute to the local community where they operate. However, studies have showed that an estimation of two-third earning from the tourism sector is repatriated out of developing countries rather than circulating within the countries to help the local development (Faulk, 2000). Besides that, there is also leakage of tourism revenues which occurred through holiday packages offered by tour companies as the revenue stayed in enclave and foreign ownerships and does not provide benefits to the local community. However, the social and community engagement practices usually involve provision of funds or ad-hoc financial assistance to the community. Thus, the businesses seldom strategized on social contribution and or in linking the environmental practices together with contributing to local community as their sustainable business practices. However, limited study has undertaken on social responsibility of the businesses within the tourism (Ragodoo, 2010).

Hence, this paper discusses the environmental management practices of Minerva Resort, a franchise managed by one of the world largest chain hotels group that is located Phuket, one of the world most popular tourism destination. This paper examines the environmental and social practices of the hotel, the current linkages done and the benefits received from the linkages. The hotel environmental and social practices are also benchmarks against industry best practices and practice of other hotels in the area.

Objectives

The objectives of the case study in relation to the synergizing the social and environmental practices of the resort can be formulated as under:

- Identification of the environmental and social community practices of the hotel
- Discovering the challenges faced in doing the environmental and social and community programs.
- Identifying the gaps in environmental performance and the social community programs

The paper ends with discussion and recommendations on ways to expand the current linkages to ensure the sustainability of the business.

Literature Review

Business sustainability is defined as “making sure business lasts long term while contributing toward economic and social development, a healthy environment and a stable society” (Mekong Private Development Facility, 2004). Hence, the term business sustainability commonly evolved around three principles: economic, environment and social which then similar to Triple Bottom Line where the balance is seek out between the three principles over the timeline.

There are main three key areas needed to be addressed by hoteliers and also all other related parties involve in tourism industry which are the economic development, environmental practices and societal equity. These can also be seen as the goals for accomplishing sustainable tourism.

Environmental Practices

According to Mensah (2006), there are main three areas which are hotels main concern as environment management practices, namely, energy savings, water conservation, recycling of waste and waste management. Evidently, based on a survey carried out by American Hotel and Motel Association (AH&MA) disclosed that hotel managers have rated their most concerning areas in both energy consumption and also waste management whereby recycling is the most commonly used method (Mensah, 2006). However, Zhao and Merna (1992, as cited in Mensah 2006) said that reducing wastage of water and improving water quality are also main concern as hotel industry is one of the highest industries in consuming clean water and often faced with costly water bill.

Community practices

Hotels should ensure that their operation benefits the local community as they indirectly played a significant role in ensuring the sustainability of the tourist destination (Goodwin, 2004). The protection of the local community is important since in most cases, the benefits of tourism often bypass the local community and most of the activities related to tourism contribute significantly to the degradation of the surrounding environment (Faulk, 2000). Thus, it is crucial for tourism businesses such as hotelier and tour operators to involve the local community so that the community gained benefits from tourism activities.

In 2008, The Global Sustainable Tourism Criteria (GSTC) set a set of standard which comprises 37 voluntary standards for tourism sustainability that encompass four pillars: effective sustainable management, maximise social and economic benefits to the local community and minimise negative impacts, maximise benefits to the environment and minimise negative impacts and maximise benefits to cultural heritage and minimise negative impacts (GSTC, 2009).

Background of the Organization Under Study

Minerva Resort Phuket is managed by a General Manager who is appointed by the parent company. The management style of franchised by managed hotel is that all management activities are to be followed with the given guidelines by the head quarter but any decision making in regards of monetary aspect will then need approval from the owners before proceeding. The resort has six main departments with each managing their own subunits. These departments are Rooms, Food and Beverage, Engineer, People Development and Quality, Finance and Business Support, and Sales and Marketing. The hotel has around 500 employees with only 2 foreign employees; the General Manager and the Food and Beverage Manager.

In December, 2004 a 9-Richter scale Tsunami hit the island of Phuket. The tsunami had a major on the tourism sector as almost 400 hotels, restaurant and souvenir shops were closed resulted in 5,000 people being unemployed (United Nations Economic and Social Council, 2005). The Tsunami tragedy was the turning point for Minerva Resort. The disaster has made the General Manager realised the need of providing helping hand to the local community rather than just the occasionally charity activities which have been carried out previously under the Corporate Responsibility programme.

The Study Methodology

This study was conducted using the following methods:

- Semi-structured interviews of employees at Minerva Resort
- Collection and analysis of data, information from secondary resources
- Comparative analysis with best practices

Semi-structured interviews

A total of five face-to-face interviews were conducted within the resort premises. Different key personnel were interviewed to have a better understanding of the case issues. The interviewees' responsibilities varied from top management to first-line employee within the resort. The interviews were recorded and transcribed.

Data collection from secondary sources

Both internal and external secondary information were collected from company's websites, company's Corporate Social Responsibility report and government reports.

Comparative analysis

In evaluating the performance of Minerva Resort's environmental practices, the industry best practices and common indicators by Earth Check were used. EarthCheck which is associated with Green Globe was developed with the joint cooperation between the Australian Government funded Sustainability Tourism Cooperative Research Centre (STCRC) and Brisbane-based company, EC3 Global. EarthCheck focus is key environment issues such as climate change, waste reduction and non-renewable resource management (EarthCheck, 2010).

The EarthCheck Programme has been awarded with international standard of compliances, namely, the Intergovernmental Panel for Climate Change (IPCC) Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories, the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) Greenhouse Gas Protocol, and the International Organisation for Standardization (ISO) 14064 range of standards for greenhouse gas accounting.

The Findings

The findings are divided into four main parts (i) the environmental practices (ii) the social community practices (iii) the link between environmental and community practices (iv) the barriers from achieving good social and environmental practices

Environmental Practices

Minerva Resort has been engaging in environmental protection through various practices since 2001. However the initial practices was more towards cost saving with the encouragement by the parent company when it established an internal intranet a tool that can monitor and measure hotels' performances in several areas such as energy efficiency, water consumption and also waste produced. With the adoption of the online system by Minerva Resort, the monitoring and measuring work has been carried out by the energy committee members on monthly basis. The data from the

system were feedback to the parent company. The system will then generate benchmark report on utility and waste usage of Minerva Resort against hotels within the chain.

Thus, this internal system acts as the stepping stone, encouraging Minerva Resort in implementing measures to reduce their energy, water consumption and waste by showing the possibilities in reducing operating cost by cutting down energy and water consumption and reduce wastage. Subsequently, Minerva Resort uses a new online sustainability management system called Environment Engage, which is a more comprehensive tool system it provides ways for hotels in becoming “green” through conservation of energy, water and waste consumption and it also gives advices on every aspect of the hotel lifecycle.

In addition, Minerva Resort set a new target to achieve energy saving of 6 to 10 per cent over three years (2010 – 2012) on per available room night basis. Through utilising the tool, the Resort has managed to reduce consumption and have quite a significant amount of saving through energy conservation, water saving and waste management.

Social -Community Practices

Initially, there are not many social-community practices carried out by Minerva Resort. The early social practices can be considered as minor activities including giveaway of old and broken electronic goods to college; old bed linens and towels to dog shelter, dry waste of recyclable items to private garbage collector and also wet waste of leftover food to both dog shelter and pig farmers is also a form of contribution to the local community. However, after the Tsunami tragedy, two up-to-date most successful social practices were carried out, namely, the Happy Homes project and also the two local schools adoption.

The initial work of House of Children started out in 2005. House of Children is basically a shelter home for streets children of Patong. These children are mostly orphanage that either were misplaced or were having drug issues after the Tsunami disaster. Funds were raised both external and internally by Minerva Resort to kick start the project. After a collection of seven million baths, a building was purchased with the capacity to accommodate up to 50 children. Although Minerva Resort is the initiator for House of Children, but it does not managed it.

Besides the additional funding from Minerva Resort, there have also been the involvements of Minerva Resort’s guests. Pamphlets and envelopes are prepared at the Customer Service counter in the lobby for guests who like to make contributions to House of Children. In addition, all employees are encouraged to contribute on voluntarily basis toward House of Children. They donate in terms of time and effort in helping around the House of Children during weekends. For examples, engineers usually volunteer for all the maintenance and repair work.

Aside from aiding the House of Children, there are two local schools located at Phang Nga bay that were adopted by Minerva Resort when the idea was first bought up by the restaurant staff. These two schools have been identified by the team as poor and needed some financial aid from outsiders in order to sustain as the budget received from the provincial government were insufficient.

Each of these schools signed a year contract with Minerva Resort whereby throughout the entire year, support in form of financial aid will be given. At the end of the year, reviews will be made by the visiting team in determining whether the support is still needed as each new school term begins.

The community practices by Minerva Resort focuses on two main areas which are donations and continuous financial funding. However, these types of community practices by Minerva Resort pose two questionable issues: how widespread does the benefit expand and the issue of dependency. Based on the types existing community practices, the benefits only reached certain level of community.

Current Linkage of Practices

Previously, Minerva has not linked its environmental practices with the social and community programs that it has undertaken. The Tsunami changes the direction of the resort. Thus Minerva Resort started to contribute back to the local community by doing charitable work combined with recycling programme such as selling recyclable items to private garbage collectors for a minimal sum, donating old and broken electronic goods to Phuket Technical College and giving out old bed linens and towels to local dog shelter. This method allows Minerva Resort to minimise amount of wastage sent to landfill while at the same time helping specific local people.

In addition, Minerva Resort has also policy of sourcing from the local supplier. Besides seafood source from local suppliers within Phuket, vegetables served in Minerva Resort are obtained from Chiangmai's hill tribes' people in the support of helping to increase their income under Royal King's Sufficient Economy project. The same goes for bathroom amenities which are locally produced products.

Apart from that, the consent were given by the General Manager to two local Thais in operating their store on the sidewalk of the resort does not only provide them with income and guarantee of low leasing rate but also at the same time helping to promote local arts and handicrafts to its foreign guests. This aspect is important as more modern shopping complexes built with stores selling foreign brand goods while the traditional products are slowly diminishing.

However, there are sustainability dilemma on sourcing vegetables from Northern Thailand, as long distance trucking is required for such delivery; Chiang, north of Thailand to Phuket, located in southern part of Thailand. The concern is on the emission of more carbon dioxide into the air through trucking although supporting local supplier is also part of sustainable practices.

The benefit of synergy practices is that Minerva Resort is able to reduce its wastage and the private garbage collectors have a job and income. Additionally, Minerva Resort commitment in practicing recycling despite the absent of government recycling initiative in Phuket can act as a role model to other hotels and resorts to undertake recycling programme. Besides that, it also serves as awareness to all Minerva Resort employees on the importance of recycling.

The local sourcing does not only helps in creating jobs for local people but it also allow the money to be circulating within the context of local economy which then can help to prosper the economy development. In addition, by creating job opportunities also translates lower unemployment rate and reduce of poverty which leads to lower crime activities and allowing local people to have better living standard. The act of supporting the local craftsmen by Minerva Resort showed their commitment in preserving local cultures and crafts. Hence with the current linkages, a bigger contribution can be made towards local community by helping them generating income through the tourism activities.

The Barriers to Good Social and Environmental Practices

Costly Investment

Some practices related in energy saving or using of rain water, for example, require costly investment to initial. Although it will yield return in investment, but often takes a long period of time. Hence, dealing with the effort for implementation of energy saving practices, the General Manager faces with limitation as the fact that decision-making authority that involved capital investment lies on the hand of both owners.

Lack of Enforcement

In the aspect of waste management too, Minerva Resort faced with challenges. One of the main reasons why outside contractor is hired and allowance of private rubbish collectors in coming to collect the rubbish is the lack of garbage policy in place and worst of all, there is no governmentally driven recycling scheme. There are no rules in placed that all garbage must be recycled. In fact, the main problem faced by the landfill operator is that 60 per cent of the garbage collected around Phuket and into the incinerator could not be burned properly because it is too wet. This is due to the fact that the municipal that collected the Phuket’s garbage will have it all dumping into the landfill.

The other issue is that the garbage fee collected by the municipal is not based on the amount of garbage produced by the hotel. Instead the garbage fee is charge accordingly to the type of hotel. Higher star-rating hotels are being charged more while motels and guesthouses are charged at a cheaper rate.

Lack of Communicating Initiatives

One of the criteria in succeeding the implementation of sustainable environmental practices requires in communicating environmental policies toward employees and staff. However, in Minerva Resort, the awareness of employees toward environmental issues remained low despite many practices have been implemented in daily operations. Table 1 below shows the checklist of administration and communication toward employees on environmental policies.

Table 1: Administration and Communication on Environmental Policies

Administration and Communication			
Check List		Yes	No
Communication and policies initiatives	Have environmental policy in place	/	
	Communicate environmental policies to employees		/
	Trained staff to be eco-friendly		/
	In-house environmental management training programme for employees		/
	Send employees for environmental management training programme		/
	Instruct employees on green practices	/	

The lack of communication and policies initiatives in various environmental practices showed the reason why employees in Minerva Resort have low level of awareness and self-conscious toward environmental issues. This reveal that all

practices that currently in place are being interpreted by employees as instructions to be obeyed given by the management rather than being truly understood the reasons of why these practices are important.

Therefore, without any communication on the available environmental policy, Minerva Resort's employees were not aware of the importance of environmental protection. Hence, the current practices to the eyes of employees were part of their job requirements, no more than an instruction to be obeyed.

Uncooperative Guests

Alike energy saving, Minerva Resort too faces some problem in its practices of water conservation. For example, the pilot test run in installing of low-flow shower heads have received much complaints from the guests questioning on the reason of low water pressure. As a four-star resort, the guests are expecting certain standard of services being provided by the resort and high water pressure for shower head is one of it.

As for the bed linens and towels, Minerva Resort faces many unresponsive guests. Initially, a reminder card is placed in every room to inform and ask for guests' participation in conserving water. But only three per cent of the guests responded to such act. Thus, Minerva Resort changed its method in dealing on this issue whereby all guests are being informed that bed linens and towels will only be changed on the second day. However, the right as guest in asking for fresh bed linens and towels on daily basis is undeniable. Hence, Minerva Resort felt that there is a need to create awareness among its guests in ways they can conserve water as part of the environmental practices.

Benchmarking Analysis

Minerva Resort environmental performance is benchmarked against industry best practices. In addition, Minerva Resort practices are also compared against other resorts' best practices in order to identify the performance gaps.

Evaluation of Environmental Practices

Minerva Resort has shown signs of improvement over the years with reduction in energy and water from year 2007 to 2009 shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Comparison between actual figures, baseline and best practices

Items		Years		
		2007	2008	2009
Energy (MJ/guest night)	Actual	335	153.5	158
	Baseline	480	480	480
	Best Practices	336	336	336
Total CO ₂ -e (kg CO ₂ /guest night)	Actual	87	38.7	35.6
	Baseline	80	80	80
Water Consumed (L/guest night)	Actual	1,387	548.8	580.5
	Baseline	900	900	900
	Best Practices	630	630	630

Waste to Landfill (L/guest night)	Actual	6	2.4	1.1
	Baseline	13	13	13
	Best Practices	9.1	9.1	9.1
Recycled /Composted Waste (%)	Actual	60	20	20
Cleaning Products (Points)	Actual	100	100	100
	Baseline	50	50	50
	Best Practices	80	80	80
Pesticide Products (Points)	Actual	100	100	100
	Baseline	50	50	50
	Best Practices	80	80	80

However, Minerva Resort showed a high consumption of water in 2007 exceeding both the baseline and best practices score. The resort then installed dual flush toilets which lead to better water conservation in 2008

Waste is measured accordingly to the amount sent to landfill and also the amount being recycled or composted. Both of the waste has exceeded the scores of baseline and best practices. The reduced amount of waste sent to landfill and the amount of waste recycled showed that lesser resources are being consumed hence lesser waste are produced. Lastly, as for use of both cleaning and pesticide products, Minerva Resort earned a full rating which is 100 points, indicating it is better than both Baseline and Best Practices level for the consecutive of three years.

Comparison against Other Hotels' Best Practices

Table 3: Comparison between the Other Hotels' Best Practices against Practices of Minerva Resort in Connection of Environmental Practices with Local Community Programmes

Minerva Resort Phuket	Banyan Tree Phuket	Evason Phuket
<p><i>Recycling Programme</i> Sell dry waste for a minimum sum to private garbage collector and giving out leftover food to pig farmers and owner of dog shelter. As for old and broken electronic goods are donated to Technical College while old bed linens and towels given to dog shelter.</p>	<p><i>Recycling Programme</i> Provide recycle materials which collected not only from hotel premises but also from employees' houses whom have signed up for contribution at a minimum sum to a local village entrepreneur who then sell it to recycling centre and earn some money which use for various health care, education and capacity building effort purposes.</p>	<p><i>Recycling Programme</i> Leftover food is sent to pig farmers.</p>
<p><i>Local Arts and Crafts</i> Two local artists charge with minimum rent on</p>	<p><i>Local Arts and Crafts</i> Opened Banyan Tree Gallery selling local</p>	<p><i>Local Arts and Crafts</i> Traditional Thai ceremonies are arranged at</p>

<p>available space in the sideway selling local crafts and arts (biodegradable products and products made of local materials) to the hotel guests.</p>	<p>handicrafts and eco-friendly products made by local women artisans and the proceedings are channelled back to support them with balance used up to open Santhitham Vidhayakhom school. The gallery acts as intermediary to promote local handicrafts on worldwide scale to ensure preservation of unique culture and skills. Besides that, provide training workshop for villagers in Narathiwat province to expand their range of basketry products.</p>	<p>appropriate date where guests learn about Thai traditions and customs. Thai cooking classes and batik painting classes are conducted on regular basis with the fees channelled back to local community.</p>
<p>Local Sourcing Seafood supply come entirely within Phuket while vegetables are source from northern Thailand, Chiangmai in support of local tribes' people. Resort other necessities are also locally produced products including of hiring local interior designers and contractors.</p>	<p>Local Sourcing Ensuring local suppliers used for resort daily needs.</p>	<p>Local Sourcing Preferences given to local suppliers and locally source products</p>
<p>Greening Communities Give a helping hand to local beach operators in cleaning up the beach.</p>	<p>Greening Communities Organised various beach cleaning up activities to ensure the lives of local people are not impacted by the tourism activities and for sustainability of the destination. Planting more than 8,000 trees over the period of three years to help rebuild natural coastal defence system that if ruin will affect the lifestyle of nearby villagers.</p>	<p>Greening Communities Beach cleaning activities on regular basis to ensure the cleanliness. Cooperating with local authorities for mangrove planting project.</p>

Source: Banyan Tree (2009) and Evason Phuket (2008)

Although contributions have been to the local community yet the benefits are limited to only certain individuals rather than the entire community as a whole. Here,

only one private garbage collector benefits from the sale of recyclable items to the recycling centre. As for the wet waste, the same situation applies as only one pig farmer and the owner from dog shelter benefits from the leftover food giving out for free by Minerva Resort. The fact that Minerva Resort has been renting its space to two local tenants at lower price compared to the market prices indeed help not only the survival of these two local store owners but also opening market access for local arts and crafts within Minerva Resort.

Recommendations

To reduce the energy consumption, Minerva Resort can adjust and set the air-conditioners in the guests' rooms and office to 25°C and above. This is due to the fact that for every 1°C decrease in air-conditioners' temperature is equivalent to an increase of 10 per cent in energy used (NSW Business Chamber, 2009). As for water conservation, instead of completely dismissed the installation of water restrictor devices due to guests complained on low water pressure, instead aerators can be replaced as it functions by using the airflow force to create greater pressure while reduce water consumption. Besides that, Phuket as a tropical island received up to 315 millimetres of rainfall during the wet season making installation of rain water harvester an ideal way of water conservation.

There are many ways Minerva Resort can adopt in enhancing the communication on environmental policies towards its employees. For example, newsletter can serve as a good source of publishing latest information on environmental practices. Additionally, examples of practices from other hotels under corporate umbrella brand can be included as case examples to employees in enhancing their knowledge allowing employees to be exposed to the latest techniques and methods deployed by hotels from worldwide.

Additionally, the education programme on awareness towards environmental practices can be extended to include the younger generation. Activities containing educational elements related to environmental can be organized by Minerva Resort in local school to create awareness and spreading knowledge of know-how to this younger generation. Minerva Resort could organise a recycling programme for the school children, encouraging them to reduce waste and recycle as part of their daily life. Environment related teaching materials such as videos, posters and illustrative books can be provided to schools for school children to adhere good practices.

Furthermore, Minerva Resort could have their guests participate in their community programmes. Continuous projects like having the orphanage to list down their desire Christmas present, hang those wishes on the Christmas trees, and displayed it in the Minerva Resort's lobby. Guests can then choose among the wishes listed and sponsor these presents to the orphanage children. Besides that, ornaments like Christmas trees and cards made by the less-fortune or orphanage children, Minerva Resort can help to promote it among its' guests, urging for some charitable works done while raising some funds.

Conclusion

This study examines on the current environmental practices and also the community programmes implemented by a resort in Phuket. It also examines the current linkages between these two aspects by benchmarking against other hotels' best practices to provide recommendations in the effort of further expanding the current linkages.

Overall, the resort does have a strong sense of commitment towards local community welfare and also support to the local suppliers. This resulted not only on lower cost from local procurement but also helping in contributing to the local economy. However, there are several improvements that can be made to the environmental and community practices of the hotel.

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Performance Management Of A Service Unit In Hotel Theoretical Review

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This paper aims to review the existing literature on performance management in the F&B department of hotels, its processes, and its effective management system framework. This paper discusses food and beverage systems and explains a system model framework of performance management in the area of F&B and its application to the hotel industry. The conceptual paper suggests an application of the system model in the F&B department and encourages hotels to improve its management to better serve their guests.

Key words: hotels, performance management, food and beverage, service unit

Introduction

In recent years, scholars and practitioners have dedicated more attention to managing performance. Many empirical studies have revealed that the concept of performance management is profoundly related to the survival and the success of an organization (Razalli, 2008; Richard *et al.*, 2009). On this basis, former researchers such as Harris and Mongiello,(2011) have studied the performance systems of hotels and have found out the main reason behind hotel management performance improvement. According to Langhorn,(2004); (Spears, 1995), the performance management system can be implemented in the managing process of food and beverage departments as it aids in management decision making. Managers are assisted in solving related issues for improving the overall performance of the services. Effecting both the internal and external operational environments can ease the overall managing process.

Researchers have repeatedly mentioned the importance of food systems for managers (Brodner, 1960; Kirk, 1962). A large part of this management is in the food service department in order to increase the responsiveness, quality, profitability, and the value of employees in the F&B department. This tends to attract more customers acting as key pulling factors to fulfill guest satisfaction and loyalty. The purpose of the study is to identify the organizational performance management systems in the food and beverage departments and, in turn, improve its performance. First, this paper presents a literature review regarding hotel management performance, and managing performance management of a service unit. Second, the research conceptual

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framework prepared for the food and beverage departments are outlined. Third, the conclusion will then be presented.

Methodology

This study attempts to review the existing literature on food service unit, and managements. Using extracted sources from existing theories and concepts, a model of a food and beverage and its management service is proposed.

The Development Of Performance Management System In Organization

The System Concept

The system may be viewed as a closed or open type based on the amount of communication within their environments. The food service operations are viewed as open systems (Gregoire & Spears, 2006; Spears, 1995). The application of this system concept has been used to facilitate problem solving and decision making for managers. These systems focus on the totality of the organization rather than its process or parts and take into consideration the impacts of both the internal and external environments. Many food service models have been discussed in trade and professional literature which had helped to enable managers suppliers to evaluate their current practices. A impact of the proposed changes in food service operations as presented by researchers has also been shown (Daivd, 1972; Freshwater, 1969; Martin, 1999).

Prior to 1960, the analytical act to find a reasonable approach was used to examine each organization. The era of this system began in the 1960s focusing on the syntheses to act on combining separate parts into a conceptual whole. Consequently, effectived managers must have been capable of coordinating the complexity of the organizations by focusing on the interactions and interrelationships of their components and subsystems. This would ensure every individual person working together towards a common goal for the organization (Gregoire & Spears, 2006). To explain the system further is to define it as a collection of interrelated parts or subsystems consolidated by a design to obtain one or more objectives. Lunchsinger and Dock,(1976) cited in Gregoire and Spears,(2006) where they added a list of fundamental applications of a term system:- (i) a system designed to accomplish an objective, (ii) a subsystem of a system which has an established arrangement, (iii) interrelationships exist among the elements, (iv) the flow of resources through a system is more important than those of the subsystems, (v) organization objectives are more significant than those of the subsystems. The systems approach to management is simply keeping the organization objectives in mind throughout the performance of all activities. It requires a communication network and coordination among all parts of the organization and the decisions or actions by the manager in one area of the operation that may affect the others.

The Food and Beverage Organization as A System

The basic system model of an organization is shown in Figure 1 with the three main parts of a system; the input, transformation, the output of a system. The input of a system is defined as any human, physical, or operational resource required to accomplish the objectives of that system. The transformation involves the action or

activity used in changing the input into a desirable output, for example activities involved in the production of food. Will result from transforming the input that represents the achievement of the system's goal.

Figure 1: Food and beverage organizational system

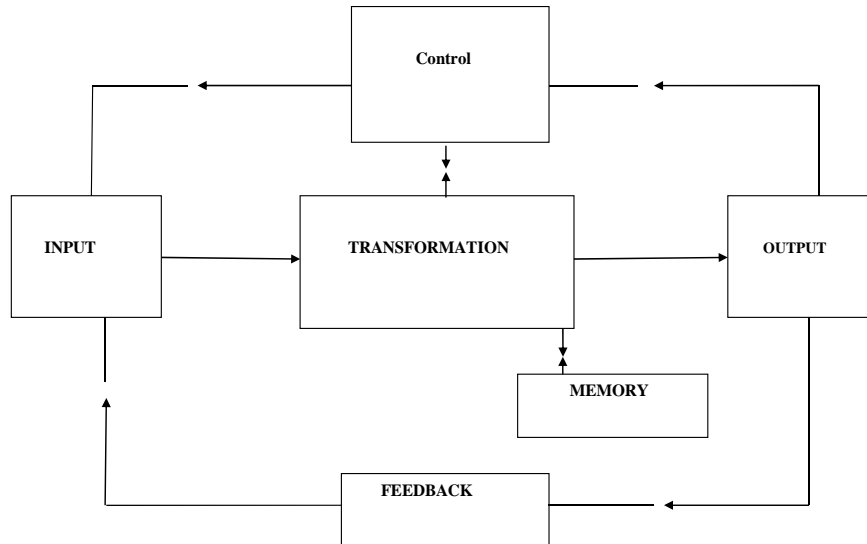


Figure 1: Expanded system model of an organization. Adopted from Gregoire and Spears,(2006).

As an example, the primary output in a food service system is the production of the desired quantity and quality of food to meet customers needs. The expanded system model of an organization includes four supplementary parts: control, memory, environmental factors and feedback. Internal and external controls provide guidance for the system. Internal control consists of plans which include the goals and objectives of the organization, standards, policies, and procedures. External control consists of local, state, and federal regulations and the contracts with outside hotels (Gregoire & Spears, 2006; Van Rensburg, 2004). The control elements play an important role in a system which must ensure its resources are used effectively and efficiently to accomplish the organizational objectives. It executes the functioning of an organization within legal and regulatory constraints and provides standards to be used in the evaluation of operations. The next important element is the memory of the system which includes all stored information and provides historical records of the system's operations. This helps to analyze past records that assist the manager in making plans to avoid the repetition of previous mistakes used in computer technology (Cole, 1996; Gregoire & Spears, 2006).

Other factors in the system known as environmental factors take place outside the food service system but yet have their impacts on the components of the system. They may also include the technological innovation, globalization, and competition changing demographics as well as and political changes (Davis *et al.*, 1998; Van Rensburg, 2004). The feedback includes those processes by which a system has repeatedly received information from its internal and external environment. Ultimately, this can help the system adjust to the changes required for the organization. The instant feedback from guest comments could be valuable information to the manager. In this way, the food and beverage organization without the existence of these feedback mechanisms becomes comparatively a closed system and may have detrimental effects (Dabbas, 2000).

Conceptual Framework of Food Service System Model

A food service system model, shown in Figure 2 was developed to demonstrate the application of the system theory in a food service organization. Close examination reveals that it is based on the basic systems model of an organization which includes the input, transformation, and output. The additional components of the control, memory, environmental factors and feedback are from the expanded systems model of an organization as seen below and shows the integral parts of the food service system (Bellas & Olsen, 1978; Richard *et al.*, 2009).

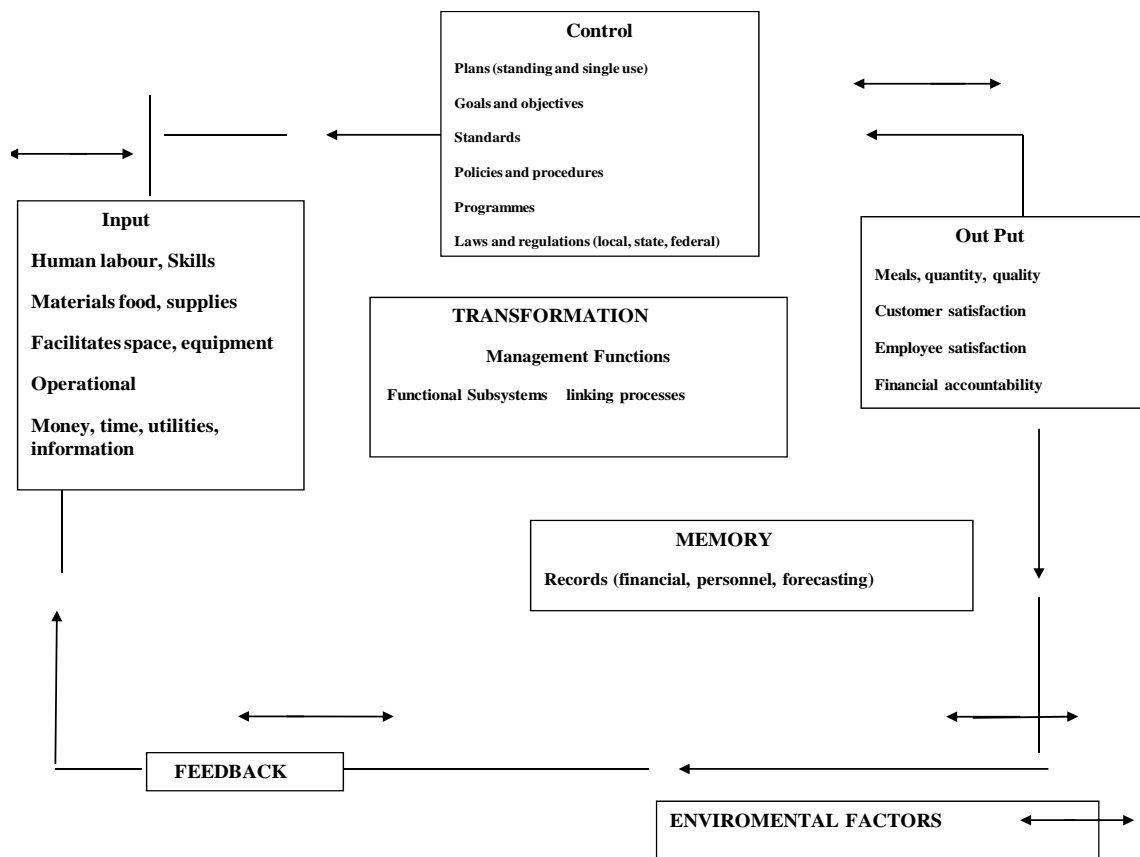


Figure 2: Conceptual framework of a food service system model. Adopted from Gregoire and Spears (2006).

The type of system selected can determine the characteristics and activities of the subsystems much like a full service restaurant serving fine cuisine. This would have a much more sophisticated and elaborate production unit (Gregoire & Spears, 2006; Van Rensburg, 2004; Wood, 1994) than a similar limited menu. It is understood that the distribution and service subsystem are the most important differences between restaurants and outside food service operations. The design of these subsystems should be in such a way as to meet the unique characteristics of these various food service organizations. To do so would show, the existence of a systematic approach required for the overall objectives of an organization and be considered along with the interrelationship amongst the parts of the system.

Management functions are normally the integral components of the transformation elements. These functions are performed to manage the subsystems for accomplishing the system objectives. They include planning, organizing, staffing,

directing, and controlling (Bellas & Olsen, 1978; Gregoire & Spears, 2006), and used to manage the operations of human resources, finances, and the marketing process. The linking process of decision making, communication and balance are needed to coordinate the characteristics of the system in the transformation of inputs to outputs (Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Van Rensburg, 2004).

Consequently, the kind of communication in this process is actually a way of transmitting the decisions and other information including verbal and writing. The balance needed can be referred to the management ability to maintain the organizational stability under a shifting technological, economic, political, and social condition (Gregoire & Spears, 2006; Payne & Theis, 2003). Outputs are the goods and services that result from the transformation of the inputs in the system and how they express the objectives to be achieved. The inputs to the food service systems model includes human (labour, skills), materials (food, supplies), facilities (space, equipment), and operations (money, time, utilities, information). The outputs include the meals (quantity, quality), guest satisfaction, and financial accountability. The transformation process involves changing the inputs to outputs, the functional subsystem (procurement, production, distribution, and service, sanitation and maintenance), management function (planning, organization, staffing, leading and controlling), and the linking processes (decision making, communication and balance) Dabbas,(2000). The primary output of a food service system is the meals at proper standard quality and quantity. In addition, customer and employee satisfaction along with financial accountability is considered as a desired outcome. From this point of view, the objectives of the food service is to produce the highest possible quality of food at the lowest possible cost by the customers. The objective of food production is to satisfy the expectations, desires, and needs of the guests. The financial output is applicable to a profit or nonprofit food service organization where a specific profit objective is generally defined as a percent of income in a nonprofit organization. The financial objective generates a certain percentage of its revenues in excess of expenses to provide funds for renovation, replacement costs, or expansion of its operations (Cronje, 1993).

Control

Control refers to what encompasses the goals and objectives, standards, policies, and procedures, and programs of the food service organization. The menu is considered to be the most important internal control of a food service system which controls the food and its labor costs. The type of equipments needed by customers, employee satisfaction, and of course profit must also be considered. All plans are, however, internal control of the system that maybe either standing or single in use (Casbarian, 1966; Cho & Wong, 1998; Gabriel, 1999; Gregoire & Spears, 2006; Thorner & Manning, 1983; Van Rensburg, 2004).

Memory

Memory stores and updates are to be used in a food service system; hence, the inventory, finance, forecasting, and personal records and copies of menus, are among the records that management should maintain. Reviewing past records will additionally provide information to the manager while analyzing trends and making adjustments in the system (Gregoire & Spears, 2006; Walker, 2006).

Environmental Factors

Factors such as technological innovations, globalization, competition, changing demographics, and government regulations external to the food service operation are considered environmental. They serve on how food service relates and interacts with guests, employees, government officials, vendors, crop growers, food distributors truckers, health inspectors, and several other influences affecting its operation (Freshwater, 1969; Gregoire & Spears, 2006; Wood, 1994). These environmental factors often require organizations to be flexible and willing to make adjustments in quality awareness while remain focused on success. Environmental scanning is a term used to describe searching and the acquisition of information concerning events and trends external to the organization.

Feedback

Feedback often provides the essential information for the continuation of a system's effectiveness. It is needed for evaluating, controlling, assisting and adapting a system to the ever changing external and internal environmental conditions (Gregoire & Spears, 2006; Vanden, 1980). The effective use of feedback is quietly critical to maintain the viability of a system. Therefore, a food service manager must evaluate and use them on a regular basis. All customer comments, plate waste, patronage, profit or loss, and employees performance and morale, are also to be carefully considered.

Conclusion

A method of understanding of the interrelatedness of tasks was conducted in the food service operation. This will aid employees and managers to be more productive in the workplace. The study also suggests an appropriate application of the system's theory and food service model. The necessity of food and beverage systems for F&B managers is also discussed. With regard to the improvement of hotel management performance through the food and beverage department, several terms have been used to describe the characteristics of the system interdependency. Its reciprocal relationship of a single part of a system with each part mutually affects the performance of the others. The dynamic equilibrium or steady state is a continuous response and its adaptation of the system to its internal and external environment means that the same or similar output can be achieved by using different inputs by varying the transformation process. Therefore, the food service system model includes inputs which are transformed into outputs through controls. Memory also impacts the transformation process and certain environmental factors which can influence the inputs, transformation, and outputs. Feedback provides information concerning the quality of outputs to effect the change of the system while analyzing food service operations use the suggested model (Cheng *et al.*, 2009; Waller, 1996).

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Tenant And Landlord Duties In A Hotel Set-Up

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Hotels have existed as a business in Malaysia since Malaya (as it was then called). It is known that since 16th Century hotels provide businesses of furnishing rest and accommodation to travelers. The turning point during rapid development in the hotel business was when the hotel proprietors rented the hotel premise to other business operators in the hotel premise in order to provide more facilities to the customers. This paper focuses on this legal issue and examines the duties of tenant and landlord in the hotel set-up using the qualitative research methodology.

Key words: landlord, tenant, duties, hotel set-up

Introduction

Generally, landlord is defined as ‘a person of whom lands and tenements are leased and tenant is described as a person in possession of the lands by the lease or tenancy agreement (Mozley & Whiteley, 2001). Rights and liabilities between landlord and tenant are spelled out under the respective tenancy agreement signed between them. For example, should injury to users of the hotel facilities which provided in the hotel premise be caused by the negligent act or failure to warn against a dangerous condition, which party will be responsible to the claimant? Should the action be taken against the hotel proprietor (‘landowner’) or the business operator (‘tenant’)? When the hotel entered into the tenancy agreement with the tenant, the hotel as the landowner has the benefit to receive rental from the tenant and indirectly prospective customers increased as a result of the high publicity of the hotel. It seems to suggest that the right to control the premises is an important factor to determine the duty of an owner and occupier of premises (*Butcher v Scott*, 1995). The issue of right to control and liability of landlord and tenant in the hotel set-up needs to be addressed.

Methodology

This paper will rely on local and foreign statutes, case reports, articles from journals and books. The research also uses comparative method where the research compares the issues of right to control and liability of the landlord and tenant in the hotel set-up. This paper is a qualitative research approach.

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Literature Review

According to F. Bohlen and Eldredge, historically, in feudal England the emphasis was all on the side of the proprietors of landed estates. Hence, it was not expected that in an age in which feudal lords were practically sovereigns, they would not be subject to liability for harm to persons on the land (F. Bohlen, 1926; Eldredge, 1937). Pertaining to the term of 'landowner', according to Gary T. Shara, the term 'landowner' is said to be synonymous with 'land occupier' (Gary T. Shara, 1968-1969).

Edward A. Strenkowski pointed out that in the middle of 19th Century, English judges developed a system of categorizing land entrants. The movement was made in order to control the extension of landowner liability. He exposes that the landowner's responsibility is in the aspect of duty of care based upon the entrant's classification. According to him, the history of this subject is one of conflict between the general principles of the law of negligence and the traditional immunity of landowners (Edward A. Strenkowski, 1979-1980).

Jacqueline L. Hourigan observed that an owner's liability to an injured party depended upon the status of the individual. With regards to legal status of the visitor, Jacqueline L. Hourigan states that the common law recognised three categories: (1) trespasser; (2) licensee; and (3) invitee. The rationale behind such a distinction was to determine the duty of care owed by a landowner to a party injured on its property. She contended that the determination represented "a rough sliding scale, by which, as the legal status of the visitor improves, the possessor of the land owes him more of an obligation of protection (Jacqueline L. Hourigan, 1995).

Donald W. Fish pointed out that the law of landowners' liability has developed upon the basic assumption that the occupier has the initiative to invite persons to enter his premises and to exclude or expel those who are not welcome (Donald W. Fish, 1965-1966). Meanwhile, Manley O. Hudson contends that the "ownership" of land is not to be regarded as a fixed absolute, however, but rather as a skeleton to be filled in with certain rights. (Manley O. Hudson, 1922-1923). The legal consequences on liability of a proprietor is then discussed by Gibson B. Witherspoon, where he discusses that generally the liability of a proprietor in failing to render the premises reasonably safe, or failing to warn invitees of existing dangers, must be predicated upon the proprietor's superior knowledge concerning the danger (Gibson B. Witherspoon, 1971). Meanwhile, Linda Sayed observed that when a landowner purposefully invites a person onto his premises for the purpose of transacting business, he has both the obligation to use ordinary care to keep his property reasonably safe and the obligation to warn of dangers on the premises (Linda Sayed, 1996-1997).

In the absence of literature on the specific duties of tenants and landlord in a hotel set-up, this paper is to fill this gap. In order to determine the duty of care of the hotel owner and tenant, the right to control is an important criteria. It is examined that generally, an occupier of land is deemed to have control only over the area which he possesses (Bruce G. Warner, 1991-1992). In *Wheat v Lacon & Co Ltd* (1966), the court held that at common law the responsibilities of the occupiers are based on the control, and not the ownership of the premises. The occupier need not have entire or exclusive control. Any person having sufficient degree of control over the state of the hotel is an occupier. At common law, when a landlord lets premises to a tenant he is treated as parting with all control even though he may have undertaken to repair. Thus, a landlord is not an occupier at common law (Richard Johnstone, 1983-1984). Patrons in a hotel are classified according to their relationship with the hotel

management and the duty of care varied toward such persons depending on their classification (Nuraisyah Chua Abdullah, 2010).

Findings

In the case of *Payne v. Roger* (1794), it was held that if there is an agreement that the landlord will conduct repair work, then he will be liable for any interference that arises as a result of any disrepair. It is mentioned that generally the liability of a proprietor in failing to render the premises reasonably safe, or failing to warn invitees of existing dangers, must be predicated upon the proprietor's superior knowledge concerning the danger. It is commented that the modern trend is to hold the occupiers duty to an invitee is not necessary discharged by giving warning of a dangerous condition but also must extend to doing more such as removing the danger or preventing invitee access to even open or obvious danger areas (Gibson B. Witherspoon, 1971). In a hotel liability suit, the issue arose is the duty of the owner or occupier of the hotel, the classification of the plaintiff who institutes the claim against the hotel owner or occupier, and also whether the claim is made on the ground of a negligent activity, what is the condition of the hotel and the foreseeability of the wrongful acts on the hotel (Tab H. Keener, 1997). It seems to suggest that control is a prerequisite to liability of the hotel owner, regardless of where the injury occurred. For example, in *Exxon Corp. v. Tidwell* (1993), the question as to whether the defendant had specific control over the safety and security of the premises, rather than to draw inference from defendant's general control over operations (Tab H. Keener, 1997).

It is examined that as a general principle, a hotel owner who has surrendered possession and control of a certain part of the hotel will not be held liable for any nuisance that occurs on those part of the hotel. However, if the hotel owner authorises the nuisance either expressly or impliedly, he will be held liable. In *Hussain v. Lancaster City Council* [1999], the test is whether the nuisance is something that is normal and natural as a result of the tenancy or lease. In the case of *Brew Brothers Ltd v Snax (Ross) Ltd* (1970) it was held that the landowner or landlord is also liable if he ought to have known of the nuisance at the time the tenancy commenced. However, it is mentioned that this rule does not apply if it is not reasonable for him to have known of the situation giving rise to an actionable nuisance. Knowledge of the existence of the nuisance before the hotel is let will make the hotel owner liable. It is examined that this is based on the principle that the creator of the nuisance is liable even though he does not occupy the land himself. It is stated that even if the tenant has agreed to improve the conditions on the hotel, the hotel owner will nevertheless be liable if the nuisance is not abated, as it is his responsibility and not the tenant's to remedy the nuisance before it causes injury to another (Norchaya Talib, 2011).

In the case of *El Chico Corp. v. Poole* (1987) the court held that a landowner has no duty to prevent criminal acts of third parties who are not under the landowner's supervision or control. However, it was held in the case of *Nixon v. Mr. Property Management* (1985), the court held that a landowner does have a duty to protect invitees on the premises from criminal acts of third parties if the landowner knows or has reason to know of an unreasonable risk of harm to the invitee. It is observed that this duty developed out of the premise that the party with the 'power of control or expulsion' is in the best position to protect against the harm'.

Conclusion

Knowledge of the existence of the nuisance before the hotel owner enters into a tenancy agreement with the tenants will make the landlord liable. It is examined that this is based on the principle that the creator of the nuisance is liable even though he does not occupy the land himself. It is stated that even if the tenant has agreed to improve the conditions on the premises, the hotel owner will nevertheless be liable if the nuisance is not abated, as it is his responsibility and not the tenant's to remedy the nuisance before it causes injury to another. It is examined that if the nuisance occurs after the tenant has occupied the premises, liability of the hotel owner depends on the degree of control that he has over the premises (Norchaya Talib, 2011).

The law provides that in the landlord-tenant relationship, a duty to the tenant also attaches when the hotel owner has the right of control over the leased premises (Jones v. Houston Aristocrat Apartments Ltd. (1978). Hence, it is timely that the hotel owner and tenant in the hotel set-up are aware of their duties in this modern era.

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Chinese Customers' Satisfaction With Hotels In Hong Kong: Determinants And Moderating Role Of Chinese Populations

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Witnessing the growing demand of hotel accommodation by Chinese tourists, many hoteliers wager their business growth on the Chinese outbound markets. Satisfying Chinese customers becomes a top priority mission of many hotel managers nowadays. In response to this market trend, an extensive range of studies on determinants of customer satisfaction have emerged in recent years. However, little scholarly attention fell into the prioritization of the determinants. Additionally, while comparative research on customer satisfaction was not scant, most of them compared tourist segments characterized with divergent geographical and cultural profiles. Little comparison was made between tourist segments comprising with people originated from different regions of a nation, in particular in the formation of satisfaction. The current study attempts to fill in these research gaps. Drawing on the findings from a survey with 152 Chinese tourists visiting Hong Kong, this study confirms that perceived performance of the hotel is the most important determinant of customer satisfaction, followed by perceived value and customer expectation. The impact of the determinants on customer satisfaction was stronger among Mainland Chinese than Taiwanese/Macanese, which indicates that Taiwanese/Macanese customers were more demanding and more difficult to be pleased than the Mainland Chinese counterparts. Hoteliers are recommended to customize their service as according to the places of origin of their Chinese customers.

Key words: chinese tourist, Hong Kong, hotel, moderator, satisfaction

Introduction

Customer satisfaction has traditionally been recognized as the thrust of business success (Barsky, 1992), given that it is a major determinant of many industrial practitioners' desirable outcomes like repeat purchase behavior of the customers, positive word-of-mouth, and lower cost of transactions (Anderson, Fornell, & Lehmann, 1994; Bowen & Chen, 2001). While customer satisfaction is emphasized by practitioners across industries, it is of particularly important in the service industry

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like hotel (Barsky, 1992). Along with the trend of globalization and the boom of travel activities, there is currently an ardent demand on hotel accommodation, specifically among Chinese tourists. Mainland Chinese have more freedom to travel abroad than ever disregard financially or politically. Nowadays, tourism and hospitality practitioners generally recognize the importance of Chinese outbound markets to their business growth. Coherent with this business trend, there is a growing body of research on Chinese tourist behavior (Lee, Jeon, & Kim, 2011; Wong & Lau, 2001; Xu & McGehee, 2012).

Customers are more intelligent and demanding than ever (Rayport, Jaworski, & Kyung, 2005). They keep shifting up their expectations on the service they are going to receive from the practitioners. This consumer pattern is particularly salient in the hotel sector where hoteliers generally highlight how excellent their services are in every service encounter. Competitions in the hotel industry are very keen. In order to outperform the competitors, hoteliers strive to maximize customer satisfaction. Strategies and practices centering on creating a satisfactory experience for their customers are always topping the agenda of hotel managers. In response to this market condition, studies pertinent to the determinants of customer satisfaction in the hotel industry proliferated (Han, Kim, & Hyun, 2011; Kandampully & Suhartanto, 2000; Li, Ye, & Law, 2012). Although the relationships between customer satisfaction and its determinants like expectation, perceived performance, and perceived value of the service have widely been examined in the past (Bosque, Martín, & Collado, 2006; Song, Li, Van der Veen, & Chen, 2011; Song, Van der Veen, Li, & Chen, 2012), there is a lack of consensus on how the determinants affect customer satisfaction. Moreover, little scholarly attention falls into the prioritization of the determinants. Thus, there are rooms for continuous investigations on the determinants of customer satisfaction in various countries and settings, in order to derive a more concrete conclusion on the formation of customer satisfaction.

Coherent with the contention that cultural difference is a critical factor that varies customer satisfaction (Pizam & Ellis, 1999), there is an extensive range of studies comparing customer satisfaction among various countries and ethnicities (Kozak, 2001; Master & Prideaux, 2000; Wong & Law, 2003). However, to date, no study has been found on examining whether people from the same ethnicity and nation but different regions would have different evaluations on the service providers. This research gap deserves more scholarly attention given the growing importance of Chinese customers in today's economy. Many practitioners consider Chinese customers a homogeneous market segment and serve this segment with standardized practices. However, this may adversely affect the effectiveness of their practices because Chinese customers originated from different regions like Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Macao are characterized with highly distinct historical, political, and economic profiles in relative to Mainland Chinese (Holdaway, 2007). These distinctions may lead to divergent customer appraisals on the service. The current study aims to achieve three major objectives:

1. To examine the relationships between hotel customer satisfaction and three major determinants including expectation, perceived performance, and perceived value of the hotel service;
2. To prioritize the impact of each of the determinants;
3. To investigate whether and how Chinese coming from different regions of China (Chinese populations) moderate the relationships between customer satisfaction and its determinants

Literature Review

Customer satisfaction has traditionally been suggested as a relative concept (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2001). Swan and Combs (1976) proposed that customer satisfaction is in virtue of the comparison of expectation with performance. Their perspectives set the ground for the renowned satisfaction model called “expectancy-disconfirmation model” (Oliver, 1980). Since then, the model was further extended and refined by numerous researchers (Swan & Trawick, 1981; Tse & Wilton, 1988). The model posits that customers feel dissatisfactory if the performance falls below their expectations (negative disconfirmation). In contrast, consumers feel satisfactory if the performance meets (confirmation) or exceeds their expectations (positive disconfirmation). Hill (1986) refined the model by suggesting that a match between performance and expectation (confirmation) does not necessarily result in satisfaction, but rather an indifferent/neutral evaluation. He rationalized his argument with the “zone of difference” to account for minor discrepancy between perceived performance and expectation. Any evaluation falls into this zone would not result in any inclination towards satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

While expectancy-disconfirmation model was widely endorsed, there is another school of scholars who suggested that satisfaction mirrors consumers’ assessment on the quality of performance (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982; Halstead, Hartman, & Schmidt, 1994). Their perspectives excluded expectation in the formation of customer satisfaction. However, the framework was criticized for the potential misinterpretation of customer satisfaction. A person who perceives that the performances in two different conditions are fair may feel highly satisfied in one condition and dissatisfied in another. The reason is that expectation in the former condition is low, whereas expectation in the latter condition is high. Moreover, even the customers simply rely on perceived performance to form their satisfaction. It is very likely that they have implicitly compared their perceived performance with expectation (Llosa, Chandon, & Orsingher, 1998). Therefore, it is unreasonable to drop expectation in the formation of satisfaction and thus expectancy-disconfirmation model should be an effective approach to predict customer satisfaction. However, expectancy-disconfirmation model is not without limitation. Some scholars argued that satisfaction can still be resulted upon negative disconfirmation as long as the perceived performance is above the minimum tolerable level (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2001). Another problem is that customers may not use predictive expectation as the reference point to evaluate their satisfaction because the reference point may change to other things like what other customers have received upon the post-experience phase (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2001). Furthermore, expectation is argued to be formed based on previous experiences. Therefore, if it is the first time for a customer to experience a product or service, expectation may not play any role in the formation of customer satisfaction (Johnson & Fornell, 1991).

Among the wide range of theories that were utilized to explicate how tourist satisfaction is determined, expectancy-disconfirmation theory remains the most adopted one (Song, et al., 2011). Chon (1989) maintained that tourist satisfaction is a function of how well the evaluative experience fits predictive expectations. Pizam and Milman (1993) demonstrated that disconfirmations are effective in predicting tourist satisfaction, in particular when the tourists are segmented in terms of their reasons for travel. Expectancy-disconfirmation theory has also served as the ground of many structural models of tourist satisfaction (Hui, Wan, & Ho, 2007; Song, et al., 2011; Song, et al., 2012).

While price appears to be a significant predictor on tourist satisfaction, many studies showed that the assumption is not absolutely true (Hui, et al., 2007). Some tourists would psychologically prepare to pay high price for a service (Hui, et al., 2007). In this regard, price plays little role in the formation process of satisfaction. In the realm of hotel service, price is of a concern when tourists are making their purchase decision rather than at the post-experience moment. Instead, perceived value is salient at the post-experience phase. Previous studies revealed that perceived value is a vital predictor of tourist satisfaction as it is a reflection of whether the price they paid is comparable to what is gained (Chen & Chen, 2010; Song, et al., 2011; Song, et al., 2012). A positive value is perceived when the assessed quality exceeds what people paid, and hence satisfaction would be resulted. In contrast, a negative value is in virtue of a lower assessed quality than payment, which would in turn result in dissatisfaction. Given that price has already been taken into account in the evaluation of value of the service, it may be more reasonable to posit perceived value rather than price as a determinant of tourist satisfaction.

Our literature review indicates that expectations, perceived performance, and perceived value predict tourist satisfaction. It was assumed that these relationships also work in the hotel context. Therefore, the following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1: Expectations pose a negative impact on tourist satisfaction with the hotel

Hypothesis 2: Perceived performance poses a positive impact on tourist satisfaction with the hotel

Hypothesis 3: Perceived value poses a positive impact on tourist satisfaction with the hotel

Individual difference has long been suggested as an effective predicting factor of customer satisfaction (Johnson & Fornell, 1991). This factor was of great interest among researchers of tourist satisfaction as well, specifically on how culture, nationalities, and country of residence affect tourist satisfaction. Master and Prideaux (2000) found that origin of residence played a significant role in determining holiday satisfaction. Kozak (2001) revealed that nationalities significantly affected tourist satisfaction with various attributes of a destination. In a comparative study, Wong and Law (2003) reported that Western tourists were more satisfied with the shopping experience in Hong Kong than the Asian counterparts. While prior comparative research tended to examine tourist segments characterized with divergent geographical and cultural profiles, little comparison was made between tourist segments consisting of people originated from different regions of a nation (i.e., similar culture and physical distance from a destination). This research gap is particularly pertinent to China, which is constituted by administrative regions characterized with highly distinct historical, political, and economic profiles (Holdaway, 2007). Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Macao, though belong to China, are governed in a different political system from Mainland China. These three regions share some common characteristics among each other. All of them have experienced a long govern period by foreigners in recent history. Their social and economic developments are closer to each other than Mainland China. Therefore, it is not unreasonable that tourists originated from these regions would differ from Mainland Chinese counterparts in the formation process of satisfaction with the hotels in a destination. In this regard, the following hypotheses were formulated:

- Hypothesis 4: The impact of expectations on tourist satisfaction with the hotel varies with Chinese populations
- Hypothesis 5: The impact of perceived performance on tourist satisfaction with the hotel varies with Chinese populations
- Hypothesis 6: The impact of perceived value on tourist satisfaction with the hotel varies with Chinese populations

Methodology

Hong Kong was selected as the setting for this study. It is one of the most popular destinations in Asia and has been experiencing a significant growth in its tourism and hospitality industries over the past decade. This is not surprising given the internationalization of the city, the availability of multi-lingual service providers, its well-developed transportation system, its unique blend of Chinese and Western culture, and the vast shopping opportunities in the jurisdiction. More importantly, Hong Kong is proximate to many emerging and lucrative tourism source markets like Mainland China and South-east Asia. These advantages provide sound justifications for tourists to choose Hong Kong as their destination. Although inbound tourists of Hong Kong are coming from different parts of the world, a majority of them were Chinese tourists as over 70% of them were originated from Mainland China, Taiwan, and Macao in 2011 (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2012).

The survey was conducted during the summer time of 2011 at the sites where the Hong Kong Tourism Board conducted its tourism survey. Upon the outset of the survey, the respondents were asked to indicate the hotels that they stayed in the trip. Their expectation, perceived performance, perceived value, and satisfaction were assessed with respect to the hotels that they specified. Each of the four constructs was measured with multiple items adapted from previous studies (Chan, et al., 2003; Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Jaesung, & Bryant, 1996). Eleven-point scales ranging from 0 to 10 anchored by extremely poor to extremely good, completely disagree to completely agree, and far below my expectations to far exceed my expectations were harnessed (see Appendix).

Results

Among the 152 respondents, 88 (57.9%) were females. The proportions of respondents' age ranges did not deviate much from each other – 25% were 16-25, 28.9% were 26-35, 27.6% were 36-45, and 18.4% were 46 and above. The majority of the respondents have completed college and university education (72.4%). Their monthly household income mainly fell into the two lowest ranges including US\$1,000-2,999 ($n = 59$, 38.8%) and less than US\$1,000 ($n = 36$, 23.7%). Additionally, most respondents were repeat visitors ($n = 97$, 63.9%). Given that the sample sizes of Taiwanese and Macanese tourists were small and our earlier review indicates that Taiwan and Macao are similar to each other in a number of aspects, they were merged into a single group ($n = 65$, 42.8%) in the analyses and coded as zero, whereas tourists from Mainland China ($n = 87$, 57.2%) were coded as 1. Table 1 displays the demographic profile of the respondents.

Table 1: Profile of Respondents ($n = 152$)

	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	64	42.1
Female	88	57.9
Age		
16-25	38	25.0
26-35	44	28.9
36-45	42	27.6
46 and above	28	18.4
Education		
No formal education	1	.7
Primary/elementary school	1	.7
Secondary/high school	22	14.5
College/university	110	72.4
Postgraduate	18	11.8
Monthly household income		
Less than US\$1,000	36	23.7
US\$1,000-2,999	59	38.8
US\$3,000-4,999	19	12.5
US\$5,000-6,999	14	9.2
US\$7,000-9,999	10	6.6
US\$10,000 or more	14	9.2
Previous visit frequencies		
Never	55	36.2
1-3 times	62	40.8
4-6 times	20	13.2
7-9 times	3	2.0
10 times or more	12	7.9
Chinese markets		
Taiwan/Macao	65	42.8
Mainland China	87	57.2

Reliability and validity of the measures in our study were assessed. The Cronbach's alpha values of expectations ($\alpha = .90$), perceived performance ($\alpha = .96$), perceived value ($\alpha = .93$), and satisfaction ($\alpha = .91$) were much higher than the generally accepted benchmark (.7) (Nunnally, 1978) (Table 2). The values could not be improved through item deletion. Thus, reliability of the instrument was adequate. Validity of the scales was assessed as according to Ryu and Han's (2010) suggestions. Given that within-construct correlations are generally greater than between-construct correlations whilst within-construct correlation patterns are different from between-construct patterns, both convergent and discriminant validities can be deemed adequate (Table 3). Based on these results, the individual item scores of each construct were averaged before pursuing the statistical analyses.

Table 2: Reliability of the Measures

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Expectations	Coefficient $\alpha = .90$			
EXP1	14.66	11.99	.78	.89
EXP2	14.41	12.63	.80	.87
EXP3	14.63	11.59	.85	.83
Perceived performance	Coefficient $\alpha = .96$			
PP1	14.56	15.45	.91	.95
PP2	14.50	15.47	.93	.93
PP3	14.55	15.32	.91	.95
Perceived value	Coefficient $\alpha = .93$			
PV1	7.1	4.91	.88	-
PV2	7.1	4.68	.88	-
Satisfaction	Coefficient $\alpha = .91$			
SAT1	13.1	16.34	.82	.86
SAT2	14.1	16.82	.78	.89
SAT3	12.9	18.95	.85	.84

Note. EXP = expectations; PP = perceived performance; PV = perceived value; SAT = satisfaction.

Table 3: Correlation Matrix of the Variables

	EXP1	EXP2	EXP3	PP1	PP2	PP3	PV1	PV2	SAT1	SAT2
EXP2	.705*									
EXP3	.773*	.797*								
PP1	.544*	.677*	.656*							
PP2	.548*	.746*	.658*	.896*						
PP3	.562*	.690*	.712*	.870*	.899*					
PV1	.607*	.759*	.748*	.749*	.771*	.808*				
PV2	.505*	.653*	.657*	.857*	.843*	.849*	.876*			
SAT1	.413*	.584*	.558*	.763*	.756*	.763*	.720*	.784*		
SAT2	.342*	.511*	.479*	.695*	.694*	.686*	.658*	.710*	.728*	
SAT3	.400*	.552	.571*	.813*	.793*	.792*	.715*	.797*	.821*	.761*

Note. EXP = expectations; PP = perceived performance; PV = perceived value; SAT = satisfaction; * $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Examinations of the hypotheses in this study followed the widely adopted approach suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). Hence, hierarchical regression analyses were pursued. Following Ryu and Han's (2010) approach, five separate equations were formulated (see Table 4). All three independent variables were firstly entered to the regression equation (i.e., equation 1) in order to examine hypotheses 1 through 3. Then, the proposed moderator Chinese population was added to form equation 2, which helped to examine whether Chinese population was a pure or quasi-moderator (Sharma, Durand, & Gur-Arie, 1981). A pure moderator is one which does

not influence the dependent variable by itself, but through interactions with other independent variables. A quasi-moderator is one which would influence the dependent variable by itself in addition to the interaction effects. After that, the interaction terms (expectations x Chinese population; perceived performance x Chinese population; perceived value x Chinese population) were separately added to form equations 3a, 3b, and 3c. These three equations were utilized to examine hypotheses 4 through 6.

Table 4: Regression Models

$SAT = \alpha + \beta_1EXP + \beta_2PP + \beta_3PV$	Equation 1
$SAT = \alpha + \beta_1EXP + \beta_2PP + \beta_3PV + \beta_4CP$	Equation 2
$SAT = \alpha + \beta_1EXP + \beta_2PP + \beta_3PV + \beta_4CP + \beta_5(EXP * CP)$	Equation 3a
$SAT = \alpha + \beta_1EXP + \beta_2PP + \beta_3PV + \beta_4CP + \beta_5(PP * CP)$	Equation 3b
$SAT = \alpha + \beta_1EXP + \beta_2PP + \beta_3PV + \beta_4CP + \beta_5(PV * CP)$	Equation 3c

Note. EXP = expectations; PP = perceived performance; PV = perceived value; SAT = satisfaction; CP = Chinese population (Taiwanese/Macanese and Mainland Chinese); α = intercept term, β = regression coefficient; EXP/PP/PV * CP = interactions between moderator and independent variables.

The results are shown in Table 5. In the first equation, satisfaction was regressed on expectations, perceived performance, and perceived value. The R^2 value (.754) indicates that the three independent variables explained approximately 75.4% of the variance in satisfaction. All three independent variables significantly predict satisfaction as according to the directions specified in the hypotheses (expectations = -2.677, $p < .01$; perceived performance = 7.022, $p < .01$; perceived value = 4.701, $p < .01$). Therefore, hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 were supported. Additionally, the β values indicate that satisfaction was mainly influenced by perceived performance ($\beta = .608$), followed by perceived value ($\beta = .411$) and expectations ($\beta = -.167$) accordingly.

In the second equation, Chinese population was added to predict satisfaction. There was no significant improvement on the R^2 value ($\Delta F = .001$; $p > .05$). Moreover, Chinese population was not a significant predictor of satisfaction ($t = -.714$, $p > .05$). However, when Chinese population was treated as a moderating variable (see equations 3a, 3b, and 3c), the R^2 values improved (ΔF of Equation 3a = .008; $p < .05$; ΔF of Equation 3b = .009; $p < .05$; ΔF of Equation 3c = .011; $p < .05$). The effects of the interaction terms on satisfaction were all significant (β of expectations x Chinese populations = .520, $p < .05$; perceived performance x Chinese populations = .526, $p < .05$; perceived value x Chinese populations = .545, $p < .05$). Thus, Chinese population was a pure moderator (Sharma, et al., 1981). Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 were all confirmed.

Table 5: Results of the Regression Models

Model	Variable	β	t value	p value	R^2
Equation 1	EXP	-.167	-2.677	.008	.754
	PP	.608	7.022	.000	
	PV	.411	4.701	.000	
Equation 2	EXP	-.169	-2.698	.008	.755 ^a
	PP	.609	7.024	.000	
	PV	.420	4.746	.000	
	CP	-.030	-.714	.477	
Equation 3a	EXP	-.440	-3.219	.002	.763 ^b
	PP	.599	6.993	.000	

	PV	.427	4.885	.000	
	CP	-.417	-2.332	.021	
	EXP * CP	.520	2.224	.028	
Equation 3b	EXP	-.178	-2.892	.004	.764 ^c
	PP	.318	2.112	.036	
	PV	.428	4.910	.000	
	CP	-.392	-2.463	.015	
	PP * CP	.526	2.356	.020	
Equation 3c	EXP	-.175	-2.849	.005	.765 ^d
	PP	.610	7.163	.000	
	PV	.107	.717	.475	
	CP	-.383	-2.664	.009	
	PV * CP	.545	2.564	.011	

Note. EXP = expectations; PP = perceived performance; PV = perceived value; SAT = satisfaction; CP = Chinese populations (Taiwanese/Macanese and Mainland Chinese).

- a. $\Delta R^2 = .001$, $\Delta F(1,147) = .509$, $p = .477$
- b. $\Delta R^2 = .008$, $\Delta F(1,146) = 4.946$, $p = .028$
- c. $\Delta R^2 = .009$, $\Delta F(1,146) = 5.549$, $p = .020$
- d. $\Delta R^2 = .011$, $\Delta F(1,146) = 6.573$, $p = .011$

Conclusion

The present study aims to examine how tourist satisfaction with hotel in Hong Kong is determined. Our findings indicated that perceived performance, which was the most important factor, positively predict satisfaction. The second major determinant was perceived value, which also exerted positive impact on satisfaction. Expectation was the least important determinant in relative to perceived performance and value, though its negative impact on satisfaction was also statistically significant. In this regard, hoteliers should strive to perform well in various aspects of their service in order to gain positive evaluations from the customers. Definitely, providing value-for-money experiences for the customers is also important.

A major contribution of this study is to introduce Chinese population as a moderator of the relationships between tourist satisfaction and its determinants. This is important to understand whether formation of satisfaction varies with people coming from different regions of a nation/country. Our findings revealed that the effects of the determinants on tourist satisfaction were stronger among Mainland Chinese than the Taiwanese/Macanese group. This reflects that Taiwanese/Macanese tourists were more demanding and more difficult to be pleased than the Mainland Chinese counterparts. Given this finding, hoteliers are recommended to be vigilant to the places of origin of their Chinese customers upon the provision of services. In order to maximize tourist satisfaction, hoteliers should customize their service as according to the Chinese population rather than provide standardized service for all Chinese customers.

While the current research makes important contributions to understand how tourist satisfaction with hotels was affected by a mix of determinants and how Chinese population works as a moderator, this study is not without limitations. First, this study was only conducted in Hong Kong. Generalization of the results needs to be cautious. Similar studies can be replicated in other destinations, especially those non-Chinese dominant destinations. Future studies may also assess whether the

moderating effects can be found in other nations. Second, the sample size in this study was small which limits the representativeness of the results. Thirdly, expectation was measured at the post-experience stage and thus may be contaminated by the experience (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2001). Future studies are recommended to ask respondents about their expectations prior to their experience. Finally, the conceptual model in this study has not incorporated any impact caused by individual differences like the demographic profile of the respondents. It would be interested to develop a more sophisticated model by including variables concerning individual differences in the future.

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Appendix: Measurement Items

Constructs	Scale	
Expectation		
1. Before my experience with the hotel, I expected their overall service performance would be...	Extremely Poor (0) – Extremely Good (10)	
2. Before my experience with the hotel, I expected their ability to perform the promised service reliably and accurately would be...		
3. Before my experience with the hotel, I expected their ability to meet my personal needs would be...		
Perceived performance		
4. During my experience with the hotel, I perceived their overall service performance as...		
5. During my experience with the hotel, I perceived their ability to perform the promised service reliably and accurately as...		
6. During my experience with the hotel, I perceived their ability to meet my personal needs as...		
Perceived Value		
7. Given the service quality of the hotel, I rate the value for money as...		
8. Given the price I paid, I rate the service quality of the hotel as...		
Satisfaction		
9. I am overall satisfied with the services of the hotel...	Completely Disagree (0) – Completely Agree (10)	
10. To what extent did the service performance of the hotel meet your expectations?	Far Below my Expectations (0) –	
11. Imagine a hotel which is perfect in all aspects of service performance and rate it as 10. Please rate the service performance of the hotel you recently visited in Hong Kong	Far Exceed my Expectations (10)	

Job Satisfaction And Turnover Crisis In Malaysia's Hospitality Industry

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Turnover crisis reducing has been highlighted as a remarkable research theme in the hospitality industry. Regardless of the significant number of studies on employee turnover, it remains a vague issue and requires further research. It is well known that the service industry is highly dependent on the "human factor" which has become a major part of the hospitality product. The aim of this study is to give a clearer idea of enhancing employment factors to reduce the turnover crisis. Mobley's model (1977) determined how job dissatisfaction can lead to job turnover. The results of this study will show that improving the work environment and increased wages, by analyzing the internal and external factors, could decrease the turnover crisis. An intention to stay within the hospitality organization amongst, unacceptable working conditions, poor training and low salaries could lead to higher employee turnover.

Key words: hospitality, labour, turnover, crisis

Introduction

Hospitality is considered one of the fastest global rising industries, contributing to more than one third of the service business (ILO, 2010, cited in Bharwani, 2012). It has embraced the service industry model: service intangibility, production and consuming inseparability, and the heterogeneity between customers and service suppliers (Kuslivan *et al.*, 2010). Primarily, the hospitality industry strongly depends on the human factor and direct contact with customers. Human resources become the major role of the product, playing a decisive part in enhancing the organizational image (Bharwani & Butt, 2012). Literature reviews have argued that employee turnover rates are usually affected by employee dissatisfaction with the overall work environment, working conditions, and wages (Tracey & Hinkin, 2008). Many scholars have studied the causes which probably lead employee decision with regard to quitting. The search for other jobs in other industries in order to evaluate and compare the working environment may give an employee the intention to seek other employment opportunities (Lee, 1988). The cost of turnover greatly impacts other companies (Tracey & Hinkin, 2008). The purpose of this paper is to identify factors affecting hospitality labour to turn over. First, discusses the employment factors

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affecting job satisfaction. Second, a brief rehearsal of literature concerning to this factor leading to a turnover, and finally, present outcomes of this research.

Methodology

This study attempts to review existing literature on hospitality and tourism employment, employee turnover, employment factors, and employee satisfaction. It proposes the Mobley model (1977), and a theoretical framework explaining the relationship between job satisfaction and employee satisfaction on service quality and customer loyalty. To enrich the discussion, the results of theoretical studies undertaken by the authors have been used. This paper is a conceptual and used secondary data from published journals within hospitality human resource management to reinterpret the existing concepts (Chaudhary, 1991).

Literature Reviews

Employment Factors and Turnover Crises

Many researchers studied the impact of work satisfaction on hospitality employees. Bharwani and Butt (2012) evaluated the challenges in the hospitality organizations and its impact on labors. According to Davies *et al.* (2001) performance appraisal, remuneration and training are very important human resource practices in the Australian hotels, they asserted that the commitment to the organization could be better when adapting a suitable human resource (HR) system, Improving good labor relations and quality of service. Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001) investigate the relationship between employees' perceptions of person-job (P-J) and person-organization (P-O) fit, they find a unique impact of (P-O) and (P-J) on job satisfaction and intent to quit.

Meanwhile other scholars explored the factors affecting employee turnover, job satisfaction, and the impact of satisfaction on the employee turnover at Amari Hotels in Thailand (Ronra & Chaisawat, 2010). They highlighted the relationship between employee satisfaction with hotel service, working environment, Growth and possibility of growth, work itself, and with the overall satisfaction, then suggest a guideline to improve the employees' job satisfaction and reduce the turnover rate.

A clear roadmap was reviewed by WeiBo *et al.* (2010) who evaluated the work of previous scholars and chart the roadmap through research in core employee retention, The finding of this study illustrated an integrative model of relationship which argues that performance character may lead to drag inclination.

As an unsteady industry, hospitality is a human-based industry, therefore, many researches have done since the last few decades. Studies like Kuria *et al.* (2012) which focus on job resentment, untoward working situation, stress, long working hours with minimal pays and lack training programs as an internal and external causes of labour turnover in Nairobi hotels.

From their point of view, Fair (1992), Kivela and Go (1996), Shaw (2011) reviewed the flourishing literature on turnover rates and dimensions of organizational performance with a reviewing of a methodological application of total quality management (TQM) needs. By studying the unacceptable high labour turnover and analyzing a secondary data from past studies they found that turnover rate content plays a role in the extent and shape of the relationship between turnover rates and organizational performance and influences distal measures through decreased

productivity and losses in human capital, they asserted that structural and organizational changes occur in organizations which embrace TQM and influence quality processes.

Several scholars like Angel and Cannella (2004) study the wage factor as an intent to turnover, they argue that the efficiency wage model developed by Yellen (1984), can be incorporated with other turnover theories, the outcomes were harmonious with the efficiency wage model. While other researchers see for example MacIntosh and Doherty (2010), Martin (2011), Lam *et al.* (2003), Robinson and Beesley (2010) make an argument about intention to quit explaining that by the psychological method that an employee goes and start thinking about quitting by searching other alternative jobs due to some gauge of resentment with their present job position. Bowen and Siehl (1997, p.60) asserted March & Simon' (1958) study by explaining "The ultimate decision to leave results when job dissatisfaction is at a level sufficient that the employee has reached a decision on the desirability of movement and the perceived ease of movement". In his study on labour turnover Price (1977) noted that, huge amount of money spent to develop new programs to solve problems, using directing pointers to predict the turnover issues before they become a critical matter.

Extensive studies have shown that the Mobley model (1977) which determined and explained how job dissatisfaction can lead to job turnover, yields seven consecutive stages between Job dissatisfaction and turnover rate (Lee, 1988). Mobley believed that job dissatisfaction can lead to career change thinking and has evaluated the advantages when searching for another job, taking into consideration the cost of quitting, employees who seek other employment evaluate the new job for acceptability, Finally, an employee compares the alternatives with the current job which also leads to the intention to quit causing ultimate employee turnover rates (Lee, 1988; Martin, 2011). For further information the Figure1 will illustrate Mobley model (1977) idea.

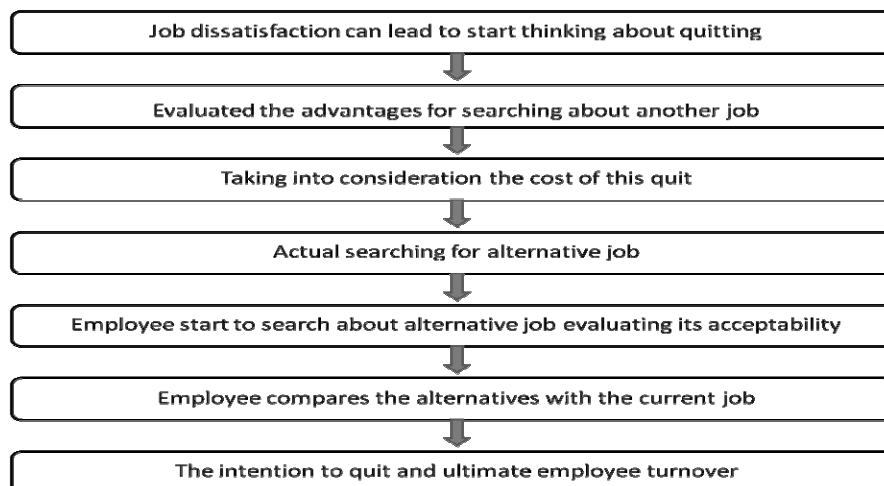


Figure 1: Adopted from Mobley model (1977). Source: (Mobley, 1982)

The Mobley model is not being offered as a solid framework that all employees try similarly; some of them may go beyond specific. Hence, conclusive analysis on the factors enhancing employment to reduce turnover crisis may provide a solid database to enhance the Malaysian hospitality sector.

Theoretical Framework



Figure 2: The relationship between job satisfaction and employee satisfaction on service quality and customer loyalty

The above theoretical framework has been adopted from Mobley (1977) and developed by Kuria *et al.* (2012), WeiBo *et al.* (2010) and reviewed to produce a framework of all parts of employee satisfaction. Turnover has been defined by many researchers as the employees' movements who received monetary compensation from their employers within the labour market between organizations, jobs, and careers.

Many researchers, conceptual and empirical studies have highlighted the employees' responsibilities, training schedules, hotel-employees relations, work environment, and job satisfaction which leads to employee satisfaction. (Bonn & Forbringer, 1992), (Foong-ming, 2008), (Mobley *et al.*, 1979), (Tracey & Hinkin, 2008), (Williams & Hunter, 1992). Other scholars imply that the employees' performance in the work environment will be reflected in their job satisfaction and relations with the organization. Good work relations and job satisfaction will lead to employee retention, while bad environment will force the employee to decide quit from the job and turnover (Mobley *et al.*, 1978).

As stated before this theoretical framework discusses the effect of work environment and job relations on employees' satisfaction. Numerous researchers imply bad working conditions and low job satisfaction which leads to turnover, While the results of employee retention and service quality lead to customer loyalty (Cho *et al.*, 2006; Katou & Budhwar, 2007; Tsaur & Lin, 2004).

Finding And Discussion

Using the seven stage job turnover process, proposed by Mobley (1977) focusing on the process of job dissatisfaction which can lead to job turnover. Mobley (1977), suggested seven consecutive stages between job dissatisfaction and turnover. (Lee, 1988), this study focuses on Mobley model which could be used effectively in hospitality industry, this model shows different levels of turnover process from initially thinking about quitting as a result of job dissatisfaction to the intention to quit and ultimate employee turnover (Mobley, 1982; Robinson & Beesley, 2010; Tracey & Hinkin, 2008).

As stated before, This study discusses the Mobley' model and its application on the turnover process (see figure1). By using the summary of the literature review,

The key items were adopted from previous research by Kimungu and Maringa (2010), Kivela and Go (1996), Kuria *et al.* (2012), Ronra and Chaisawat (2010), Shaw (2011), Ton and Huckman (2008) which confirmed the process which leads the employee to turn over. According to past studies, an aggressive discussion was made concerning labour turnover, employee satisfaction, employee retention, its impact on customer satisfaction and the quality of provided services. These findings may be valuable for further research. The hospitality sector in Malaysia needs to focus on human resource awareness training and satisfaction to achieve work loyalty. Delivering high quality service can lead to re-visit in the future (Foong-ming, 2008; Richardson & Butler, 2011).

The previous studies clarified and analyzed the internal and external causes of labour turnover. The arguments and findings of the literature review can be used by the Malaysian hospitality sector to read the present human resource situation as well as plan for future improvements. It also, explains the effects of job satisfaction and work environment on turnover rates This data will provide a suitable system to build a commitment to organizational-employees relations and quality of service provided to insure guest retention.

Conclusion

This paper has presented and interpreted the effective factors of enhancing employment in order to reduce the turnover in the Hospitality sector. The intensive literature review was made an extensive discussion about the labour turnover crisis, employee dissatisfaction, and the employees retention impact on the customer satisfaction and service quality. The intention to stay within the hospitality organization amongst, unacceptable working conditions, poor training and low salaries could lead to a higher employee turnover. It is widely recognized that by adopting Mobley model (1977), A clearer idea was presented to enhance the employment factors for reducing the turnover crisis; determining how job satisfaction can lead to employee retention and in addition; how job dissatisfaction can lead to turnover crisis. Furthermore, increasing the wages and reinforcing work situation could consolidate the relationships between hospitality employees within their industry followed by a reduction in turnover. The reverberation of these results will be valuable for tourism and hospitality sector to consider turnover crisis as an important issue.

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Graphical User Interface For Tourism Decision Support System (TDSS)

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Tourism consists of a wide variety of aspects including facilities, activities, services, and industries to deliver a travel experience. This industry depends heavily on information where customers want to acquire enough information about a tourist destination. This paper presents a Web based GIS which designs with user friendly graphic user interfaces (GUI) to help visitors of Langkawi Island choose and plan their activities more effectively to match their personal preferences and constraints. This paper focus on displaying tourism related information in Langkawi Island, which tourist care o restaurants, hotels, and marketplaces and so on, so that customers can easily obtain adequate information and become attracted to visit the island. This paper is part of the Project “Development of Tourism Decision Support System (TDSS)” under Sustainable Tourism Research Cluster (STRC), Universiti Sains Malaysia.

Key words: web based GIS, Graphic User Interfaces (GUI), Langkawi Island

Introduction

Tourism consists of a wide variety of aspects including facilities, activities, services, and industries to deliver a travel experience. This industry depends heavily on information. Customers want to acquire enough information about a tourist destination, such as locations, hotels, restaurants, routes and tourist attraction, before they decide to visit the place. Tourists still even need those kinds of information during their visit to a tourist destination. Tourists have problems to find what they are looking for, especially in reference to the geographic position of the object and its surroundings. In most cases, it is not satisfying to find a nice hotel without a reference to restaurants, tourist attraction or event locations located nearby. The public wants to find geographic information about a place before they go to the place and they want to know where things are located, what amenities are available, and be able to do site specific searches to find information. To travel anywhere, everyone have a number of locations, where they want to travel, therefore travelling plan for this is necessary. Tourist also need to know which hotel is nearby the route but it is also selected by

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cost, availability and other factors, so this need intersection from Geographic Information Systems (GIS).

Advancements in technology have changed the way people travel and plan their trips. Frequently, the travelers will rely on offline tools, such as pencil and paper to record their locations and then using online mapping tools to put together the relevant locations (Pan & Fesenmaier, 2006). The current trip planning practices it seems that, lack the integration of location information of various aspects of the trips. This can be achieved through Web-based GIS or Web-based Tourism Information System. GIS however, have the capability to handle several kinds of information that can be related to a location or area. For example, hotels and tourist destinations all have one thing in common – location. Chen (2007) also notes that GIS can make it easier for visitors to find their way around their destinations. By using this technology, information on the tourist facilities are offer, the rates at each facility, type of rooms, services are offer, the nearest police station, petrol station and hospital can be obtained.

Web-based Tourism Information System becomes the preferred source of information because they want to obtain such information directly without mediation (Timcak, Schleusener & Jablonska, 2009). As the internet and web technology offer global reach and mediation capability, Web Based Tourism Information System gains more and more importance as media of promoting and distributing tourism services (Doolin, 2002). With the tremendous growth of the Web, a broad spectrum of tourism information is already distributed over various Web sites. To fulfill the tourists request for an extensive data collection it is inevitable to accumulate data from different sources accessible. Beside this problem, tourists are also confronted with differences regarding information presented on various Web sites.

The solution of these problems is using maps to present information in an effective way. Maps are a natural means of indexing and presenting tourism related information. Travelers are using maps to navigate during their travels and for preparing their routes. Moreover, maps exploit the two dimensional capabilities of human vision and present the information in a compact and “easy to read” way. Study area of this research is Langkawi Island. Langkawi, "The Island of Legend" is located between Sumatra and Western Thailand that comprising a group of 104 islands. The island of Langkawi is divided into six districts namely Mukim Kuah, Padang Matsirat, Ayer Hangat, Bohor, Ulu Melaka and Kedawang. Figure 1 shows the study area, Langkawi Island, Kedah.

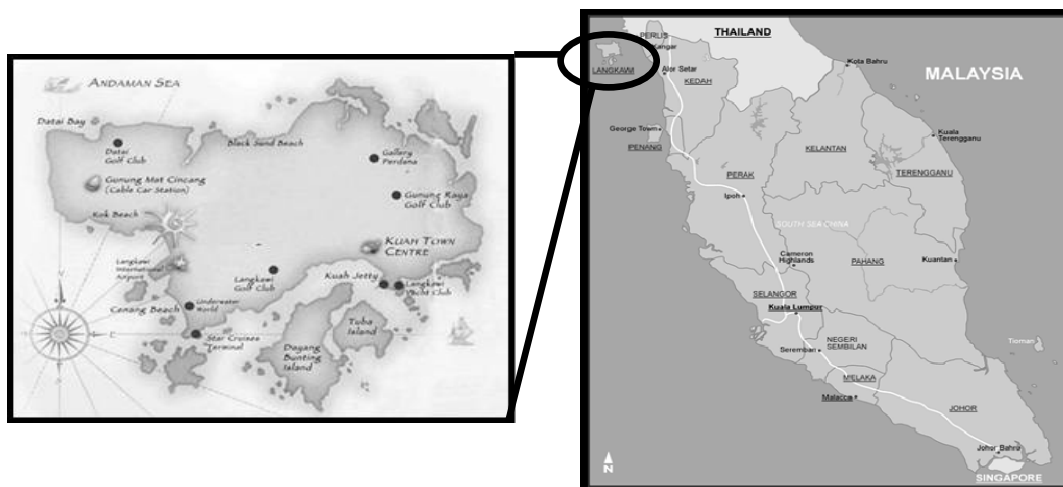


Figure 1 : Study Area, Langkawi Island, Kedah

Literature

Dye and Shaw (2007) presented a GIS-based spatial decision support system (SDSS), TrailFinder application that integrated GIS functions and SDSS designs with easy-to-use graphic user interfaces to help visitors of Great Smoky Mountains National Park (GSMNP) choose and plan their activities more effectively to match their personal preferences and constraints. Based on the preferences and constraints selected, the GIS-based SDSS then retrieves all relevant data from various GIS layers and performs the necessary analyses to identify the trails that meet the user-specified criteria and constraints. Information on the recommended trails is presented in both map and text formats for users to make their decision.

Chu, *et al.* (2011) presented a tour guiding system for a mobile GIS. The system offers contents that change with the location of the moving tourist spatially and temporally. The system is implemented by integrating GPS and GIS techniques using hand-held mobile devices. The system includes four main functions, a graphic function, a GPS function, a Route function, and a Query function. In particular, this system combines mobile GIS and GPS techniques with location-based services (LCBS) to provide tourists a better trip experience and deeper understanding of the importance of this valuable landscape. The tour guiding system is currently being used for guiding services in the Yehliu GeoPark. Information is provided with multimedia methods for navigation, guided route selections and warnings about dangerous areas and route deviation.

Kushwaha *et al.* (2011) investigate how GIS and multimedia tools could be used to enhance the Management and promotion of tourism in Narsingarh. They presents an overview of the research and includes a discussion of the tourism potentials of Narsingarh and the potential benefits GIS could bring to the development and promotion of its tourism. In this study, optimum planning for sightseeing, query of geographical data, obtaining the visual and detailed information about the geographical data and network analysis applications were carried out. GIS design and application for tourism and network analysis help users to supply optimum planning for tourism. Moreover, users seem to save time with the help of GIS Application.

Longmatey *et al.* (2004) discusses the application of GIS and multimedia tools for archiving, analyzing and displaying of tourism information for the efficient management and promotion of the tourism industry in Ghana. A geographic information system with integrated multimedia tools could provide tourism information in an integrated fashion to the Central Region. Among the many benefits that may be realized through the system includes intelligent mapping capabilities, analytical capabilities, modeling and prediction, and revenue generation.

Turk & Gumusay (2004) carried out GIS design and network analysis by taking advantages of GIS possibilities for tourism. In this study, optimum planning for sightseeing, query of geographical data, obtaining the visual and detailed information about the geographical data and network analysis applications were carried out where Geographical Information System (GIS) technologies provide with these possibilities such as determining the shortest routes to the historical places and natural beauties from their accommodation. This because people who want to go sightseeing in different places as tourists may need to have some information about those places. GIS design and application for tourism and network analysis help users to supply optimum planning for tourism. Moreover, users seem to save time via GIS design.

Jovanović & Njeguš (2008) used GIS in three types of applications such as inventory, analysis and evaluation of plan based on tourism development. GIS technology offers

great opportunities for the development of modern tourism applications using maps. This technology integrates common database operations such as query with the unique visualization and geographic analysis benefits offered by maps. GIS use has so far provided successful results which promote importance of information over technology.

Web Based Tourism Information System (Tourism Decision Support System - TDSS)

The basic idea of the integrated Tourism Information System for Langkawi Island is to provide comprehensive tourism related information, so that customers can easily obtain adequate information and become attracted to visit the island. The Tourism Information System is also designed to aid tourists during their visit. Access to the Tourism Information System is provided as a Web GIS-based so that it can be accessed anywhere at any time. The use of Web GIS also gives an easy access to the system via the internet. The main access to the Tourism Decision Support System (TDSS) is via Web GIS, which provides a user-friendly Graphical User Interface (GUI) that allow tourist to communicate with system. The user interface must be design that makes the user's interaction as simple and efficient, in terms of accomplishing user goals. The GUI of the Web GIS of TDSS consists of a large map display with menu bar at the top, navigation control, zoom slider, legend, scale and other as in Figure 2.

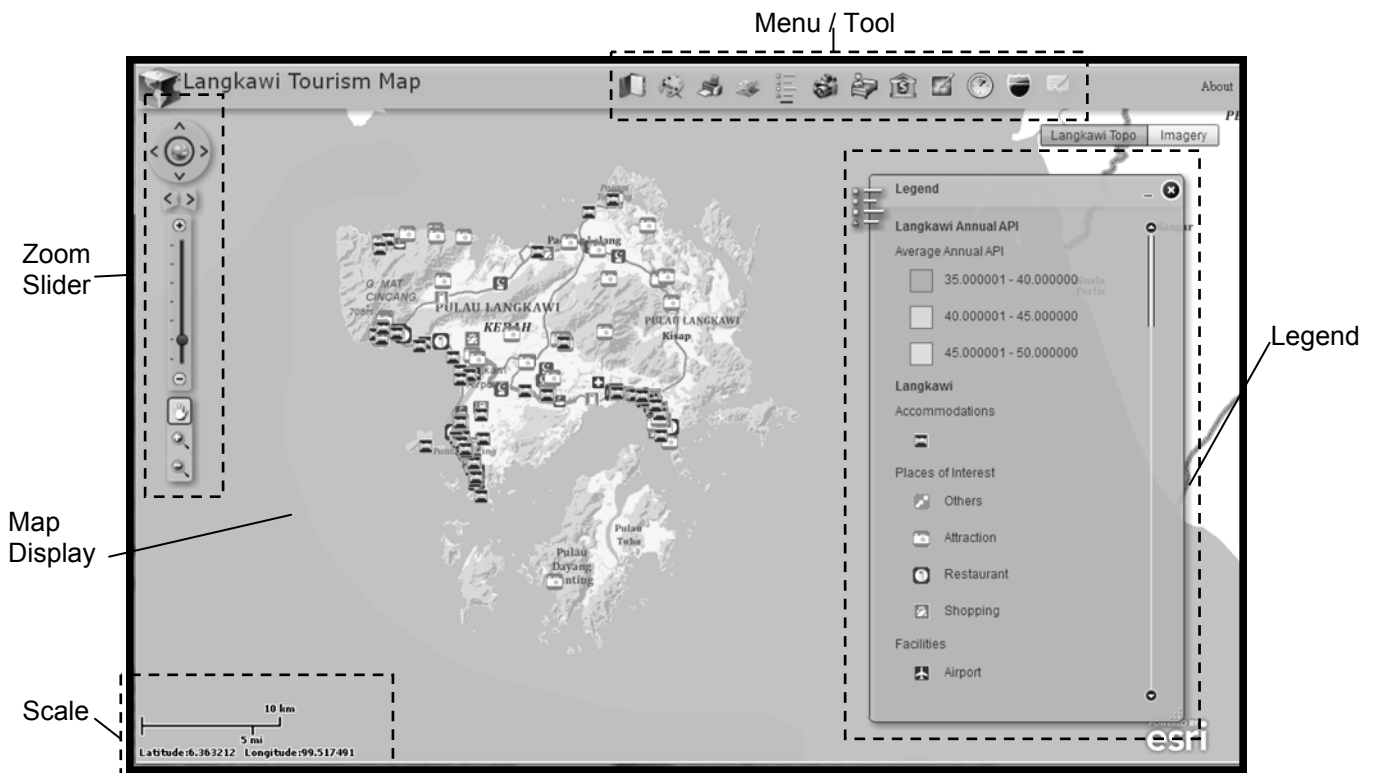


Figure 2: GUI of the TDSS Web

The Web GIS will present as much tourism information as possible via interactive map rather than via hyperlink texts. Map layers which contain important information will be visible by default, so it will be noticeable by user when open the website. User can choose which layers they want to see or hide later. Tourism

information systems provide interactive map that allow users browse through the map by selecting map layers, zooming in/out, panning the map and indentify object in the map by clicking a point to get information about it. Users can also zoom to a predefined scale by moving the slider in the slider bar. These analytical tools, such as zoom in/out, pan and query, were developed to help the end user. The information will be display as a pop up window and may include pictures and videos. Layers of map will be grouped by categories to help users find places they are interested in easily. Users also can choose from displaying street map or satellite imagery as the base map as in Figure 3. A function to choose this base map is available from the top menu.

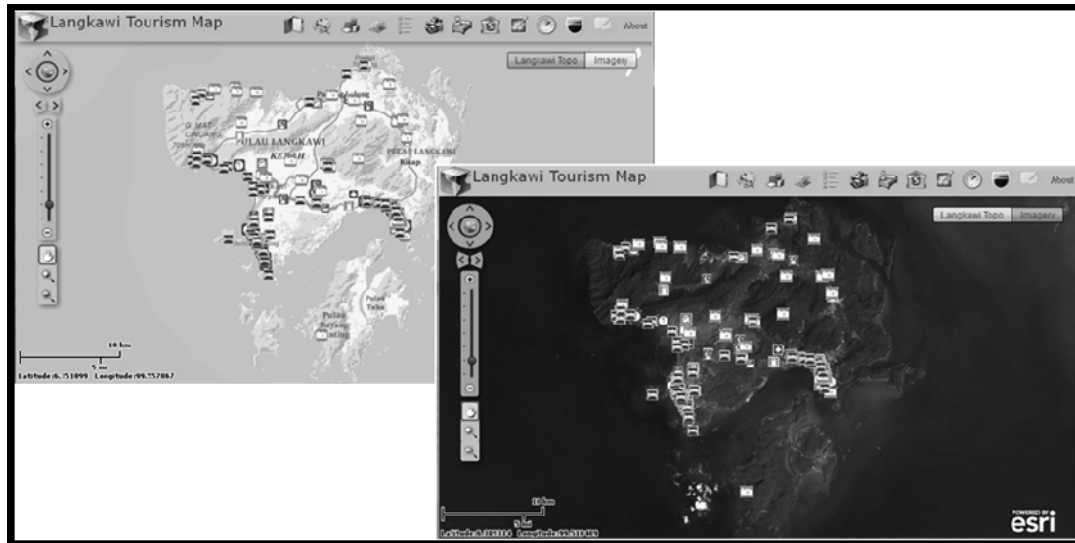


Figure 3: Two Type of Base Map, Street Map or Satellite Imagery

The aim of this tourism information systems are to attract tourists and also aid them navigating the place they are visiting. Beside have navigation map, the Web GIS provides search functionality that allows users to perform query in their database by provide tools for users to find places based on attributes, such as name or type, or based on specified distance from certain location. The places found will be highlighted on the map, and users can click on them to view detail information.

Tourism Facility

This function of system provides information of services and accommodation such as hotel, Point of Interest (POIs) such as restaurant, shopping and other facilities such as Airport, Bank, and Petrol Station etc. For Function “Search POI”, there are two types can be used:

- (i) by POI's name or
- (ii) by Type and location of POIs

(i) By POI's name

User select layer field and insert POI name, then click the search button to view the POI object and will show where the location of POI as show in Figure 4.

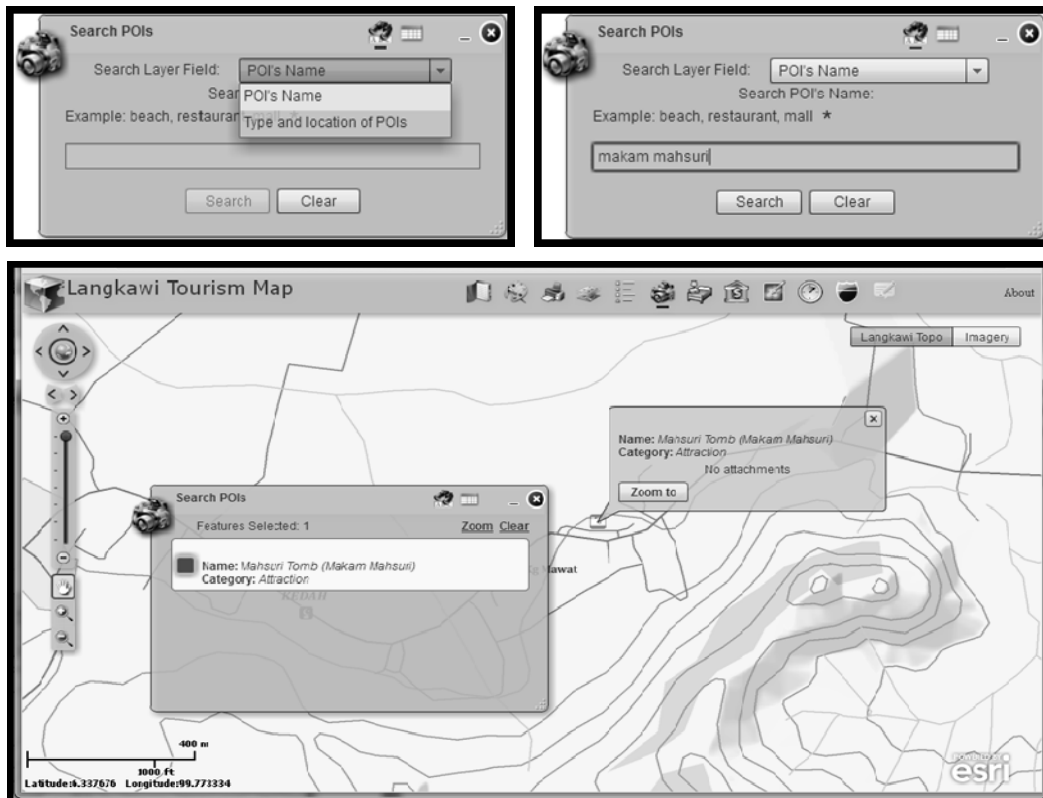


Figure 4: POI search Form & Result

(ii) Type and location of POIs:

User select category and location provided from drop down menu.

For Function “Search Facilities”

User can select category and location provided from drop down menu as shown in Figure 5. Facilities can be search from this function such as Bank, Mosque, Petrol Station and etc.

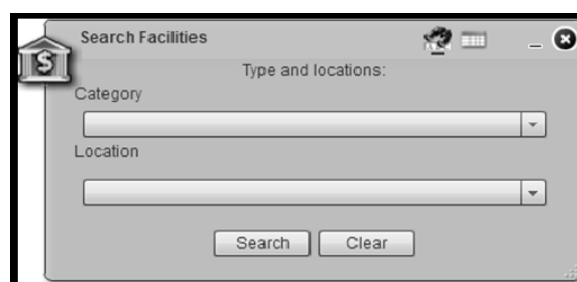


Figure 5: Search Facilities

For search Hotel, there are two categories the tourist will be chosen:

- (i) By name or
- (ii) By Type and location of accommodations

(i) By name

For search Hotel, it includes Chalet, Resort, Hotel, Budget Hotel, Homestay and Motel/Inn. User select layer field and insert accommodation name, then click the

search button to view the accommodation object and will show where the location of accommodation as show in Figure 6.

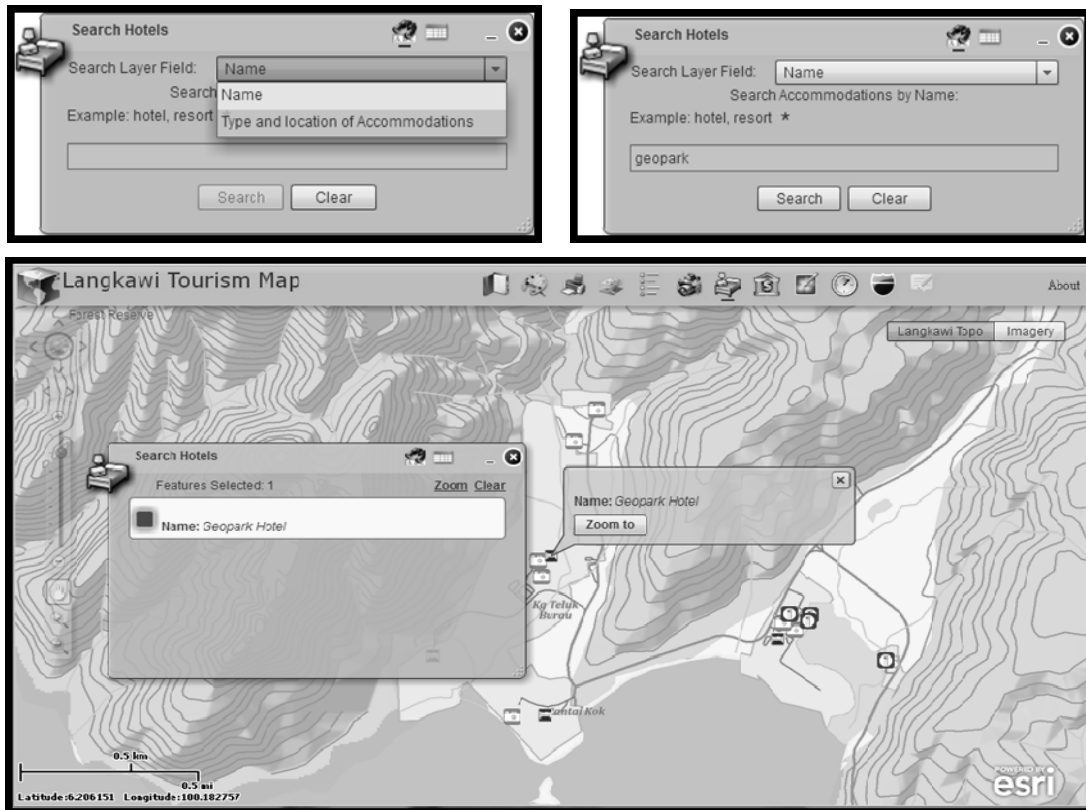


Figure 6: Hotel search Form & Result

If users want to know the route from one place to another place, user can use Route Tool/Function from menu provided, where user need to enter or selects origin and destination points to find route connecting the two points. The result will show the route on map and the description how to arrive to the destination as shown in Figure 7 and can print the map.



Figure 7: Route Function

Another popular functionality is finding tourism objects nearby or within specified distance. This function is to find whether Facilities, Accommodations or Tourist Attractions within specified distance that can be insert by user. A user chooses a location, specify search radius, and then perform the search. This function calls "Search Nearby". Figure 8 shows for search facilities within 2 Kilometers and the result will list what facilities have within 2 Kilometers from selected point chosen.

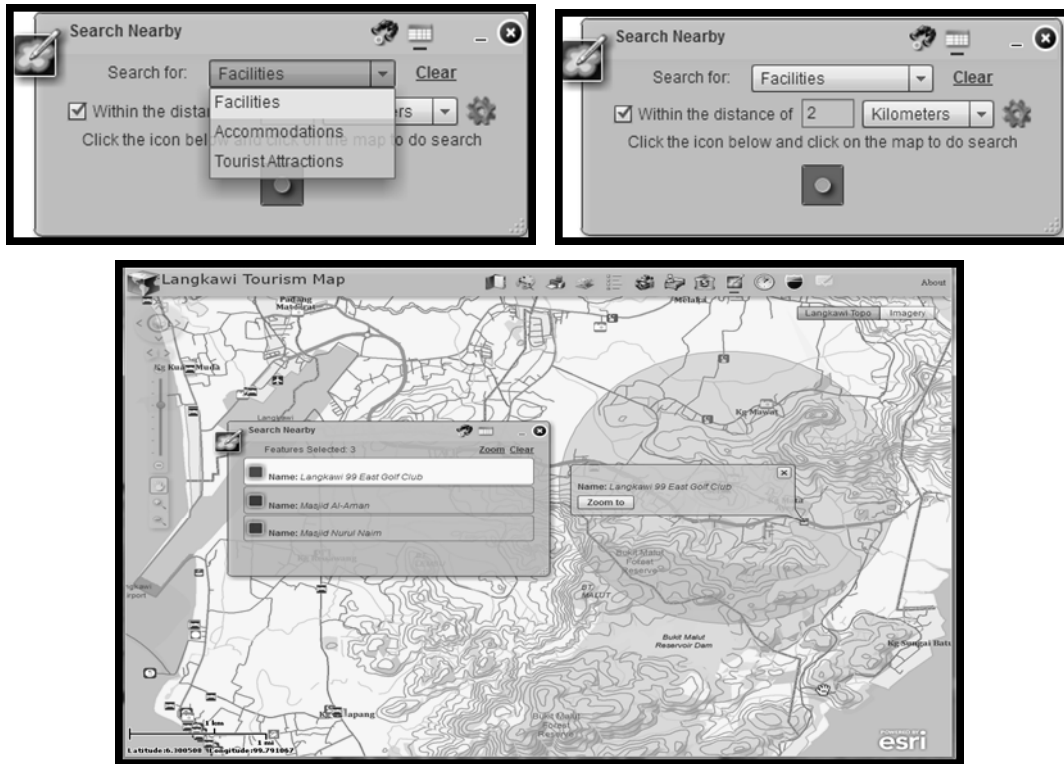


Figure 8: Function Search Nearby

Users also can find what object have in a particular area such as hotel, restaurant, shopping complex and other facilities by click on the location were interest as Figure 9. There are six Favorite place which are Pantai Cenang, Pantai Tengah, Pantai Kok, Teluk Datal, Tanjung Rhu, and Kuah Town.

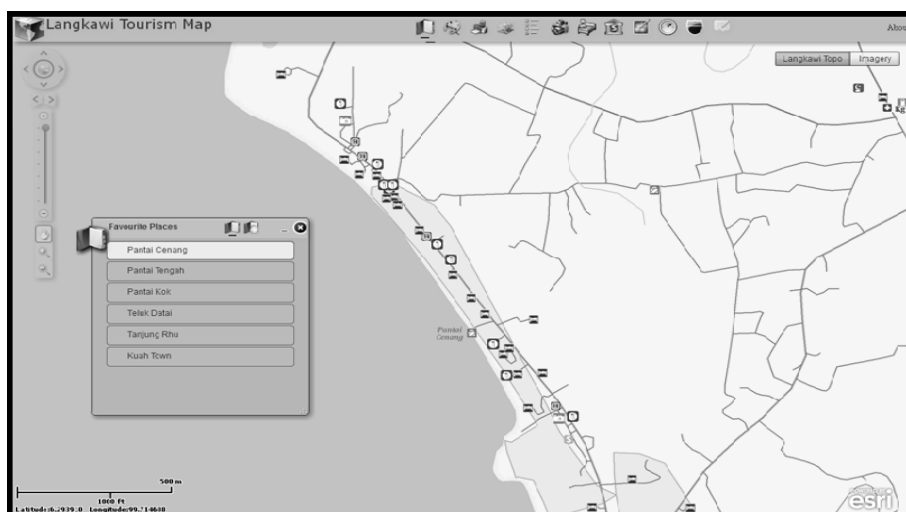


Figure 9: Favorite Place

More functions available in the Menu are shown in Table 1. Users can also choose which layer they want to turn ON or OFF from the Layer List. Some layers are only available at certain scale to maintain the readability of the map.

Table 1: List of Menu in the WebGIS.
The menu printed in bold is the name of menu group.

No	Name	Description
1	Map	
1.1	Street Map	Display street map as the base map
1.2	Satellite Imagery	Display satellite imagery as the base map
2	Tools	
2.1	Find Places of Interest	Find a place of interest or facility by its name or other attributes.
2.2	Find Accommodations	Find an accommodation by its name or other attributes.
2.3	Find nearby	Find a place of interest or facility locating within a certain distance from a selected point.
2.4	Shortest Path	Find the shortest path in the streets from one location to another
2.5	Tour Planning	Arrange an efficient tour to visit several places of interest selected by user.
3	Maintenance	
3.1	Login	Login menu for registered user.
3.2	Add Places (Point)	Add a place of interest in form of a point. Only available for 'Contributor' and 'Manager' user level.
3.3	Add Places (Polygon)	Add a place of interest in form of a polygon. Only available for 'Contributor' and 'Manager' user level.
3.4	Edit Attribute	Edit attribute data of places. Only available for 'Contributor' and 'Manager' user level.
3.5	User management	This menu links to other page to manage users. This menu is available for Administrator only. On the user management page, Administrator can approve, reject, or delete users.
3.6	Place management	This menu links to other page to manage places of interest This menu is available for Manager only.
4	Advanced Analysis (Manager Only)	
4.1	Site Selection	Find a suitable location for tourism related development
4.2	Spatial Index	Calculation of several spatial index of tourism: Carrying Capacity, Development Pressure, Location, Tourist Concentration.

Users of TDSS are categorized into Guest, Contributor, Manager and Administrator. Anybody who uses the system without logging in is considered as Guest. As it is shown in Table 1, Guest can access all basic functions which are necessary for a tourist. 'Add Places' is only available for user with Contributor or Manager level. This is to ensure that only reliable person add new place to the map.

'Advanced Analysis' is only available to Manager, because this level of user is given to a decision maker and the type of analysis in the 'Advanced Analysis' menu is for strategic level. Inclusion of the 'Advanced Analysis' into the WebGIS menu is delayed until the basic system is completed. This is because those analyses usually use a lot of resources, so their feasibility for online application still requires further test.

Discussion

GIS are equally useful in tourism, which consists of a wide variety of aspects including facilities, activities, services, and industries to deliver a travel experience. This Integrated Tourism Information System of Langkawi Island is to provide comprehensive tourism related information, so that customers can easily obtain adequate information and become attracted to visit the island. The Tourism Information System is provided as a Web GIS-based system that it can be accessed anywhere at any time. This web development consists many functions such as tools for finding places. The result of this research is a web-based GIS tourism information system, which provides tourism information with interactive online tourism map. Tourism information systems provide interactive maps that allow users to browse through the map by selecting map layers, zooming in/out, panning the map and identifying objects in the map by clicking a point to get information about it. Web GIS also provides search functionality that allows users to perform queries in their database by providing tools for users to find places based on attributes, such as name or type, or based on specified distance from certain location. The places found will be highlighted on the map, and users can click on them to view detail information.

Conclusion

This study develops TDSS, offers various tools that allow users to find their route, ask information about POI, accommodations and other places of interest which is near to them to improve convenience, safety and efficiency of travel. In this study, Web-Based Tourist Decision Support System intended to provide tourism information for tourists visiting Langkawi Island. The developed WTDSS will provide the tourists to answer the fundamental questions such as near-by facilities, finding route, searching places of interest etc. in Langkawi Island. This helps the tourist to find the most relevant accommodation or to locate the position of a specific tourist place. Web-based GIS information system for tourism was designed and implemented with the real data in Langkawi Island. The tourism map is generally dynamically with interactive interface, and online map that offer various functions such as zooming, panning and querying. Tourism maps in information system offer powerful, clear and user-friendly access to tourism data with a great benefit for tourists. In this study, Web-based tourism information systems seem to have been built upon the same basic concept, which is to provide detailed information about the tourist destinations that includes description about the places, sights, events, and tourism-related facilities. All of those tourism information systems provide interactive maps that allow users to select layers, zoom in/out, and click on points on the map to find tourism-related information. In addition to navigation using maps, it also provides search functionality that allows users to perform queries in their database. Tourists can browse relevant information that was published and that will strengthen the impression of those sights and help to attract more visitors.

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Spatial Relationships Of Cultural Amenities In Rural Areas

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Amenity resources are relevant to rural economic development, population migration, income distribution, and tourism development. For this reason, many government officials have adopted these amenities as regional planning and development strategies. Because government officials use spatial characteristics when they establish rural policies, this study analyzes the spatial distribution of amenity resources using GIS (geographic information systems) and analyzes their spatial autocorrelation using related tools. The study chooses seventeen amenities based on the official amenity database and finds that most cultural amenities are not clustered spatially and that, according to the global spatial autocorrelation index (Moran's I), they have few positive correlations. Finally, an analysis of LISA (local indicator of spatial association) shows some "hot spots" in the spatial distribution of the cultural amenities, but additional research is needed to determine whether these amenities affect regional economies.

Key words: rural tourism, spatial autocorrelation, spatial distribution, traditional amenities, recreation amenities

Introduction

Exploratory spatial data analysis (ESDA), which is based on Geographical Information Systems (GIS), is a set of techniques used to explore geographical distribution, to describe and visualize spatial distributions; to discover spatial patterns, clusters, or "hot spots"; and to suggest spatial regimes or other forms of spatial heterogeneity (Anselin 1988). Rural tourism has a close connection with the rural geographical situation, as geographical resources like nature, culture, landscape, and agriculture are considered tourist attractions. Therefore, some studies in the tourism field have used ESDA (Lee *et al.* 2013).

Today, amenity-based rural tourism is regarded as a savior of rural areas, with many governments recognizing its potential in fostering regional economic development (Jackson and Murphy 2006; Lee *et al.* 2013). In addition, the importance of amenities in explaining rural development patterns is becoming widely accepted within the rural development literature (OECD 1999; Isserman 2001), which has shown correlations between these amenities and economic development (Deller *et al.*

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2001; Green 2001; Kuentzel and Ramaswamy 2005; Marcouiller *et al.* 2004; Poudyal *et al.* 2008; Shaikh and Rahpoto 2009; Waltert and Schläpfer 2010).

However, most studies have dealt with the relationship between natural amenities and regional development (McGranahan 1999; Marcouiller *et al.* 2004) and have yet to address the spatial relationships between cultural amenities. Cultural amenities play the role of latent primary factor inputs to the tourism and recreation sector in rural areas, and the spatial relationship between cultural amenities in rural development is relevant to economic, social, and environmental dimensions. In addition, as rural development takes place, cultural amenities are more affected than other resources are because they tend to be built resources, and many planners think they can create new cultures as needed.

Therefore, in this study, ESDA, based on GIS techniques, is used to explore the geographic distribution of the cultural amenities in rural areas. The purpose of this study is to determine whether there is a spatial relationship among cultural amenities and, if so, what kinds of spatial patterns exist. This work can help rural tourism planners develop regional policy and distribute the necessary resources according to the spatial distribution of cultural amenities.

Literature Review

Previous studies about the spatial characteristics of amenities have targeted natural amenities, but only recently have efforts been made to evaluate empirically the effects of natural amenities on economic development. Theoretically, local amenities affect land prices and are important determinants of population migration (Marcouiller *et al.* 2002; Hunter *et al.* 2005; Wu 2006; Zhang 2008; Kahsai *et al.* 2011). Power (1988) refers to natural amenities as motivators of regional migration and tourism demand and as a foundation for regional quality-of-life attributes. From this view of economic growth theory, amenities can be considered latent regional factor inputs to the local development (Marcouiller 1998; Marcouiller *et al.* 2004).

Nord and Cromartie (1997) and McGranahan (1999) develop natural amenity maps using the natural amenity index and focusing on climatic characteristics, topography, and water areas. Isserman (2001) includes natural areas, outdoor recreation, broad vistas, and peaceful sunsets, which natural amenities are viewed in rural America as a source of competitive advantage that can create new economic opportunities. In addition, Marcouiller *et al.* (2004) use the *Gini* coefficient to explain income distribution in terms of natural amenities, whether land-based, river-based, lake-based, warm weather-based, or cold weather-based. Kim *et al.* (2005) analyze the spatial autocorrelation of natural amenities and find that the spatial patterns of both human activities and natural amenities validate the suggested spatial econometric models (Kim *et al.* 2005). In sum, the amenity characteristics of natural resources are becoming accepted as important growth determinants for regions endowed with such amenities (Deller *et al.* 2001; English *et al.* 2000; McGranahan 1999).

Research on amenities other than natural amenities has also been conducted. Zhang *et al.* (2011) investigate the spatial dependence and mechanisms of international and domestic tourist distributions in mainland China through a set of GIS-based spatial statistical tools. Their results show that there is a significant neighboring effect (i.e., positive spatial correlation) in both international and domestic tourist distributions. Other research has investigated tourism and leisure amenities (Jim and Chen 2006; Kovacs and Larson 2007) and landscape amenities (Waltert and Schläpfer 2010; Waltert *et al.* 2011).

However, research about culture-based amenities has been rare. Falck *et al.* (2011) show that the share of high-human-capital employees is larger in regions with many cultural amenities than in regions with few cultural amenities. However, since Flack *et al.* (2011) use only opera as an example of cultural amenities, their result is limited and does not show the spatial distribution of all cultural amenities. Therefore, this study broadens the scope of the extant literature by analyzing the spatial characteristics of the integrated cultural amenities in rural areas.

Methodology

Global and Local Spatial Autocorrelation

This study conducted an ESDA to highlight particular spatial features and to detect spatial patterns (Kim *et al.* 2005), using a three-step analysis process: first, ArcGIS was used to map the spatial distribution of cultural amenities in the rural villages (ESRI 2006); second, the analysis conducted the global spatial autocorrelation (Moran's *I* statistic); and third, the local spatial autocorrelation (local indicator of spatial autocorrelation, or LISA) was mapped.

The spatial relation analysis was conducted using GeoDA (Anselin 2003). Previous study results have shown that the Moran's *I* is reliable for analysis of spatial autocorrelation (Kim *et al.* 2005, Zhang *et al.* 2011). Moran's *I*, the slope of the regression line, based on neighbor relationships, expresses a row-standardized spatial weights matrix (Anselin 1995). The spatial weights matrix, which refers to adjacent relationships between spaces, usually uses the continuity weight and/or the distance weight, where the continuity weight calculates how many spaces are adjacent, and the distance weight uses the distance decay function.

Moran's *I*, which refers to the global spatial autocorrelation of each resource in the study area, ranges from approximately +1 to -1. A perfectly positive spatial autocorrelation is +1, while a perfectly negative autocorrelation (perfect dispersion) is -1, and the value in the absence of autocorrelation is approximately 0. There is a positive spatial autocorrelation when similar values tend to occupy adjacent locations and a negative autocorrelation when high values tend to be located next to low values.

Moran's *I* is a global index, but it does not indicate where the clusters are located or what types of spatial autocorrelation occur (Anselin 1995). Therefore, the local indicator of spatial autocorrelation (LISA) is applied to indicate local spatial associations (Anselin 1995). LISA shows a set of visual maps: the cluster map, the significance map, and so on. The cluster map consists of five categories: the HH-type (high-high) indicates clusters with high scores (positive spatial autocorrelation); the LH-type (low-high) indicates a space with a low score that is adjacent to a space with a high score (negative spatial autocorrelation); the LL-type (low-low) indicates clusters with low scores (positive spatial autocorrelation); the HL-type (high-low) indicates a space with a high score that is adjacent to a space with a low value (negative spatial autocorrelation); and "not significant" indicates spaces with no spatial autocorrelation. In addition, the significance map presents p-values in four categories: 0.0001, 0.001, 0.01, and 0.05.

Data and Analysis

The Rural Development Administration (RDA) in Korea has been surveying nationwide rural amenity resources in order to build the official databases of rural

amenities since 2005. This study uses the official amenities databases investigated by RDA from 2005 to 2008 and the cultural amenities related to rural tourism, although standardized definitions of cultural amenities vary widely. Amenity data were compiled, indexed, and standardized to a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one, as outlined in the methodology section. These data elements represent community-level attributes, such as tradition, landscape, recreation, welfare, education, folk religion, and cultural activity. These amenities are regarded as important factors in rural tourism because they are used for activity programs in accordance with the special characteristics of the rural community. In particular, rural community forests and nurse trees are considered symbols of the traditions of the community, so they are added as cultural amenities despite their natural characteristics. Table 1 shows how cultural amenities are divided into seven categories.

This study uses 1,726 amenities in seventeen types of cultural amenities. The unit of space analysis is statutory Ri, which is the minimum fixed boundary for governmental administration in South Korea. The study area selected is Yesan, where the rural amenity resources survey by RDA has been concluded. Yesan, which is designated a “slow city” with many agricultural and cultural amenities, has eleven rural tourism villages and twenty-five education- and activity-based agricultural farms related to rural tourism (<http://www.yesangt.com>). Yesan is divided into twelve districts: two Eups (central areas) and ten Myeons (peripheral areas), each with 177 statutory Ri. The total area of Yesan is about 540 km², and the total population is about 88,000. The study area is shown in Figure 1.

Table 1: The Classification of Cultural Amenities

Variable		Number of amenities*	
Tradition amenities	Old house	129	145
	Feng shui	16	
Landscape amenities	Forest landscape	119	614
	Residential landscape	248	
	Agricultural landscape	247	
Recreation amenities	Park	107	131
	Children’s playground	12	
	Exercise area	12	
Welfare amenities	Community hall	288	517
	Senior-citizen center	229	
Education amenities	Elementary school	16	30
	Middle-high school	14	
Folk religion amenities	Rural community forest	46	238
	Nurse trees	137	
	Symbol of folk religion	55	
Cultural activity amenities	Urban and rural communication	8	51
	Residents’ cultural activity	43	
		1,726	1,726

* 2005 RDA survey area: Two districts in Yesan (Gwangsi and Shinyang)
 2006 RDA survey area: Two districts in Yesan (Ducksan and Bongsan)
 2008 RDA survey area: Eight districts in Yesan (Yesan, Sabkyo, Goduck, Shinam, Daeheung, Oga, Eungbong, and Daesul)

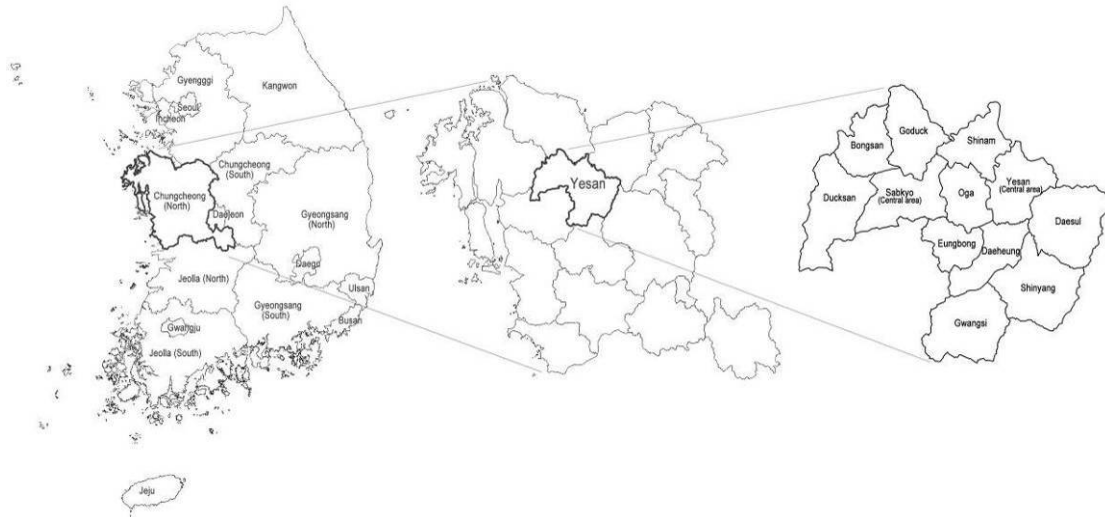


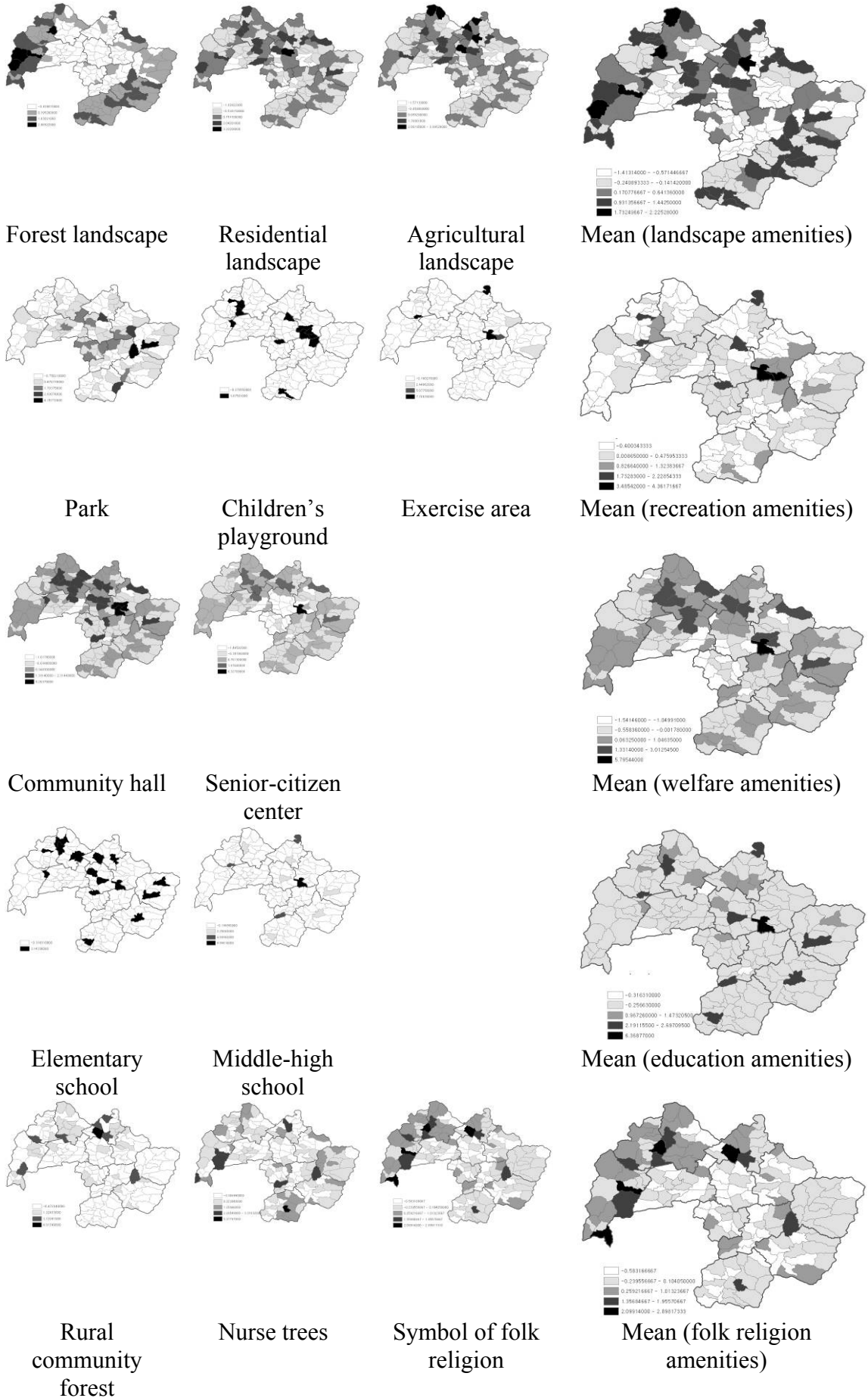
Figure 1: Location Map of the Study Area

Study Results And Discussion

Spatial Distribution

Figure 1 shows thematic maps of the seventeen cultural amenities and the mean scores using GIS. The maps of the seventeen amenity resources and the maps of the eight mean scores indicate that the spatial patterns of cultural amenities are not clustered, with the exception of forest landscapes, parks, residents' cultural amenities, and a few others. For example, the average traditional amenity map shows that the northwestern villages of Yesan have many resources, while the eastern villages have fewer cultural amenities. All of these villages in the northwestern area are located in Ducksan Natural Park, so designated by Chungcheong Province. Therefore, the results of this study show the possibility of a weak relationship between natural amenities and some cultural amenities, but the maps do not show the specialized clusters, and the relationships are not consistent. The map of total cultural amenities shows the characteristics of this spatial dispersal clearly. These results differ from earlier findings about natural amenities, including those of Nord and Cromartie (1997), McGranahan (1999), Marcouiller *et al.* (2004), and Kim *et al.* (2005). However, since the mapping of cultural amenities is only visually descriptive, statistics for the spatial patterns are needed.





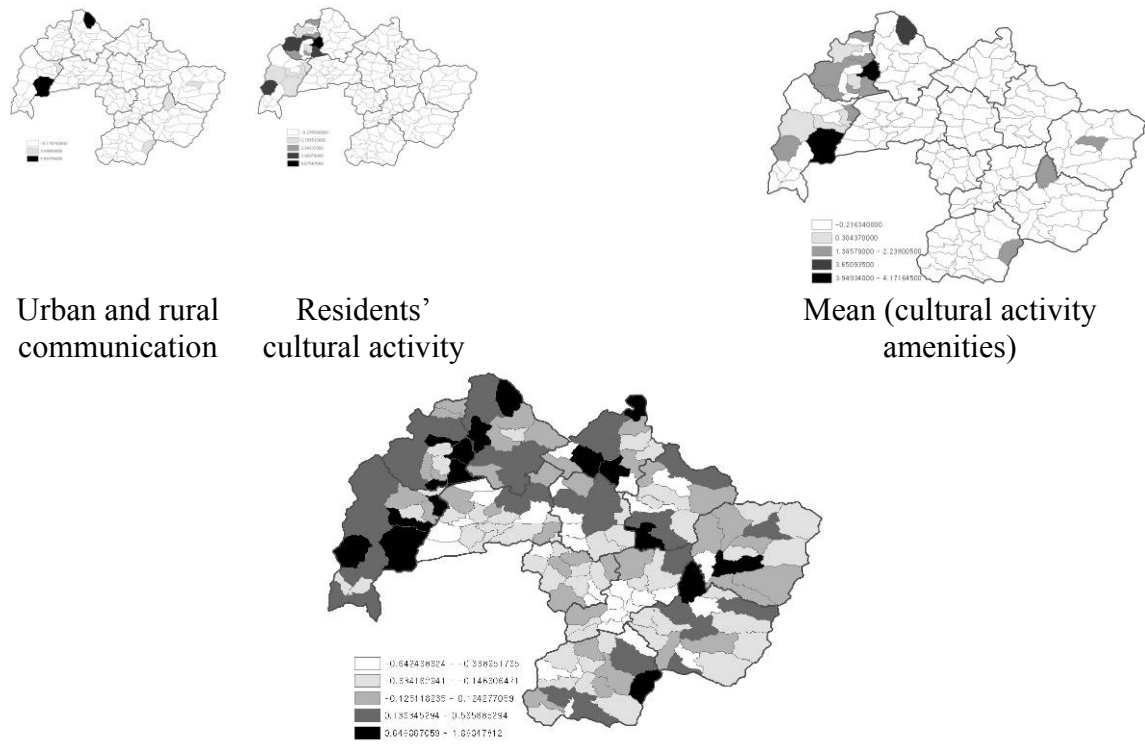


Figure 2: Spatial Distribution of Cultural Amenities using GIS

Global Spatial Autocorrelation

Global spatial autocorrelation uses the means of Moran's I spatial autocorrelation statistics and is visualized in the form of a Moran scatter plot using a space weight matrix based on continuity or distance (Anselin 1995). Table 1 shows the value of univariate and multivariate Moran's I for all cultural amenities. The univariate Moran's I is the slope of the regression line, which illustrates the global spatial autocorrelation of each resource about the whole study area. This value is useful in establishing the overall spatial autocorrelation of one variable but is limited in aiding an analysis of the spatial autocorrelation between variables. Therefore, this study adopts the multivariate Moran's I to find this spatial relationship. The multivariate Moran's I is also the slope of the regression line, but it refers to the degree of linear association between the variable on the horizontal axis and the values for the variable on the vertical axis at its neighboring location, as defined by spatial weights (Anselin 2003). In this study, the variables for multivariate Moran's I are selected based on the categories found in the patterns based on GIS mapping results.

With the exception of schools and urban-rural communication, most univariate Moran's I statistics are positive in global spatial autocorrelations and show weak correlations or no correlation. The only forest landscape related to natural amenities shows the strongest correlation ($I = 0.5279$), followed by the residents' cultural activity ($I = 0.2883$) and symbols of folk religion ($I = 0.2737$). A high intensity in the global association index (Moran's I), such as that of the forest landscape, indicates a tendency toward geographic clustering of rural villages with cultural amenities, and a low value indicates a lack of similarity among villages (Zhang *et al.* 2011). The results of the multivariate Moran's I show that there are no correlations among similar variables. According to previous study results, most natural amenities—such as land-based, river-based, and lake-based amenities—have relatively strong spatial

autocorrelations (Kim *et al.* 2005). However, the cultural amenities in rural areas have weak correlations or no correlation.

These results suggest that most cultural amenities are related to the social infrastructure, such as parks, exercise areas, community halls, and schools, so the governments operate their policies to distribute these facilities based on regional fairness. In addition, some cultural amenities that include traditional resources, such as old houses and *feng shui*, have disappeared because of rapid economic development in the region. For this reason, the spatial pattern of traditional amenities has remained irregular and does not show clustered areas. Finally, cultural amenities are associated with population density, economic size, and industry. Yesan is a rural area where the population density is low and most residents are engaged in primary industry, such as agriculture. Therefore, the characteristics of the population and the industry could be reflected in the spatial distribution of cultural amenities.

Table 2. Global Spatial Autocorrelation of Cultural Amenities

Variable		Univariate Moran's <i>I</i>		Multivariate Moran's <i>I</i>	
		Moran's <i>I</i>	Spatial autocorrelation	Moran's <i>I</i>	Spatial autocorrelation
Tradition amenities	Old house	0.0817	No correlation	0.1032	No correlation
	<i>Feng shui</i>	0.0614	No correlation		
	Mean	0.1590	No correlation		
Landscape amenities	Forest landscape	0.5279	strong correlation(+)	0.1529	No correlation
	Residential landscape	0.1566	No correlation		
	Agricultural landscape	0.1787	No correlation		
	Mean	0.2451	weak correlation(+)		
Recreation amenities	Park	0.1862	No correlation	0.0730	No correlation
	Children's playground	0.2155	weak correlation(+)		
	Exercise area	0.0294	No correlation		
	Mean	0.2227	weak correlation(+)		
Welfare amenities	Community hall	0.2629	weak correlation(+)	0.0520	No correlation
	Senior-citizen center	0.1815	No correlation		
	Mean	0.1980	No correlation		
Education amenities	Elementary school	-0.0679	No correlation	-0.0441	No correlation
	Middle-high school	-0.0510	No correlation		
	Mean	-0.0753	No correlation		
Folk religion amenities	Rural community forest	0.1003	No correlation	0.058	No correlation
	Nurse trees	0.1075	No correlation		

	Symbol of folk religion	0.2737	weak correlation(+)	5	
	Mean	0.2575	weak correlation(+)		
Cultural activity amenities	Urban and rural communication	-0.0245	No correlation	-0.0182	No correlation
	Residents' cultural activity	0.2883	weak correlation(+)		
	Mean	0.1090	No correlation		
Total mean		0.2172	weak correlation(+)		

Local Spatial Autocorrelation

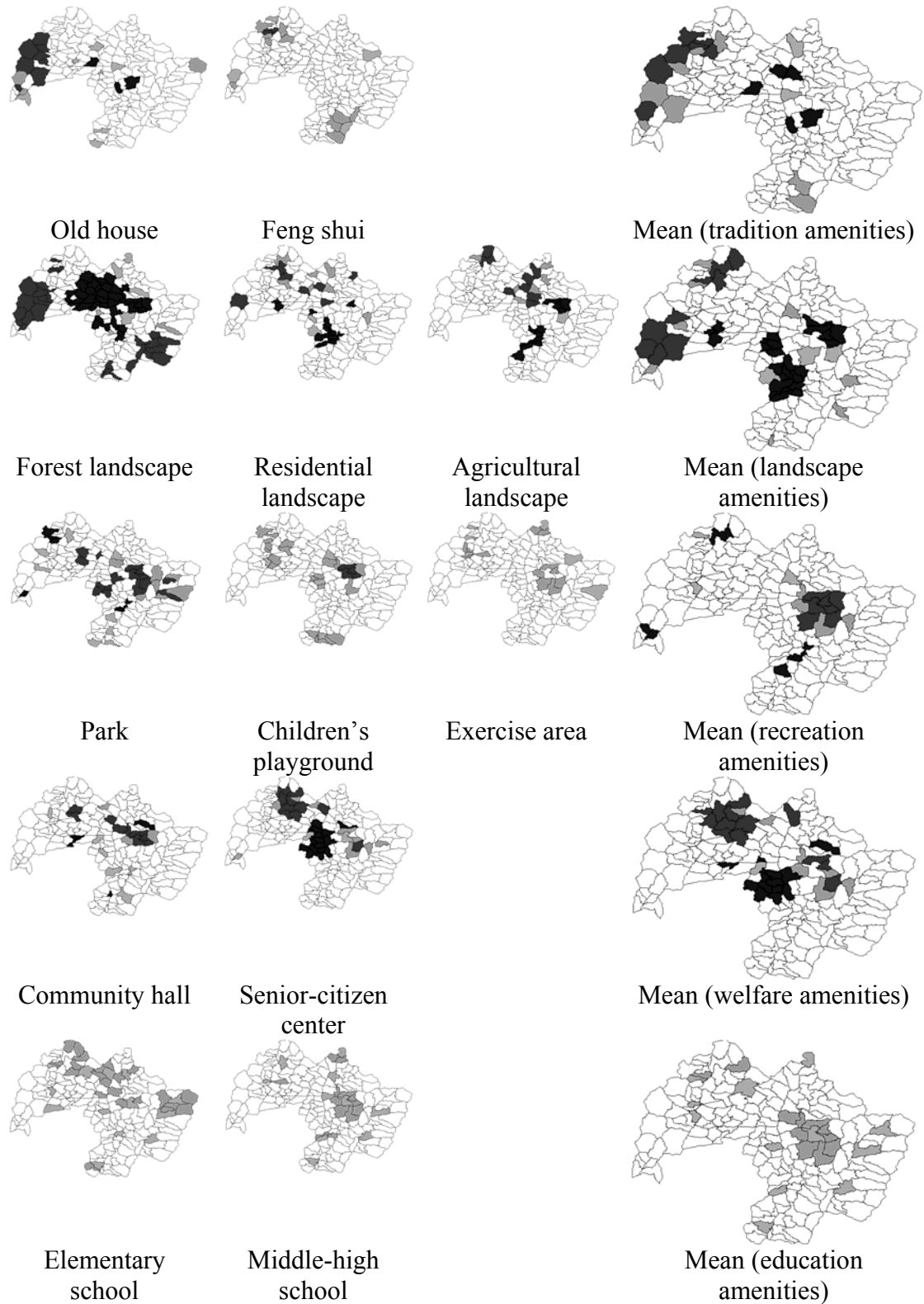
Local spatial autocorrelation analysis is based on the local Moran's *I* statistics (LISA) (Anselin 1995). A LISA presents both the univariate LISA and the multivariate LISA, and both results show the localized characteristics of resources: HH (high-high), LL (low-low), HL (high-low), LH (low-high), and not significant. A LISA is derived from the spatial autocorrelation between a spatial unit and its immediate neighbors. A high value in the local Moran's *I* statistic indicates a clustering of similar values (either HH or LL), and a low value of the statistic shows a clustering of dissimilar values (HL or LH) (Kim *et al.* 2005). This study uses the univariate LISA first, and then adopts multivariate LISA if the similar patterns in univariate LISA analysis found. Figure 3 shows the value of univariate LISA of cultural amenities.

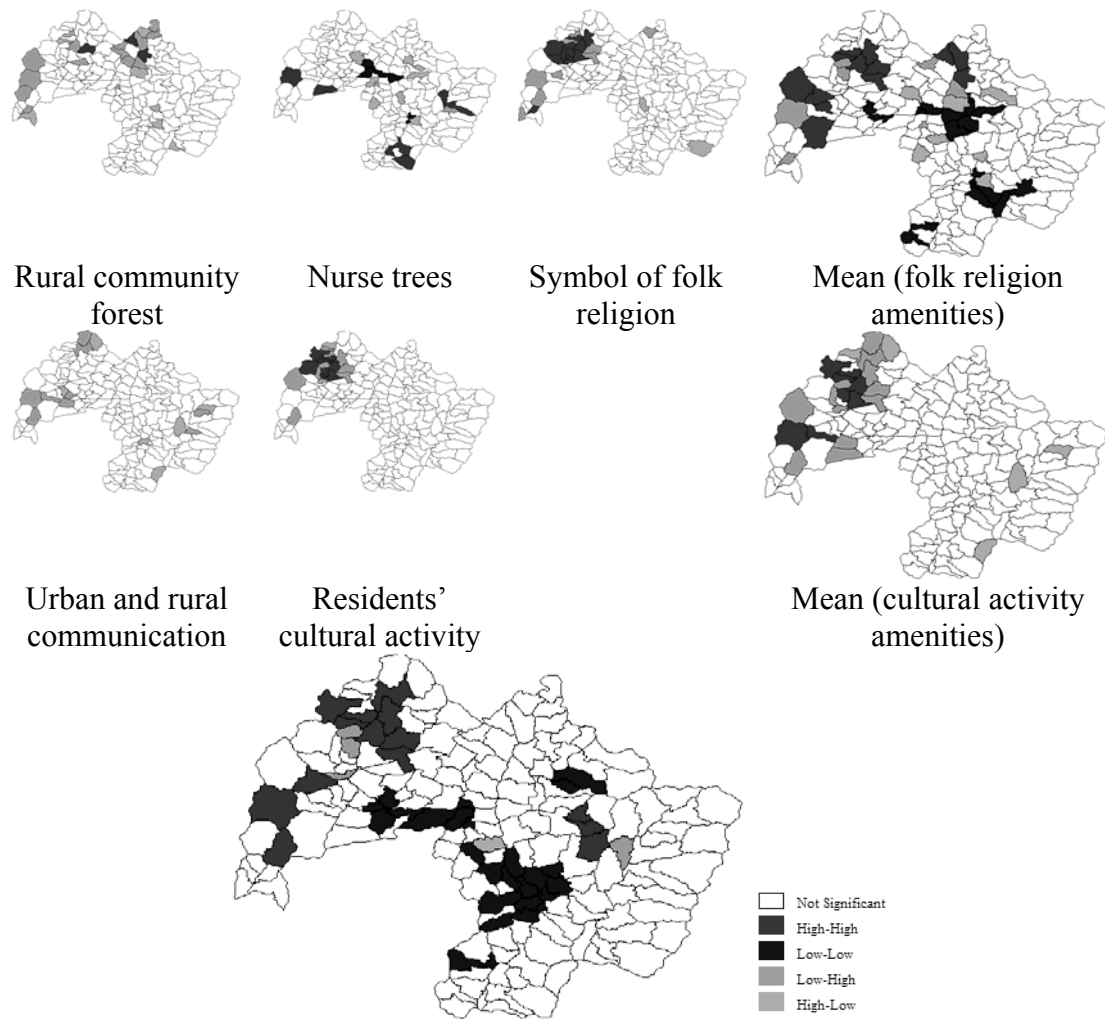
A univariate local Moran's *I* at 5 percent pseudo-significance level on the Moran significance maps is presented in Figure 3. The map of total cultural amenities shows that the most significant HH-type spatial autocorrelations apply in the northwestern band of Yesan (Ducksan, Bongsan and Goduck), while LL-type correlations apply in center area of Yesan (Sabkyo and Eungbong). However, significant negative spatial autocorrelations, such as the HL-type (higher values than their neighbors) and the LH-type (lower values than their neighbors), do not show on the total average map. The LISA maps indicate that the spatial patterns of cultural amenities are clustered in the northwestern regions, so these areas can be called "hot spots" of culture-based amenities. However, these spatial patterns are not consistent, and this result is similar to the results of the global spatial autocorrelation.

In sum, the average tradition amenities, average landscape amenities, and average folk religion amenities show similar spatial patterns, with the HH-type and LL-type in particular representing positive autocorrelation. In addition, average recreation amenities are characterized as strong HH-types in Yesan and Daeheung, and average welfare amenities also show the HH-type in Goduck. Finally, average cultural activity amenities are the HH-type, the HL-type, and the LH-type in the northwestern and southeastern areas. There are no positive correlations of the HH-type or LL-type in the map of average education amenities.

Figure 4 shows the results of multivariate LISA among the averages of three types of amenities: tradition, landscape, and folk religion amenities. The LISA maps indicate that these three cultural amenities, which are related to traditional culture and nature, have stronger positive correlation than other amenities do and are relatively fixed and continuous. On the other hand, the spatial distribution of the more modern cultural amenities, such as recreation, welfare, and education amenities, do not show

these spatial patterns. All of these results lead to the conclusion that there are similarities in the spatial structure of the nature-based and tradition amenities. Finally, the ESDA results show that some cultural amenities are spatially associated with natural amenities, but additional research is needed to determine the spatial inter-correlation between cultural amenities and natural amenities and to find the resulting regional economic impacts using spatial econometric models.





The mean of total cultural amenities
 Figure 3: Local Spatial Autocorrelation (Univariate LISA) of Cultural Amenities

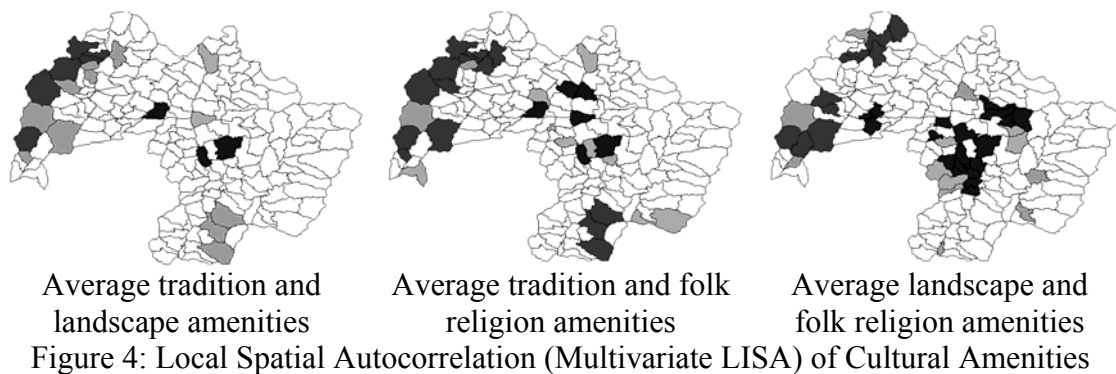


Figure 4: Local Spatial Autocorrelation (Multivariate LISA) of Cultural Amenities

Conclusion

Rural tourism today is considered important in accelerating regional economic development because it brings the possibility of regional ecological, socio-cultural, and economic sustainability to lagging rural area and eventually helps regional regeneration. These amenities are especially important to villages that depend on rural tourism. While most extant studies have focused on natural amenities, ignoring cultural amenities, this study used GIS-based ESDA to analyze the distribution

disparities of the cultural amenities in rural areas.

This study demonstrated that cultural amenities' spatial characteristics with natural amenities differ. More precisely, the spatial analysis of the cultural amenities indicates weak positive global spatial autocorrelations or no spatial autocorrelation at all. Univariate and multivariate LISA showed that the spatial patterns of the cultural amenities are clustered in the northwestern regions around some amenities that have positive spatial autocorrelations (HH, LL). The LISA also showed that there are similarities in the spatial structure of the nature-based and tradition-based amenities, and some cultural amenities may be associated with natural amenities spatially.

Policy makers should focus more on the spatial relationship of community's cultural amenities because these amenities are so important in rural tourism. For example, the cluster regions of cultural amenities can adopt culture-based rural tourism and can be used as the core areas of rural tourism networks. At the same time, the regions in which these amenities are more widely dispersed can develop network strategies among neighboring communities.

Unlike previous studies about natural amenities that have found a strong positive autocorrelation of natural amenities, this study did not find that cultural amenities have strong associations in terms of spatial distribution. Further research is needed to determine the relationship between natural and cultural amenities and to identify their regional economic impacts using ESDA models.

Acknowledgement

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Perlis's Tourism: Accomodation And Facilities Determination Based On GIS Application

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Accommodation is one of the important aspects in the tourism development which is the competitive tourist sector. By providing adequate information of accommodation in terms of place, availability of facilities and price, it will be easier for travellers to choose any accommodation that meets their needs and budget. Thus, the aim of this project is to develop a one-stop centre of information for accommodation in Perlis to support the needs of tourists. The goals of the project are to prepare the georeferenced location, ii) detailed information about the facilities and the rate of each accommodation provided. As a result, the information on accommodation can retrieve from the centre of information, and it will help tourists in planning their vacation. In addition, the project will aid the Ministry of Tourism, Perlis office to manage and update every hotel and homestay information surrounding Perlis.

Key words: tourism, accommodation, facilities, GIS

Introduction

Geographic Information System (GIS) is a set off a powerful system that capable of analyzing the georeference spatial model, and it offers the structured data management and data access possibility. The objects on the earth can determine by using the GIS environment accurately depending on the data quality and the information stored in the database. GIS is equally useful in tourism, which consists of many aspects, including facilities, activities, services, and industries to deliver a travel experience. GIS used to decide the best place for a new tourist destination while trying to keep up a sustained natural area (Butler, 1993). Hence, the strength of tourism planning can enhance by the GIS applications. GIS is about providing a toolbox of techniques and technologies of wide applicability to the sustainable tourism development achievement (Giles, 2003).

Nowadays, tourism has become a global leisure activity among people including Malaysians. Tourism refers to visiting the fascinating places, travelling,

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recreational, vacation and business potential. During the vacation, travellers will plan their journey by estimating the budget and looking at the accommodation that meet their needs. Currently, the common methods used by the travellers are by searching on the different hotel websites or web using the search engines to find out the most suitable accommodation for the holiday purposes. Besides, all the information on accommodation is not available in one database, and this will create problems, especially the homestays information is not well promoted rather as compared to hotels since they are personally managed. Tourists will face problems in choosing suitable accommodation, which complies their needs.

To solve this problem, a dynamic Perlis map supported by the GIS modules (combination of information of different type accommodations such as hotel and homestay with the facilities provided) use in this study to help people making their decisions on their tourism planning.

Perlis Overview

Perlis is the smallest state in Malaysia. It lies on the northern part of the west coast of Peninsular Malaysia. Perlis bounded on the north by Thailand, the south and east by Kedah and the west by the Straits of Melaka. Perlis is surrounding by agriculture's activities such as paddy field, *harum manis*, local grapes and sugar cane plantation depending on the season. According to the Department of Statistic, Malaysia in 2010, the population in Perlis is about 0.2 million. The ethnic composition for the year 2010, in Perlis was Malay (174,805), Chinese (21,058), Indian (2,658), and others (20,690). Even though Perlis is the smallest state in Malaysia, it does not lose out to other states in terms of tourism attractiveness. Oxford (2003) defined tourism as the business of providing and arranging holidays and services for people who are visiting a place. The number of international and domestic tourists has increased tremendously (Figure 1) and this has become the main contributor to the boost economy of Perlis.

PINTU MASUK (Entrance Point)	KUALA PERLIS	PADANG BESAR	KERETAPI TANAH MELAYU BERHAD	WANG KELIAN	JUMLAH (Total)
BULAN (Month)					
JANUARI (January)	667	19,137	1,670	9,932	31,626
FEBRUARI (February)	737	16,158	1,683	8,542	27,120
MAC (March)	767	17,834	1,395	9,963	29,959
APRIL (April)	785	29,925	1,176	8,973	40,859
MEI (May)	820	28,141	1,177	9,536	39,674
JUN (June)	779	27,493	1,338	7,700	37,310
JULAI (July)	704	31,788	1,370	10,262	44,124
OGOS (August)	707	27,201	1,258	9,104	38,270
SEPTEMBER (September)	611	26,421	1,306	9,412	37,750
OKTOBER (October)	828	23,970	1,323	11,453	37,574
NOVEMBER (November)	752	22,323	1,263	10,159	34,497
DISEMBER (December)	629	23,840	1,353	9,382	35,204
JUMLAH (Total)	8,806	294,231	16,512	114,418	433,967

Figure 1. Statistic of Tourist Arrival in Perlis
(Source: www.perlis.gov.my)

Perlis has various tourism resources either from natural resources; artificial or themed events that highlighted and promoted to attract both domestic and international tourists. There are a some interesting places to visit in Perlis such as *Gua Kelam*, *Kota Kayang* Museum, *Padang Besar*, Snake and reptile farm, Perlis State Park and *Sungai Batu Pahat*. As for this research, the chosen study area is Kangar, Perlis.

In existence of many interesting places in Perlis, the number of accommodation available is also increasing. For instance:

- i. Hotels – Putra Palace, Hotel Seri Malaysia, Brasmana Hotel, Sri Garden Hotels, etc.
- ii. Motels – Zulam Budget Motel, Q Motel Kuala Perlis, Dias Honey Motel, etc.
- iii. Chalets –Bukit Ayer Chalets, Aqua In Chalets, Sungai Paya Chalets, etc.
- iv. Homestays – Azi Homestay, Mahaji Homestay, Noor Homestay, Anis Homestay, etc.

GIS Data Model In Tourism Application

GIS is an integrated system with technology and it is widely used in various applications such as in tourism planning, environmental management, agricultural, urban development, etc. GIS application has contributed to the current system enhancement development by offering dynamic and digital maps. Geographic Information System (GIS) is a rapidly expanding field enabling the applications development that manage and use geographic information in combination other types of media (Jovanovic and Njegus, 2008).

GIS is integrating with spatial and non-spatial data models. Spatial data model focuses on the shape of the features such as road, building, tree, etc. GIS reads all the features as line, polygon and point shape for modeling the real world at the accurate location that assigned in coordinating system World Geodetic System 1984 (WGS84) or Malayan Rectified Skew Orthomorphic (MRSO). Non-spatial (attributes) data model is a GIS database that describes the features in the form of a table. The spatial and non-spatial data models integrate into tourism planning to offer the efficient GIS digital maps.

Several data models need to provide the digital maps that meet the demand of Perlis tourists such as service's features (accommodation, facilities provided), fascinating places, transportation services and network. The accommodation and facilities provided are the main aspects in this study to support the needs of the tourists. Figure 2 shows the required integrated data models to meet the aim of this study.

Travellers need to plan their vacation by identifying the accommodation that meets their budget and needs. The current conventional method used is by searching each of the accommodations and facilities provided in different web sources such as Google, Yahoo, stand-alone website etc. For the budget hotel and homestay, they are not promoted on the website, and are only advertised in front of the house. By using the GIS applications, all the stated problems will be overcome by providing a systematic system for tourists to search for their place to stay in Perlis.

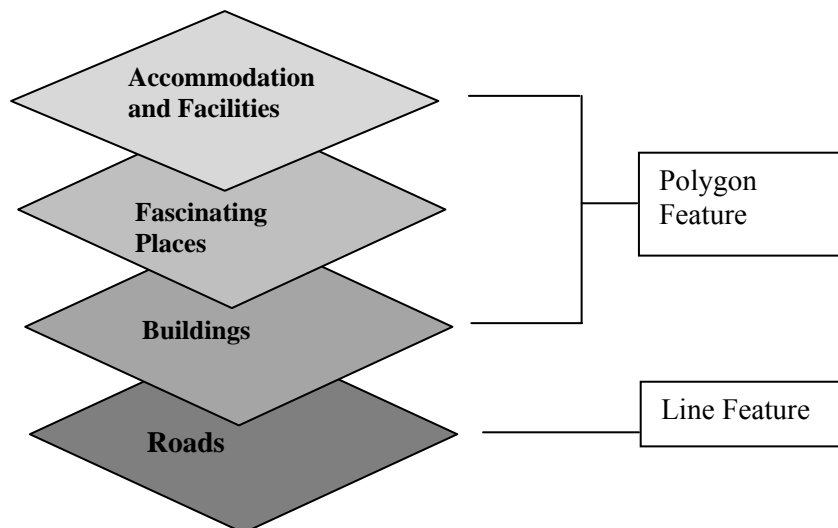


Figure 2: Tourism Data Models

Conceptual Framework

The study divided into the following. They are: i) study area and software exploration, ii) spatial and attributes on the Perlis tourism data collection, iii) data processing and iv) result and analysis. Figure 4 shows the detailed methodology of the study.

Kangar, Perlis selected as the study area because the accommodation that includes hotels and homestays are scattering in the center of the city (Figure 3). In this study, the open source, QGIS software which obtained directly from the QGIS website used to digitize the Perlis base map into several feature types such as line (road) and polygon (buildings, fascinating places and accommodation). The QGIS is free accessed software that used for multi-disciplinary applications.

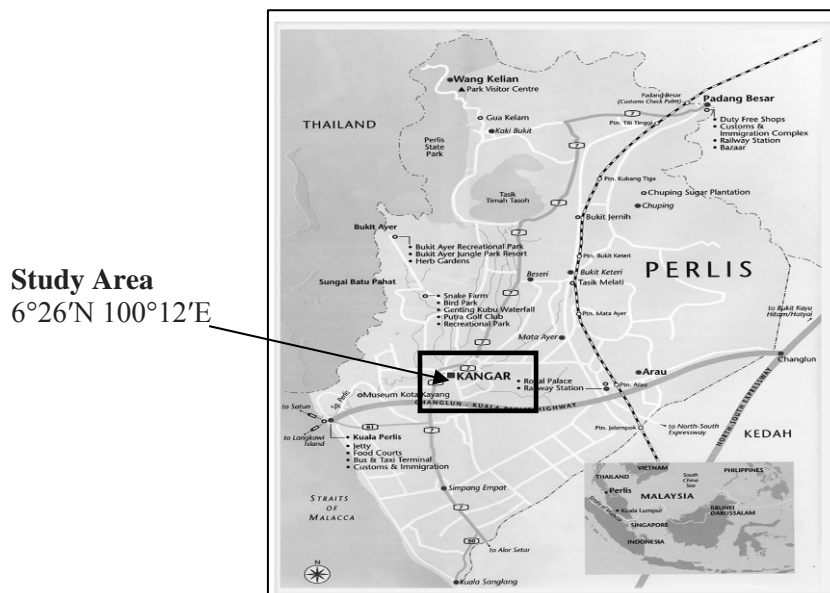


Figure 3: State of Perlis
(Source: www.perlis.gov.my)

Georeferencing is the process of stretching the raster image that controlled by the control point in the truth ground positioning. In the georeferencing process, the coordinate of the state of Kangar control points is acquire from the Google Street

Layer and the points used to rectify the base map into the actual location in the WGS84 coordinate system. All the information on accommodation surrounding Kangar Perlis collected from the Perlis Government official portal and the Ministry of Tourism, Perlis office. Then, the information is compile into the GIS database.

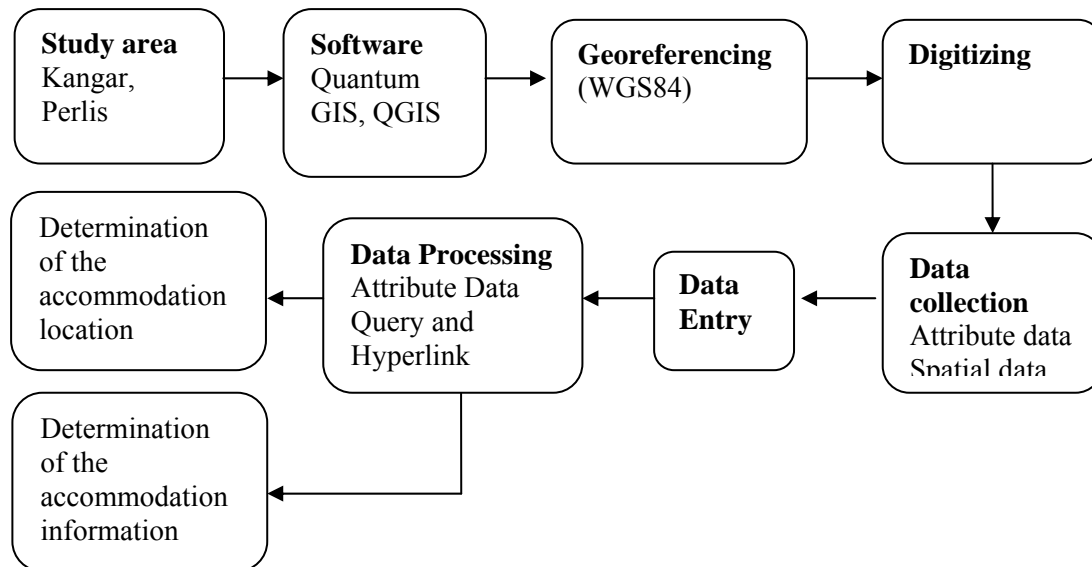


Figure 4: Conceptual Framework

The following table (Table 1) shows a list of attribute and digital data layers used for this study. The attribute data of road layer are the road name and their length while the accommodation information listed as name, phone number, coordinate, facilities, rate and full address of the place. The needs of accommodation coordinates are to help the local or foreign tourists to find the place using the electronic gadget such as their tablet PC and mobile phone.

Table 1: List of Spatial Layers and Attribute Data

Layer	Attribute
Accommodation	Name, Address, No Phone, Photos hotel, Coordinate, Type, Price_Night, TV&WiFi, Air_Cond, Bedroom, Other, Full Address
Fascinating Places	Type, Name, Address, Coordinate, postcode, District, State
Building	Name, Full Address
Road	Road Name, Length

In the study, the database query plugin function in QGIS is to find the location and information of the accommodation (hotel or homestay) including the facilities that meet the demand of tourists from the most fascinating places. Besides, the hyperlink tool is also used to show the real figure of the accommodation facilities using a multimedia approach such as pictures and videos.

The network analysis is one of the functions in the GIS to show the road direction either the shortest or fastest path. The network data structures consist of nodes (From Node, Fnode and To Node, TNode), a link (join two points by line feature) and stop (a location that visited along the path). Basically, there are several networks can analyzed using network analysis such as telecommunication cable, road network, electrical network, underground utility, etc.

In this project, the network analysis used to determine the path direction by considering the length of the road. Therefore, the road network needs to declare the X_From, X_To, Y_From and Y_To to show the road direction from the start (current place) and stop location (destination) (Figure 5).

	OBJECTID_1	OBJECTID	jalan	X_From	X_To	Y_From	Y_To
0	2	2	Jalan Seriap	100.182176095	100.175509039	6.416112842	6.427371959
1	3	3	Jalan Seriap	100.191131496	100.190153747	6.416116509	6.427741646
2	4	4	Jalan Seriap	100.190035987	100.190110263	6.42758518	6.426784197
3	5	5	Jalan Seriap	100.190035987	100.189951673	6.42758518	6.427579158
4	6	6	Jalan Seriap	100.189974014	100.190404286	6.43015007	6.430176152
5	7	7	Jalan Seriap	100.189196296	100.189750077	6.430322488	6.430477432

Figure 5: Coordinate of From Node (FNOTE) and To Node (TNODE)

Determination Of Accommodation Location

Using this project, tourists are able to find the homestay location using the coordinates provided through their electronic gadgets such as tablet PCs or mobile phone (Figure 6).

	hotel_home	Address	Coordinate
0	Putra Palace Hotel	135 Persiaran Jubli Emas, 01000 Kangar, Perlis.	100.203126 E , 6.444609 N
1	Seri Pulau Homestay	No. 11, Jalan Seri Pulau 4,	100.200568 E , 6.426522 N
2	Telok Kachang Homestay	Batu 3/4 Jalan Raja Syed Safi, 01000 Kangar, Perlis	100.183234 E , 6.441182 N
3	Guava Bay Homestay	Km 4, Taman Hiburan, Jalan Kurong Batang, 01000 Perlis	100.177436 E , 6.461104 N
4	88 Taman Hijrah Homestay	Kampung Guar Syed Alwi, 01000 Kangar, Perlis	100.200818 E , 6.426945 N
5	Federal Hotel	104B Persiaran Jubli Emas 01000 Kangar, Perlis	100.198010 E , 6.439211 N

Figure 6: Coordinate of Each Accommodation

In this study, the current location stated as the start location while the accommodation, “Noor Homestay” is declared as the stop location by determining in the database query plugin. Then, determination of road direction based on the distance factor in the shortest path plugin.



Figure 7: Shortest Way From Start and Stop Location

Figure 7, the thickest line displayed on the map showing the shortest path from the current location to the new destination. Moreover, tourists will be able to zoom and pan to the smallest information such as roads which they need to use to reach the locations.

Determination Of Accommodation Information

In this project, the database query plugin used to help the tourists to find the accommodation information, including the facilities that meet with needs before planning their trip. By using this project, the rate of accommodation can easily be found from the GIS database without the need to get access to the different web sources. If they are searching for the accommodation rate, then the Structure Query Language (SQL) can easily be used by typing the expression such as Rate =< RM130. Figure 8 shows the result of the accommodation distribution around Perlis that is below than RM130. Furthermore, the provided phone number of the owner and the full address of the accommodation is for booking purposes.

	hotel_home ▾	Address	Coordinate	No_Phone	Type	Price_Nigh
0	Seri Pulai Hom...	No. 11, Jalan Se...	100.200568 E , 6...	012-5611451 / 0...	Homestay	130
1	Azi Homestay	No 9, Jalan Dah...	100.203466 E , 6...	019-4342821	Homestay	120
2	Hotel Sri Garden	96 Persiaran Jub...	100.196791 E , 6...	+604-9773188 / ...	Hotel	130
3	Mahaji Homestay	NO.7, Jalan Ida...	100.180193 E , 6...	0123165823	Homestay	110

Figure 8: The Price and Coordinate Provided for Each Accomodation

Besides the rate, tourists can also use this application to find the most suitable accommodation in terms of facilities (bedroom, air-conditioning or fan, TV, wi-fi and, etc.) criteria that meet their needs as showed in Figure 9.

Bathroom	Air_Cond	Bedroom ▲	Others
Yes	Air-Cond	2 air-cond bedrooms	7-eleven, shop, banking service, restaurant
Yes	Air-Cond and Fan	2 bedroom with Air-cond	semi-D house
Yes	Air-Cond	2 bedrooms	parking, meeting room, lif
Yes	Air-Cond and Fan	2 room air-cond, 1 room wi...	kitchen, iron
Yes	Air-Cond and Fan	2 toilets, 2 wide living room	1 dinning, fully furnished, 2 wide living room
Yes	Air-Cond	3 bedrooms	kitchen, parking

Figure 9: List of Accomodation Facilities

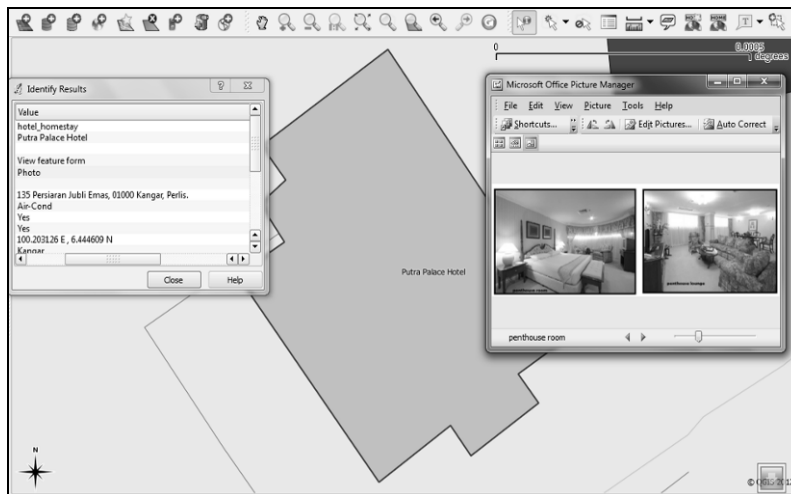


Figure 10: Real Image of Each Accommodation Facilities

The used of Hyperlink button is to link the spatial location to display an image and the video of the accommodation providing facilities using the multimedia approach. It will help the tourists in decision-making because the image displayed shows the real condition of the room and the existing facilities provided by hotels and homestay operators as showed in Figure10.

Conclusion

Tourism has become an important activity, with other economic sectors such as business and industry where the emphasis is given to tourism product of culturally based, arts and rural tourism. Thus, application of GIS is vital as an aid in an effective decision-making in tourism planning. Although the navigation devices are widely used, the weakness of the technologies still poses a problem in meeting the needs of tourists in terms of giving the detailed information about the accommodation and provided facilities. The project will further promote accommodation to tourist in Perlis using GIS application and this will contribute to the incremental of the economy in the Perlis tourism sector.

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Spatial Distributions Of Tourist In Langkawi Island

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Langkawi Island is most competitive tourist destination in Malaysia. Tourism industry in Langkawi boost in late 1980's after this destination declared as free-duty Island. From 2005 until 2011, tourism industry in Langkawi Island always recorded the positive growth and the next development will continues in more intensive phase after Langkawi Tourism Blueprint launched in 8 December 2011. With mission the transform Langkawi as one among top 10 global islands and eco-adventure destination in 2015, the process of development in Langkawi will more focusing on product development, infrastructures and enablers. Langkawi Island formed by 104 different and because of that, this destination can offer many type of attractions started from its scenic beauty to natural heritage until to the legends story. The understanding of tourist distribution can provided the good information especially for tourism market segmentations in Langkawi. With the understanding, the location and allocation of tourism services and facilities can be optimized and it also can use as a basic of forecasting future tourist behavior. Generally, the knowledge about whereabouts of tourists assists in tourism development and planning. Using Spatial Analyst tools in Geographic Information Systems (GIS) ArcGIS 10 software, this paper tries to identify the most visited attractions by 500 tourists in Langkawi Island on 2011. From the 500 respondent, 35 attractions in Langkawi Island were visited.

Key words: tourism, tourist distribution, Langkawi Island, GIS

Introduction

Tourism industry is a one of main contributor to Malaysia incomes. In Tenth Malaysia Plan 2011-2015, tourism industry is one of the 12 National Key Economic Areas (NKEAs) which recognized have big potential to generate high income to country (Mohd Najib Abdul Razak, 2011). In 2011, tourism industry contributed RM 58.3 billion to Malaysia incomes and it was increased compare to receipts in 2010 which only RM 56.5 billion (Siti Shuhada & Normaz Wana, 2012; Borneo Post, February 11, 2012). From that amount, RM 1.9 billion was contributed by Langkawi in 2010

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and in 2011, the total was increase to RM 2.1 billion (Langkawi Development Authority [LADA], 2012). Generally, tourism industry in Malaysia showed the positive growth in term of tourist admission started 2006 until 2011 with increase from 1.81 million to 2.82 million tourists (Figure 1).

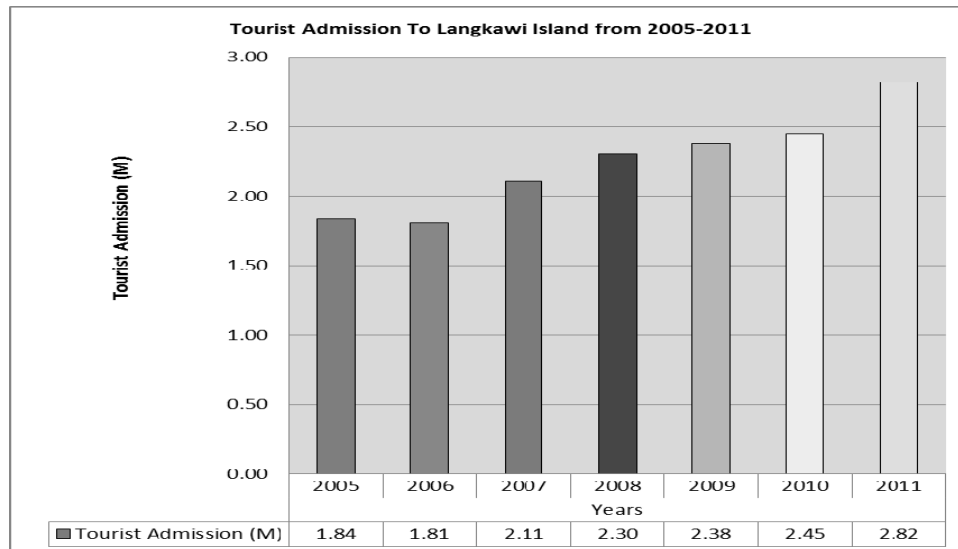
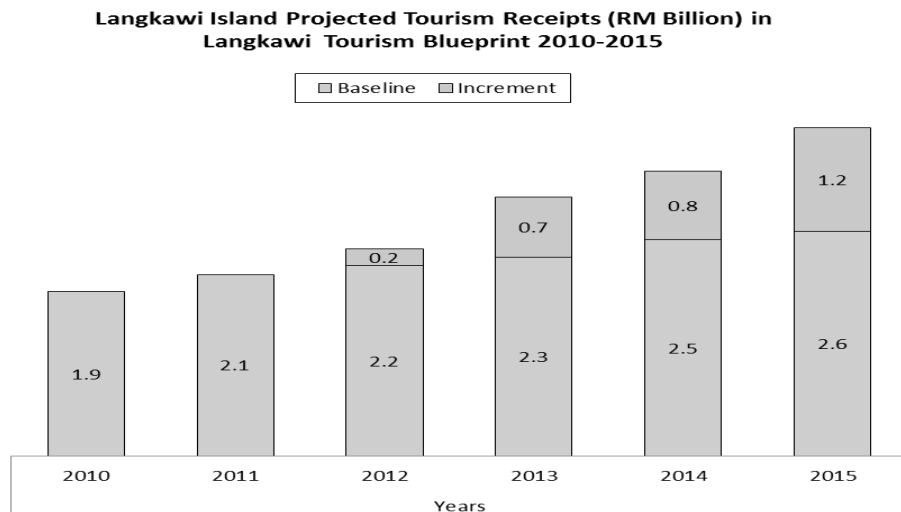


Figure 1: Tourist Admission In Langkawi Island From 2005-2011 (Source: LADA, 2012)

Status and functions of Langkawi as one of most popular destination in Malaysia seen will enhanced when Langkawi Tourism Blueprint 2011-2015 was launched on 8 December 2011 with the vision to transforms Langkawi as one of global top 10 islands and eco-adventure destinations in 2015. For achieve the goal, government had located RM 42 million under the 2012 Budget to undertake the development outlined in the blueprint. The implementation of the blueprint is expected to boost the island's tourism income in 2015 to RM 3.8 billion through three million tourist arrivals, besides making available 4,200 jobs (Bernama, December 8, 2011) (Figure 2).



Baseline refers to receipts assuming Blueprint is not implemented; Increment refers to additional receipts due to implementation of Blueprint

Figure 2: Langkawi Island Projected Tourism Receipts (RM Billion) In Langkawi Tourism Blueprint 2010-2015 (Source: LADA, 2012)

Langkawi is one most competitive tourism destination in Malaysia and currently ranked the fourth best island in Asia by a poll done by Condé Nast Traveller (New Straits Times, October 31, 2012). This island is a part of Kedah State district and formed by 104 different islands which the main island was Langkawi Island with six different subdivisions. Langkawi Island located 30 kilometers from Kuala Kedah, 109 kilometers from Penang and adjacent to the Thailand border (Figure 3). The total land mass of this islands is 47,848.36 hectares which main island area was 32,000 hectares. Almost 90 percent from this islands covered by forest reserved area and agriculture land. Besides that 2/3 from this area was mountainous. Most of island was uninhabited, only Langkawi Island, Island of Pregnant Maiden and Tuba Island had the occupants (Langkawi District and land Office (PDL), 2011).

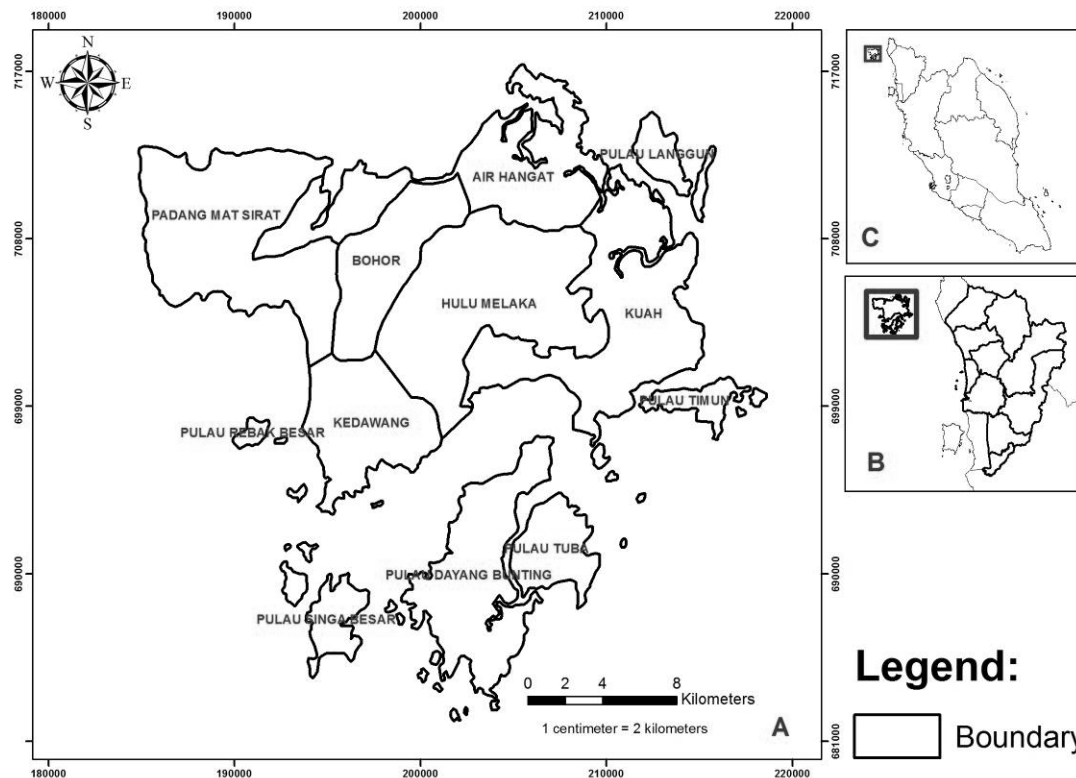


Figure 3: Langkawi Islands (A), The State of Kedah (B) and Peninsular Malaysia (C)

Tourism in Langkawi was boosted in late 1980's after this area declared as free-duty Island by former Prime Minister, Tun Dr. Mahathir Mohamad. Since that, Langkawi develop as most incredible tourist destination in Malaysia and recognized as 'Bandaraya Pelancongan' in 2001, 'Bandaraya Bersejarah' in 2002 and also as 'Langkawi Permata Kedah' in 2008. In 2007, Langkawi was given status as geopark area and it is first UNESCO National Geopark in South-East Asia (Langkawi Geopark, 2012). This island is famous for its scenic beauty, natural heritage and legends but its true potential has not been fully unleashed (Langkawi Municipal Council, 2005) Langkawi Island had many varieties in types of tourist attractions but the choices of destination depend on tourist motivations when their came to Langkawi (Figure 4).

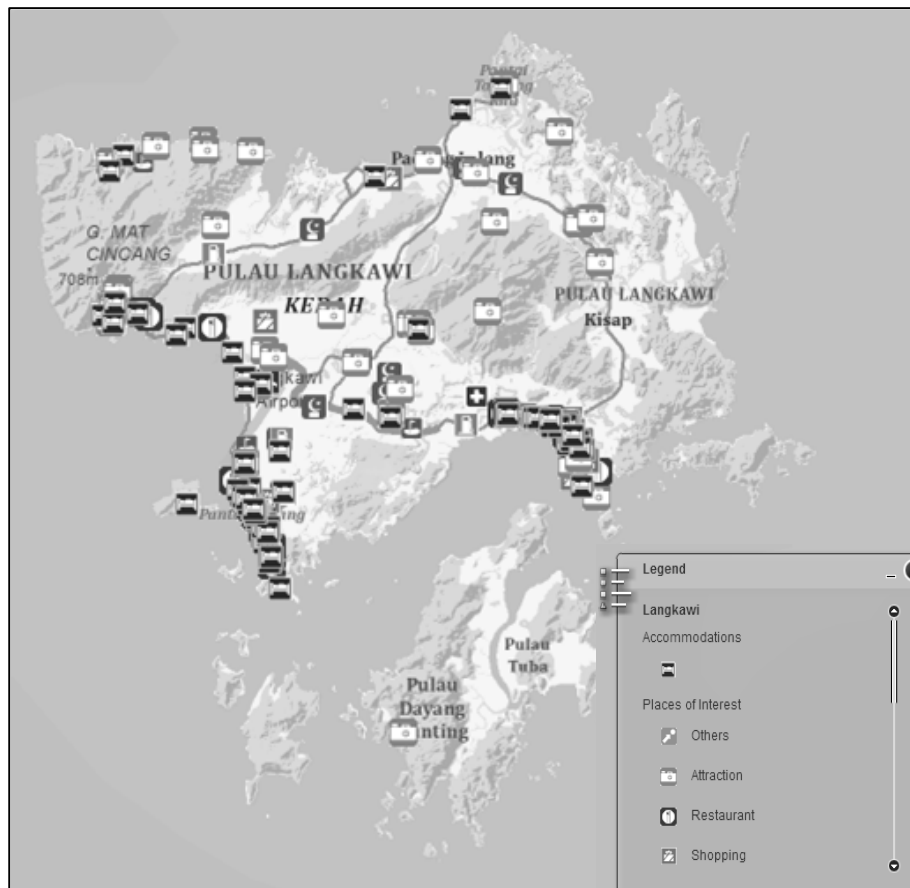


Figure 4: Langkawi Island Attractions
(Sources: Strcmap, 2012)

Methodology

In this study, random survey was conducted with 500 respondents who comes visited Langkawi Island on November 2011. The respondents were between 20 years old until above 65 years old also the domestic and international tourist. The questionnaire was divided to three different components. The objective of this survey was to indentify the tourist movement in Langkawi Island. From all attractions in Langkawi, 35 attractions were listed by 500 respondents as one of their visited locations during their holiday in Langkawi.

Coordinate all the location was identified and database of tourist's frequency who visits the area was developed in ArcGIS 10 software. SPSS software was using to identify the tourist frequency. Using kernel and point density analyst in Spatial Analyst this paper tries to identify most visited place among 500 respondents. In Point density, frequency of tourist in each place of attractions was divided to five [5] different class which it low (1-85), medium low (86-170), medium (171-255), medium high (256-335) and high (336-420).

Literature Review

Avdimiotis and christou (2004) claim that GIS were recognized widely as a valuable tool for managing, decision making, analyzing and displaying large volumes of diverse data. Tourism also an activity highly depended on environmental resources and GIS will provide a toolbox of techniques and technologies of wide applicability

to achievement of sustainable tourism development. Bahaire and Elliot-White (1999) was categories capabilities of a GIS in tourism to seven [7] different class (Table 1).

Table 1: Capabilities of A GIS

Functional capabilities of a GIS	GIS Basic Questions		Tourism Applications
1. Data entry, storage and manipulation	1.Location	1. What is at?	1. Tourism Resource Inventories
2. Map production	2.Condition	2. Where is it?	2. Identify most suitable locations for development
3. Database integration and management	3.Trend	3. What has changed?	3. Measure tourism impacts
4. Data queries and searches	4.Routing	4. Which is the best route?	4. Visitor management/flows
5. Spatial analysis	5.Pattern	5. What is the pattern?	5. Analyze relationships associated with resource use
6. Spatial modeling	6.Modelling	6. What if...?	6. Assess potential impacts of tourism development
7. Decision support			

(Source: Bahaire & Elliot-White, 1999).

According to Luberichs and Wachowiak (2010), tourist flows and spatial distribution patterns are not random. The knowledge about whereabouts of tourists assists in tourism development and planning. With that knowledge, the location and allocation of tourism services and facilities can be optimized. For that, a survey with visitor in Majorca Island was conducted in 2005 with the objective to identify to what extent the capabilities of geospatial analysis can contribute to tourist consumer research will be investigated exemplified for the consumer group of German low-cost carrier passengers (LCCP) on the Spanish Island Majorca. From this study, researchers claim with GIS data from different sources can be brought together for exploratory and explanatory analysis. The explanations for the distribution pattern are important for the spatial development of the destination. The spatial distribution of tourists can use as a basic of forecasting future tourist behavior (Mill 7& Morrison, 1985).

Spatial analyst in ArcGIS 10 software was used to identify the patterns of tourist distribution. The Spatial Analyst extension in ArcGIS 10 software provides a rich set of spatial analysis and modeling tools for both raster (cell-based) and feature (vector) data. The Kernel Density tool calculates the density of features in a neighborhood around those features. It can be calculated for both point and line features. The Point Density tool calculates the density of point features around each output raster cell. Conceptually, a neighborhood is defined around each raster cell center, and the number of points that fall within the neighborhood is totaled and divided by the area of the neighborhood (ESRI, 2012).

Findings

From the survey, 35 attractions in Langkawi Island were visited by 500 respondents (Figure 5). The location of attractions was dispersing around Langkawi area with showed various type of attractions started from place with nature-based to historical dan legendary place until to human creation attractions like cable car, eagle square and so on. Using the Kernel density, nine [9] attractions from 35 attractions detected as the most visited locations in Langkawi Island. More than 50 respondents visited each place with The Kuah Town became the main focal point when 403 from 500 respondents already visited and will visit the area. After the Kuah Town, Mahsuri Tomb, Cable Car and Cenang Beach became most popular place among the 500 respondents. Other popular attractions in Langkawi Island following kernel density analyst result was Padang Matsirat, Underwater World, Eagle Square, Seven Wells Waterfall and also Lake of Pregnant Maiden (Figure 6).

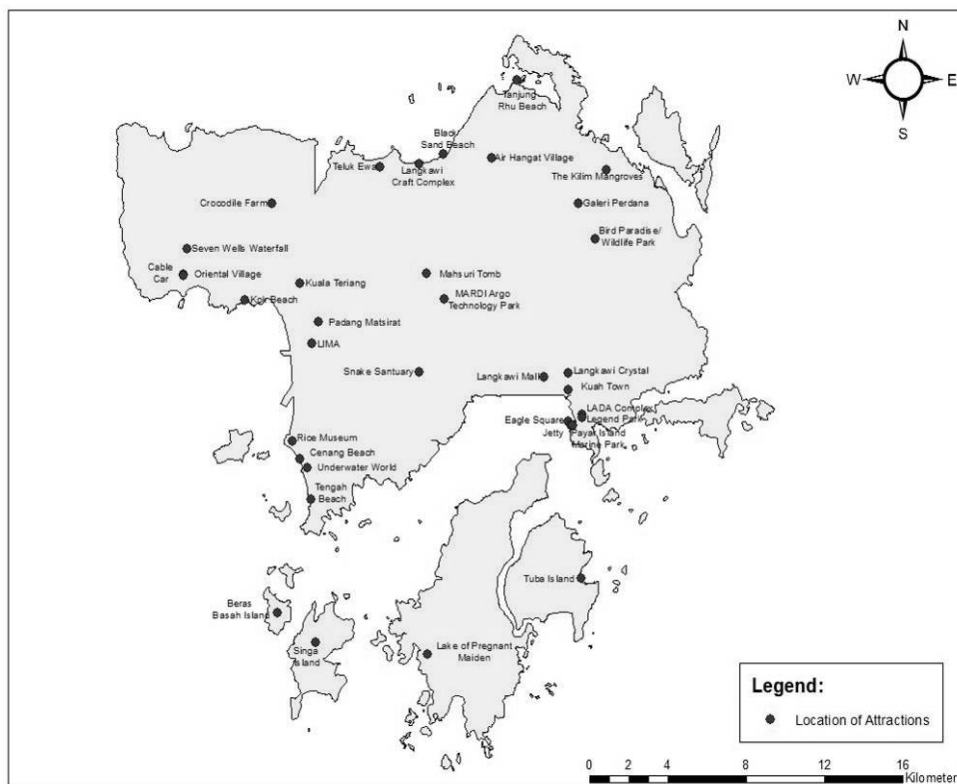


Figure 5: Distribution Of Attractions In Langkawi Island

In Point density analyst, Kuah Town and Mahsuri Tomb showed the high density meanwhile Cable Car and Cenang Beach showed medium high density with frequency of tourist whom visited this place between 256 until 335 tourists. None of the tourist attractions in Langkawi Island listed in medium density range. Padang Matsirat and Underwater World showed the medium low density and others 29 attractions were included in low density which number of tourist were visited all 29 attractions only between one [1] until 85 tourists (Figure 7).

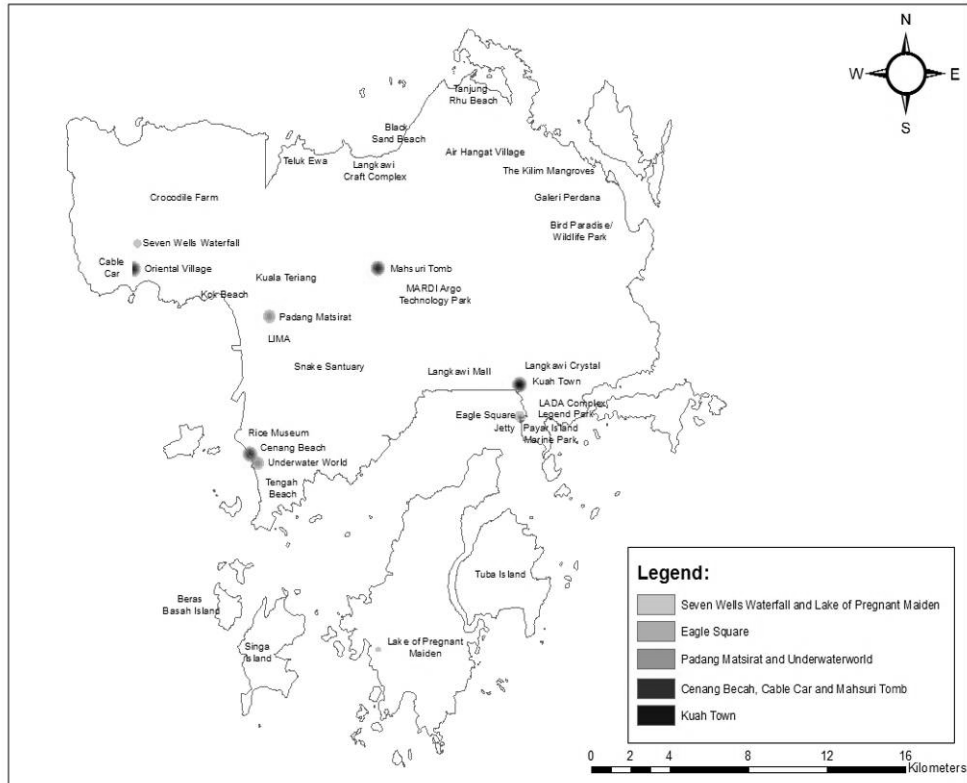


Figure 6: Spatial Distribution Of Tourist Using Kernel Density

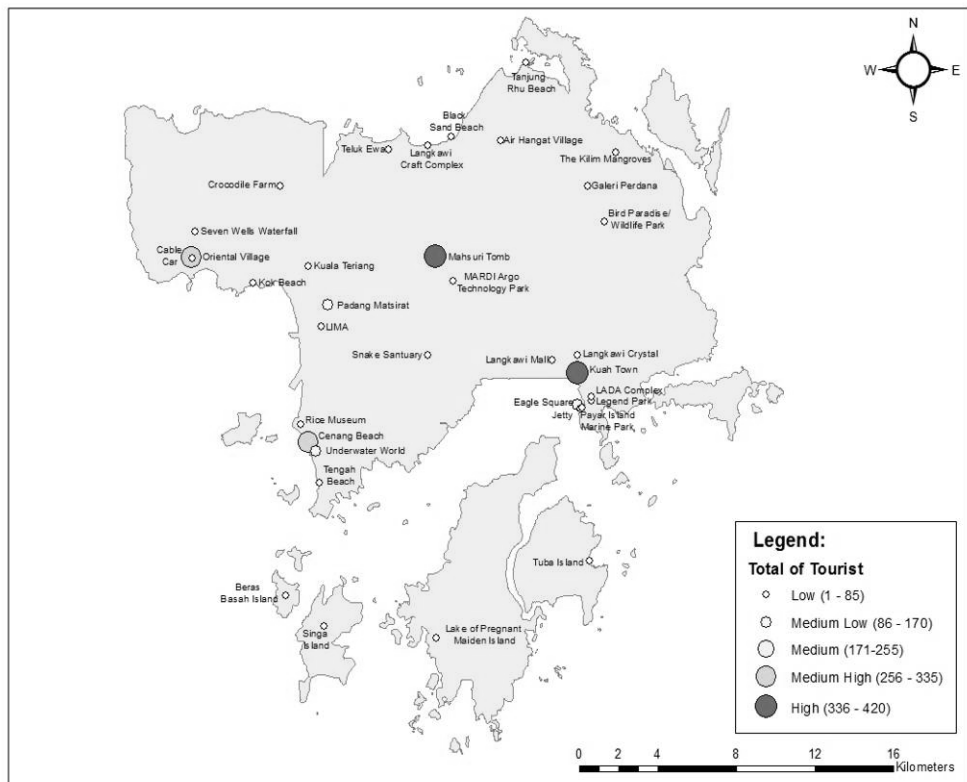


Figure 7: Spatial Distribution of Tourist using Point Density

Conclusion

Langkawi Island showed the blended type of tourist attractions started from nature scenic to legend story until human creation product made Langkawi emerge as one of incredible attractions in Malaysia. From 500 respondents, the result showed the iconic attractions become the most visited places in Langkawi Island. Kuah Town recognized as shopping place among the tourist and the status of free-duty Island give more advantage to this attraction. The iconic chocolate and other cheap thing for souvenirs becomes most important product to this town and also the reason why this place recorded the high number of visitor. Besides that, legend story about Mahsuri and the pregnant maiden has become cultural icon for Langkawi Island and this attraction becomes most valuable cultural product to Langkawi tourism industry. Beauty scenic in Cenang Beach and also the incredible structure and view of cable car also provided the very good prospect to tourism industry in this island.

However, the spatial distribution of tourist in Langkawi Island showed the concentrated pattern which only a few attractions becomes most visited place among respondents. This concentration will give the negative impacts for the place when the level of visitor use is greater than the environment's ability to cope with this use within the acceptable limits of change (United Nations Environment Programmed [UNEP], 2001). This scenario should be considered by those responsible because this situation will affect the life cycle of Langkawi tourism industry in future. Because of that, other attractions in Langkawi need more promotions and added-values to make sure all this attractions can become new identity to Langkawi. The proactive promotion to other attractions also can help to balancing the development around this island.

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Gap Analysis Of Future Studies On Wildlife Tourism In Lower Kinabatangan, Sabah

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The value of wildlife as consumptive or non-consumptive ecotourism activities are evident in many research carried out in the field of wildlife tourism. The Batuh Puteh (Orang Sungai) community of Lower Kinabatangan, Sabah has successfully adopted a combination of an 'authentic' vacation where tourists are open to new cultures and experiencing the natural endowment in the form of non-consumptive wildlife tourism activities. Hence, the objective of this paper is to determine the world-wide view on the concept of wildlife tourism and what are the gaps of future studies in this field for a destination that is known for wildlife tourism. Information for the study was gathered from case studies and articles from a selection of countries based on the notability of their wildlife tourism ventures. The analysis of these cases will be used to review and propose recommendations for further research in the Lower Kinabatangan, Sabah. The suggestions of sustainability, Stakeholder Corporation, biodiversity management, ethical nature values and environmental education and awareness are particularly important to wildlife tourism researchers and decision makers. The analysis from the literature will be useful in finding the gaps of future studies on wildlife tourism in Malaysia with specific reference to Lower Kinabatangan, Sabah.

Key words: wildlife tourism, ecotourism, wildlife management, Miso Walai Homestay, Lower Kinabatangan, Sabah

Introduction

Tourism has become a diverse sector from its traditional sun, sand and sea vacations to alternative tourism vacations and also to niche tourism. These ventures can be as extreme as dark tourism to nature oriented activities. In recent years, national parks and protected areas have been redefined to encompass global issues of unsustainable use of the environment. Although there are set classifications of parks and protected areas by IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature) the system is based on ecological values to conserve and manage sustainably (IUCN, 2012).

It is thought that ecotourism holds the key to protecting natural resources from consumptive use activities that may not be sustainable. According to Vaughan (2000), in regions of high biodiversity, or highly charismatic fauna, ecotourism represents 40

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- 60% of international tourism, whereas 'wildlife related' tourism accounts for 20 - 40%. He also mentioned that this is currently a growing industry which in regions of high biodiversity percentage is classified as 'mega diversity' countries with 60 – 70% sheltered by Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Mexico, Congo (formerly Zaire), Madagascar, China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, and Australia.

Malaysia is currently marketing the image of a multicultural society representing the Malays, Chinese, Indians and other ethnic groups in the Tourism Malaysia tagline, 'Malaysia Truly Asia' (Hamzah, 2004). In keeping with this theme, wildlife tourism can also be a prominent part of portraying cultural richness in a natural environment. Initiatives such as MESCOT an acronym for Model Ecologically Sustainable Community Conservation and Tourism was founded by members of the Batuh Puteh (Orang Sungai) community in 1997, who then formed the current community based ecotourism cooperative (KOPEL Ltd) in 2003 and the Miso Walai Homestay programme. This combination can become an element of an 'authentic' vacation where tourists are open to new cultures and natural endowment in the form of non-consumptive wildlife tourism activities. Extensive research on ecotourism and wildlife tourism is said to be conducted in Africa and Central America, however, Kruger (2005) noted that Asia and South America is not receiving sufficient focus in terms of ecotourism studies given their vertebrate endemism level.

Hence, the main objective of this paper is to determine the world-wide view on the concept of wildlife tourism and *what are the gaps of future studies in this field for a destination that is known for wildlife tourism*. This study will be important in identifying the research gaps in a wildlife tourism destination in Malaysia with specific reference to Lower Kinabatangan, Sabah. In recognising the areas of interest in other scenarios and countries, researchers will be able to use the outcome of this study to focus on developing new concepts and management practices for wildlife tourism.

Literature Review

Within the broad concept of sustainable development there has been on-going international efforts to promote sustainable tourism development in what is known as the Agenda 21 during the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro (Brazil) organised by United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) and the World Ecotourism Summit to name a few. It is thought that sustainable tourism is the management of all resources and it should benefit the environment and local community with the least impact possible and the aim to conserve and protect cultural and natural resources (Neto, 2003).

Many countries have adopted ecotourism initiative as a form of tourism pioneered by Ceballos Lascurain in 1991. In particularly countries such as Belize, Botswana, Rwanda, Uganda, Madagascar, Bolivia, Australia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, South Africa, India, USA, Malaysia and Kenya have successfully adopted ecotourism with the establishment of national parks and nature reserves (Lonelyplanet, 2012; Foat, 2012).

Many countries such as Ethiopia, Costa Rica, Indonesia, India, Rwanda (Vreugdenhil, *et al* 2012; Sarkar and George, 2010; Antonio and González 2009; Krüger, 2005; Walpole and Goodwin, 2001) have done extensive research on particular species of which they have adopted as their 'flagship' species. In many instances, 'flagship' species create the mark of a country that attracts tourists. Some of these examples include in India's Bengal Tigers, Thailand's Asian Elephants,

Costa Rica's Green Macaw, and Guyana's Leatherback Turtles. As in the case of Rwanda, the importance of flagship species has estimated to account for 75% of all tourism income (Kruger, 2005). Malaysia is well known for its richness in endemic biodiversity, in particular the Borneo Island that houses the state of Sabah and Sarawak its flagship species are noted as Bornean orang-utan, Bornean pygmy elephant, Sumatran rhinoceros and the Sundaland clouded leopard (WWF, 2012). Some of the well-known wildlife tourism projects in Sabah include the, Bornean Sun Bear Conservation Centre, Turtle Island Marine Park, Tabin Wildlife Reserve, Labuk Bay Proboscis Monkey Sanctuary, Sepilok Rehabilitation Centre in Sabah.

Scope and Classification of Wildlife Tourism

According to Higginbottom (2004), the scope and classification of wildlife tourism consists of key variables which are commonly used to classify forms of wildlife tourism. They include the Consumptive Wildlife Tourism (CWT) and Non-Consumptive Wildlife Tourism (NCWT):

Consumptive Wildlife Tourism (CWT)

CWT is when animals are being deliberately killed or removed, or having any of their body parts utilised or consumed. As defined by Higginbottom, (2004) they are defined as follows:

“Consumptive use of wildlife for recreation involves the capture or killing of target animals. It can be in the form of (a) recreational hunting of waterfowl and big game (may also be valued for meat), (b) recreational fishing (fish may be released after catching or valued for food), or (c) trophy hunting and fishing (the trophy itself may be valued as well as the thrill of hunting itself)”

Non-Consumptive Wildlife Tourism (NCWT)

NCWT is when wildlife is utilised as a tourism product (Sinha, 2001). According to his definition:

“Non-consumptive tourism involves recreational activities that neither catch nor kill wild animals. Wildlife watching, video-recording and photographing is the most common forms of non-consumptive recreational activities”

Wildlife tourism can also take in the form of captive and semi-captive scenarios such as zoos. As described by Tribe (2004), the success of animal-based attractions and their role in conservation is realized by activities such as genetic management and captive breeding. Such examples in Asia are the Singapore Zoo, Sepilok Orang-utan Sanctuary, Tabin Wildlife Reserve, Bornean Sun Bear Conservation Centre and Lok Kawi Wildlife Park where within these facilities the focus is on breeding endangered species. Whether or not facilities are deemed as having the interest of the initiative of increasing species population and reintroducing them back into the wild is left to be monitored by the authorities.

Methodology

The research objective for this study will be achieved through the qualitative method of thematic analysis of the different definitions relating to rural tourism in existing literature. Thematic analysis can also be referred to as hermeneutics where the authority of concepts, constructs, or categories does not reside in the concepts

themselves but within the dialogically arrived at of people to consent to them (Jamal & Hollinshead, 2001). The selection of articles focused on key words such as wildlife tourism, ecotourism, sustainable tourism, responsible tourism, wildlife management, wildlife values, local community and tourism in Malaysia as well as countries that have adopted such forms of tourism to its success. The database also covers literature from both natural sciences and social sciences fields, as ecotourism lends from both areas.

The authors' suggestions and recommendations were taken into consideration in formulating further areas of study interest for Lower Kinabatangan, Sabah. A total of 42 articles relating to international studies and studies conducted throughout Malaysia were identified from which common areas of ecotourism and wildlife tourism were extracted and analysed. Review of the literature serves the purposes of contextualizing the assessment, drawing on all available resources gathered by previous authors in their respective fields. This can be in the form of electronic, archived documents in the field or administrative centres of the study location.

Results And Discussion

Brief Summary of Research on Wildlife and Tourism

In recent years, case studies done in Kenya, USA, China, Europe and Malaysia by numerous researchers (Davidoff, 2012; Hedlund, 2012; Bhuiyan, 2012; Chye, 2010; Shani and Pizam, 2008; Myers, 2007; Abdullah, 2006) have included wildlife value studies and animal based tourism attractions with the intention of evaluating and adopting new management plans to changing views on animal functions.

The importance of measuring and minimizing visitor impacts in protected areas, environmental protection, biodiversity and backcountry camping has been emphasized by a number of authors focusing on areas within the USA, Australia, India and Costa Rica (Guogang, 2012; Wilson, 2012; Gonzalez, 2009; Marion and Reid, 2007; Tadt, 2007; Leung and Farrell, 2002; Isaacs, 2000; Syamlal, 2002; Horowitz, 1998).

More specifically, it was suggested in many of the studies that managers and scientists may not perceive the role of science in sustainably managing wildlife in similar ways (Rodger and Moore, 2004). Studies done by many researchers (Sarkar, 2010; Zalatan and Gaston, 1996; Simpson, 1993; Nair, 2005; Gossling, 1999; Azima, 2012; Said, 1999) included various types of tourism as alternatives to mass tourism. One such alternative tourism or niche tourism identifies with the role of community based tourism which encourages community participation. This is evident in many research conducted in countries such as South Africa, Indonesia, Malaysia, Kenya and United Kingdom (Simpson, 2007; Ayoo, 2007; MacIntyre, 2007; Wickens, 2003; Hussin, 2008). In regards to Lower Kinabatangan, Sabah, many local researchers have included conservation, biodiversity as well as tourism studies of the area (Razzaq 2012; Ambu, 2008; Hussin, 2008; Hai, 2001).

Key Areas for Further Study within the Context of Lower Kinabatangan, Sabah for a Sustainable Destination

From the analysis of literature, the following areas require further studies as indicated in Figure 1:

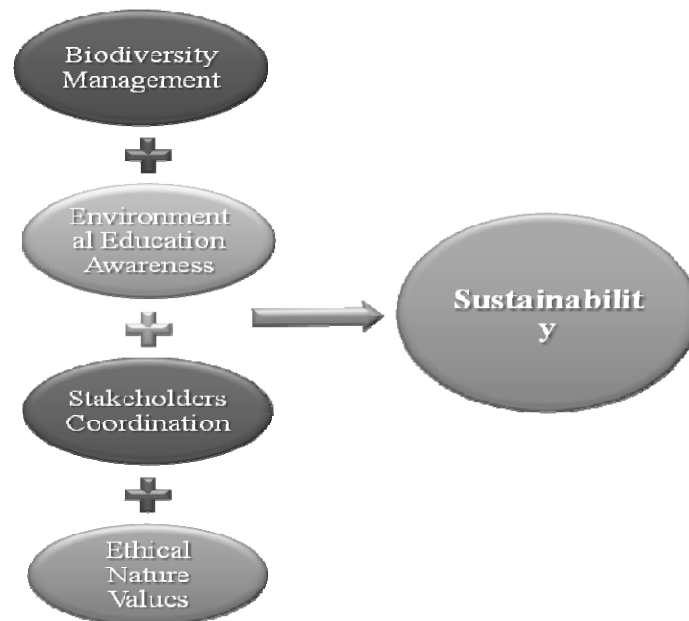


Figure 1: Key Areas of Research for Wildlife Tourism in Lower Kinabatangan, Sabah

Biodiversity Management

Majority of tourism research have included both positive and negative effects of tourism on biodiversity which is mainly reported in environmental journals (Marion, 2006; Krüger, 2005; Chardonnet, *et al* 2002). As noted by Buckley (2003), there are many systems and indicators that are inadequate to manage tourism impacts because ecological and management indicators are not feasible and therefore impracticable to managers. Buckley encourages ecological baseline data and the need for joint partnerships between tourism specialists and biologists or environmentalists as well as the need to implement. This devotion of time and resources to visitor management have been seen as a distraction to the main core value initially sorted in the formation of protected areas, which is to conserve and protect ecosystems. Studies conducted by Marion (2006) on the effects of ecological recreation on backcountry sites such as campsites and trails, indicated several negative impacts on biodiversity. These areas often utilized in tourism activities, thus, should be adequately monitored.

Dwelling on ecotourism as a concept that holds certain principles within sustainable development and as a marketing tool some authors such as Wood, (2002) considered the possibility of misuse of the term to gain positive leverage in the eyes of the public. Meanwhile, authors such as Smeding, (1993) have considered ecotourism in Botswana as being mostly positive as it seeks to protect the environment and local communities living around parks.

However, in terms of land mass and ecological worth not all protected areas are substantially managed, large or flora rich enough to achieve its conservation objectives. Lower Kinabatangan is one such example. Due to major floods and forest fires the remaining evergreen swamps are extremely important as a water catchment area for biodiversity and local communities of Orang Sungai villages in Lower Kinabatangan. However, to an already damaged area due to unsustainable logging, plantation agriculture, mining and hunting challenges are faced to repurchase land from plantation owners to accomplish the aims of Heart of Borneo project (WWF, 2012). This result in the involvement of non-governmental organisation (NGO) such as WWF (World Wildlife Fund) working together with local communities such as

Batuh Puteh, the oil palm industry and the local government of Kinabatangan in an initiative to regain fragmented lands to ecologically useful areas for biodiversity.

Even though ecotourism may have best intentions and benefits to conservation and local communities, without planning and monitoring of all aspects, activities can have negative impacts on the environment. However, case studies of similar biospheres can be useful in planning and monitoring strategies bearing in mind that each area may differ in ecological balance due to its specific needs within the ecosystem.

Environmental Education and Awareness

In general, environmental education is communicated to the public through the use of international and national media. Hence, educating a society in being environmental consciousness is important not only for the tourism industry but for all society. Many tourism entities such as United Nations Tourism Organisation (UNTO), Global Sustainable Tourism Council (GSTC), United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), and Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) devised code of ethics and regulations to manage visitor movement in sensitive areas. Educational and awareness programmes utilize pre visitation methods by sending information before the visitor arrives to the destination as well as information during their stay. According to Marion and Reid (2007), there is need for research in the area of improving educational information given to visitors. They also mentioned that, visitor education is designed to persuade visitors to adopt low-impact practices appropriately. It is believed that once visitors are aware of damaging effects of their actions they would modify their behaviour to be more responsible. However, in some situations careless actions by visitors may impact the behaviour of wildlife. In instances where establishments experience visitors who approach animals too closely even though they were pre-informed by park managers, can be detrimental to both the animal and human.

In addition, education and awareness should also to be transferred to stakeholders involved in the development and implementation of tourism ventures. As a form of Community Capacity Building (CCB), local communities engage in learning processes that assist in developing initiatives. As an example, India's Sunderbans region holds one of the world's largest cats, the Royal Bengal Tiger (*Panthera tigris bengalensis*). Through actionable research, capacity building and environmental awareness the sustainability of the tiger has become an extraordinary case of wildlife protection in India (Sarkar, 2010).

Similar capacity building concept was also utilized by the MESCOT initiatives in Kinabatangan. According to Razzaq, Mustafa and Hassan (2012), there is a large body of literature stating that CCB is a core process in developing and strengthening local people. This concept was adopted by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 1998. They identified three (3) areas of significance - community, organisational and individual levels. Their study further revealed that the key success of community based tourism in the context of Miso Walai Homestay in Kinabatangan was due to community empowerment, planning, awareness, knowledge and skills throughout the stages of development. The community was able to work with WWF in an extensive research of the biodiversity in the area. The merge of human resources not only sparked the MESCOT initiative but it assisted in the vital work needed to gain information that lead to re-gazette the Lower Kinabatangan area in 1997.

Thus, environmental awareness has become necessary due to negative impacts on the environment worldwide. This sparked initiatives from NGO's, governments, companies and the general public in reducing further environmental damage through several methods including education and awareness.

Stakeholders Coordination

There have been limited extensive studies on stakeholder partnership with all entities necessary to gain a better understanding of the management practices of wildlife based tourism activities. For wildlife tourism within protected areas to be successful, it is necessary for the destination image to be well coordinated between the local community, governments, tour operators, tourists, NGOs and the land owners.

A positive destination image of any tourism venture is important especially on matters related to safety, security and stability of location and the country as a whole. Although tourists are aware of the possible dangers of nature based activities, the company should provide precautionary measures such as training guides in wilderness emergency and crowd management. Governmental institutions and NGOs can provide vital information and workshops to tourism companies. They can also assist in policy making and management techniques for companies without the necessary resource and information.

Many wildlife tourism activities are located in national parks and protected areas such as Belum National Park, Iwokrama National Park, Gir National Park, Chobe National Park, Kinabatangan Wildlife Sanctuary, Belum National Park, and Glacier National Park (Iwokrama Rainforest Research Centre, 2012; Chye, 2010; Tadt, 2007; Sinha and Sinha, 2008; Miso Walai Homestay, 2000). Sustainable use of parks is important as well as dialogue with indigenous communities in attempt to avoid conflict with their livelihood. This is the constant difficulty faced by indigenous communities during government decisions when allocating land for commercial use and even as protected areas and national parks. According to Egales, *et al*, (2000), previously many countries adopted a North American model of protected area designation, which resulted in the removal of indigenous population from within the protected area boundaries. However, in recent years, parks have adopted the function of protecting the environment and local communities within. As noted by Kruger (2005), in almost 40% of cases, the consequent involvement of local communities during planning, decision making or as a substantial labour source, made the ecotourism projects and ventures sustainable through reduced need to practise consumptive land use.

Similarly, the MESCOT Initiative has communal and individual rights to their lands which make it easier for the community to manage and control the area. This concept has worked in favour of the MESCOT Initiative and in its continued success. The involvement of all stakeholders from the initial stages and throughout is important to gain a clear perspective and view from all angles of the venture.

Ethical Nature Values

There are several views on the 'use' of animals by humans' which can vary from regions, countries, cultures, traditions or personal. Consumptive values of the ecosystem is generally calculated in terms of economical usage, however, calculating non-consumptive values are in fact a more difficult task that involves several methods both quantitatively and qualitatively.

According to Shani and Pizam (2007), since the influential book “Animal Liberation” was published in 1975 by the Australian philosopher Peter Singer, public concern over ethical treatment of animals has increased dramatically. As explained by Manfredro, Teel and Bright (2003), if the current economic and social trend continues a sustained erosion of traditional orientations toward wildlife is likely and the value orientations will shift from materialist to post-materialist values. They further stated that post-materialist tend to have better jobs, more education, and higher incomes than those with a materialist values set. This shift is seen in many western countries through changes in animal rights laws that will have its own impacts on the management strategies tourism industry.

Recently, Malaysia has incorporated Wildlife Conservation Act 2010, Sabah Biodiversity Enactment 2001 and Animal Act 1953 (Revised 2006) to assist in implementing stringent laws to be enforced. Within the structure of these laws, the tourism industry should focus on the manner in which animals are cared for with particular interest to endangered species. In the tourism industry animals are incorporated in various ways, captive in zoos; in the wild hunted or viewed; utilized for transport or for entertainment in circuses.

A major proportion of the value of biodiversity consists of non-use values. In the case of Batuh Puteh, wildlife viewing and conservation is one of the main sources of revenue for their community based ecotourism venture. With current tourist profile arrival trends of Sabah who are mainly from Japan, China, United Kingdom, Scandinavian countries, Europe, USA, Canada and Australia, the wildlife orientation of these countries should also be considered. The importance of this was expressed by Manfredro, Teel and Bright (2003) in their study, they highlighted that these constructs affect attitudes toward wildlife management and can be useful in guiding planning and programme implementation.

Thus, the implications of shifting values and animal rights should be considered in all nature based tourism oriented ventures. Value and ethical orientations of stakeholders is necessary in determining consumer preference, awareness levels, future management techniques in the establishment of regulations and management systems.

Sustainability

The essence of all development is to find the right equilibrium between profitability (i.e. development) and sustainability. From the analysis, sustainability can be achieved if all the four key areas of research discussed (see Figure 1) can be aligned.

As population growth increases and economic persuasion increases, the ideology of a simple life may be caught between the need to develop and the need to be sustainable. With this in mind, governments worldwide joined in the development of Memorandum of Understandings between countries such as Bulgaria, Romania, Guyana, Norway, Netherlands, and Denmark, under Article 6 of the Kyoto Protocol with the aim of combating global climate change, environmental degradation and protection of indigenous communities (Mitchell, 2012)

One such known memorandum is the Kyoto Protocol where countries of high carbon emissions will in turn provide financial support for countries that have a vast expanse of forest reserves remaining. One such country is Guyana whose Low Carbon Development Strategy (LCDS) was accepted by the Government of Norway to support REDD-plus Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in Developing countries (Kyoto Protocol, Retrieved March 20, 2012). As an outcome,

the then president of Guyana donated 371,000 hectares of forest to the world in 2009 (Iwokrama Rainforest Research Centre, 2012). Lower Kinabatangan was also given as a gift to the world in 2002 when the State Government declared the Kinabatangan-Corridor of Life as a “Gift to The Earth” (Kinabatangan Corridor of Life, 2009).

These initiatives from government levels are seen as plausible in the move towards a sustainable future, however, management and policy enforcement at ground levels and local levels are still being questioned. Whether or not there is a lack of human resource, finances or knowing the specific authority in charge of each area or situation, the purpose of ecotourism is being questioned. Green washing seems to be so rampant that identifying genuine ecotourism operators is becoming more and more difficult (Horiuchi and Schuchard, 2009)

In the research conducted by Kruger (2005), 188 case studies were analysed from Africa, Central America, South America and Asia. From this number, 70 case studies were classified as unsustainable and excluding local communities in countries such as Costa Rica, Nepal and even in Malaysia. He noted that almost half of all unsustainable case studies reported that ecotourism led to serious habitat alteration, mainly in the form of major habitat changes in order to accommodate more Eco tourists, serious trail erosion due to a high number of people or cars on a certain track and pollution caused by eco-tourists in mostly fragile areas, such as islands or mountain regions. In the publication, he also made reference of Malaysia, pointing out that large-scale habitat transformation has been taking place to enhance ecotourism experience. Nonetheless, sustainable case studies were seen to have conservation projects, local community’s involvement, flagship species, and non-consumptive use of wildlife, and also effective planning and management.

Therefore, there are movements towards sustainable actions in many aspects of societal development creating global outreach by governments. Initiatives such as REDD- plus is at the global level which serves to maintain present and future forests. For sustainability to be successful it is important to set strategies with the involvement of key stakeholders not only in present planning but also for its longevity. Initiatives at the local level should also create a sense of ownership throughout societal values, therefore, acknowledging nature as valuable even if not used by humans at present time but its untouched value to non-human animals and for future needs of human persons.

Conclusion

Tourism that involves the life of the mother earth’s animal kingdom should not be taken light heartedly. Although the levels of use of the ecosystem vary among individuals, groups, cultures and traditions the worldwide efforts for sustainable development are becoming a constant call of those directly and indirectly concerned for the future welfare of our planet. Whether we are dwell within a developed or developing nation the core value of the way we manage our resources for its longevity is all so important for the future generations.

In the past 3 decades rapid environmental degradation has been noticed to occur especially in areas of rich biodiversity and within reach of native communities. This particularly took centre stage during the 1980’s with the advent of technological advancement and the ability of the internet generation (Gen-Y) to gain access to information on a worldly basis.

Owing to the new learning curb of technology and environment concern, the value orientation has been noticed to be on a constant change towards a more eco-

centric society. Malaysia to keep up with changing views and their goal of becoming a developed nation by the year 2020, their welfare acts for both humans and animals should be enforced more stringently with in keeping with new amendments to the Wildlife Conservation Act 2010, Sabah Biodiversity Enactment 2001 and Animals Act 1953 (Revised 2006).

Although the authors have suggested definitions for wildlife tourism, some have also insisted that there is no clear definition of the term. However, the concept clearly encompasses some basic areas that should be taken into consideration when embarking on wildlife tourism ventures. There may or may not be one definition for wildlife tourism except in its basic form “tourism that involves encounters with non-domesticated animals either in their natural environment or in captivity” (Cooperative Research Centre (CRC), 2001). However, in each scenario management and monitoring with the core value of protection and conservation of the biosphere and its ecosystems is absolutely necessary. Therefore, tourism specialists should work closely with biologists and environmentalists when determining the most appropriate sustainable use of the topography of each area. This should also include improvements to regulations, decision-making and actions plans that include all stakeholders involved.

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Sustainable Remote And Rural Eco-Tourism: Applying A Systemic, Holistic, A Interdisciplinary And Participatory (Ship) Approach

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Long Lamai is a remote and rural Penan community in the interiors of Borneo in Sarawak, Malaysia. It is only accessible by either an 8-hour 4-wheel-drive on the logging road or an hour's flight via a 19-seater Twin Otter, and then a mandatory hour's river ride upriver. Long Lamai is being developed as an eco-tourism site, given the existence of natural attractions such as untouched flora and fauna, and the unique Penan's culture. A telecentre (which provides computing facilities and Internet connection via a satellite system, and using solar-power), was established in 2009. The management committee, which is running the telecentre, is also spearheading the use of ICTs in establishing Long Lamai as a tourist attraction and hence, to improve the socio-economic status. In addition to this, there are many aspects which need to be addressed, for example, the issues of environment, e-commerce, handicraft development, transportation, sourcing of food, sourcing of raw materials for the handicrafts, tour guiding, and development of tourism activities. One approach to the design and development of sustainable eco-tourism industry is by viewing the whole socio-economic transformation process as a complex system. The complex system comprises the various "sub-systems" such as those described above, e.g. environment, e-commerce, and handicraft development. All these sub-systems interact and affect each other, and has to work effectively and efficiently together. To understand this complex system, we take the SHIP (systemic, holistic, interdisciplinary and participatory) approach. This paper thus details a study of Long Lamai as an eco-tourism site from the SHIP perspective.

Key words: eco-tourism, socio-economic improvement, rural and remote communities, complex socio-technical systems, systemic, holistic, interdisciplinary and participatory, SHIP approach

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Introduction

Tourism is a major industry in many economies, also one of the fastest growing economic sectors across the world. It is an industry primarily which has dealt with rendering services to various classes of tourists. Considering the tremendous growth of tourism economics, there is a great optimism for rural tourism too. There exists the demand for rural tourism that is influenced by various factors at the individual level. An increased longing for the countryside as a result of the hustle-bustle of modern urban life, a booming natural food market, and a desire to conserve traditional rural life are among the factors that support the generation of this demand (Ertuna & Kırbaş, 2012). Many rural communities are finding that tourism is a lucrative local-based business – local ownership, local management and local spin-offs. It promotes the development of small scale businesses and family-based enterprises, for example homestay, lodging and recreation activities, that root in local scenery and tap into local culture.

Rural areas generally suffer high levels of poverty due to greater economic instability than the urban counterparts. Most poor people who live in rural areas are primarily engaged in low productivity farming activities, and due to the geographical conditions, have low-level of infrastructural development and access to essential services. Introducing rural tourism to rural areas can provide wider advantages to the people (Holland, Burian, & Dixey, 2003). As aforementioned, it promotes local-based businesses and enhances local participation in development. Apart from this, according to Gannon (1994) and Kieselbach and Long (1990), the development of tourism may be a panacea to address poverty alleviation and other benefits to rural areas, such as

- Economic growth, diversification, and stabilisation;
 - Employment creation, as primary or secondary source of income;
 - Decrease of rural-urban migration and depopulation;
 - Maintenance and improvement of public services and infrastructure
 - Revitalisation of local crafts, customs and cultural identities;
 - Protection and improvement of natural and built environment; and
 - Increase recognition of rural precedence by policy-makers and economic planners.
- Thus, rural tourism has vast potential to bring about social and economic transformation to remote and rural communities.

The development of rural tourism has also attracted extensive research interest. The scope of rural tourism policy has expanded its objective that is concerned as being sustainable. The basis of being sustainable for rural tourism seeks to keep triangular equilibrium between the tourism-operating environment (eg. tourists, tourism industries), the destination environment and the host community (Sharpley & Sharpley, 1997). An ideal aim for sustainable rural tourism is to minimise environment disturbance and cultural damage, optimise visitors' satisfaction, and meanwhile maximise long-term economic growth for the host region. Nevertheless, in the past, the industry players used to dominate the triangle alone, advocating a pro-development of rural tourism. The fragile environmental or ecological part is often left unnoticed. Conversely, there also exists the pro-conservation development of rural tourism often fails to take into account the economic implications.

However, research on the tourism sustainability is limited (Saarinen, 2006) and the study of tourism policy is difficult. Tourism policy development, explicitly and implicitly involves beliefs and values, about what is good and bad (Scott, 2011) that span across multitude of interested parties. As rural tourism involves processes

constructed around broad range of stakeholders with respect to the treatment of different dimensions of sustainability, a consequence of the complexity nature is that there will be differences in opinions without consensus over “appropriate” policies and strategies that would ensure the realisation of a dynamic system of sustainable rural tourism.

Sustainable Rural Tourism

The concept of “sustainable development” has been in spurts and starts, and it is understood today since the Brundtland Commission Report in 1987 by the World Commission on Environment and Development, as “*development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*” (United Nations, 1987). Although the Brundtland Commission Report made no particular reference to tourism, the role of tourism itself as a development industry thus should adhere to the tenets of sustainable development. As noted in the previous section, the concept of sustainable rural tourism still remains elusive and literature is fraught with ambiguity, whether the focus should be on making the development of tourism itself more sustainable or on achieving sustainable development through tourism (Hunter, 1995). There is no clear direction on this subject that has led to a multiplicity of lines of thoughts. Thus, one practical way forward lies in the need to create proper and appropriate sustainable rural tourism curricula together with encouraging the appropriate change of mindset.

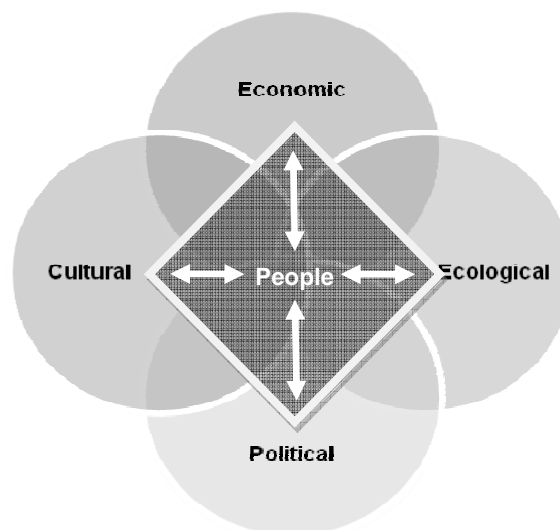


Figure 1: Complex system of rural tourism sustainability

The basis of sustainable development exists in four distinct constituent parts namely the economical, environmental/ecological, political and cultural sustainability. These dimensions not only exist individually but there are inter-relationships between each sector that need to be balanced. Rural tourism development is complex, considering the wide variety of interrelated large-impact aspects in societal, moreover involving various stakeholders. Given this multi-dimensionality, trying to understand and study the rural tourism industry is difficult (see Figure 1) given that it has to take into consideration the numerous factors which may be problematic and influence the solution. The rural tourism system cannot be studied based on each separate component, but as a whole, to achieve a sustainable result.

This paper presents the use of the SHIP approach (Manuaba, 2007) to attain the dynamic goal of sustainable rural tourism development. We will use Long Lamai, a village which aims to become a remote eco-tourism village, as a case study. SHIP stands for “systemic”, “holistic”, “interdisciplinary” and “participatory”. The SHIP approach provides community-based solutions that foster democratic participation and ownership. Such an approach entails the following:

- Firstly, to understand and regard the tourism project as a **system**, which then allow the identification of interconnections between component parts of the system and that within each part (sub-system);
- To view the system **holistically** as a whole, but not as isolated components of the system;
- For people from different disciplines to work collaboratively in a team (thus, the **interdisciplinary**);
- and to actively involve those who are concerned and committed to the issues that occur in the system; ensure that the target stakeholders **participate** in the process and solution. SHIP has been advocated in community development literature, notably the transformative agenda of consciousness raising and enhanced participatory democracy (Hitchcock & Wesner, 2008).

In this research, we will employ a SHIP approach which supports the notion of sustainable rural tourism by recognising “rural tourism” as a system incorporating many multi-disciplinary elements that need to be examined as part of a holistic analysis. We believe employing this approach will allow us to identify the important sub-systems, and then tackle issues of each sub-system (involving the stakeholders), how sub-systems interact as well as with other sub-systems as a collective whole.

Case Study

This section presents a case study that utilises the SHIP approach in identifying, analysing and solving issues faced in any rural tourism activity in the quest to attain sustainable results.

Long Lamai

Long Lamai is one of the biggest and oldest settlement of the Penan in Sarawak. Located in the remote interior of Sarawak near the border of Kalimantan, Indonesia, travelling to the settlement takes eight hours 4-wheel-drive on rough logging roads or an hour’s flight via a 19-seater Twin Otter, and then a mandatory hour’s river ride upriver or hiking through the dense rainforest.

The Long Lamai Penans were once nomadic people of the rain forest until in 1955 headman Belare Jabu was encouraged by the British colonial administration to settle at the current village site on Balong River. Today, Long Lamai has a population of approximately 500 people. Most of them live in subsistence farming and herding, but still continue to make long journey into the forest to collect various products for food and medicine. Nevertheless, the knowledge of the forest that they have amassed is still retained and is being passed generation to generation. They view the entire rainforest as their home, and lived a lifestyle that does not exploit or harm their home.



Hour-long journey to Long Lamai



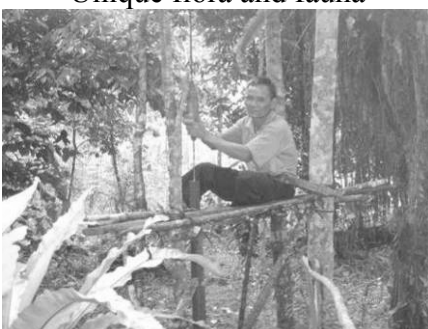
Telecentre in Long Lamai



Unique flora and fauna



Weaving of baskets



Making blowpipe the traditional way



Traditional costumes/customs still existing

Figure 2: Images of Lamai and its potential

Ngerabit e-Lamai Telecentre

In 2009, a community-led telecentre, Ngerabit e-Lamai, was established there. The community was provided with computer facilities and access to the Internet via a satellite telecommunication system, and powered by a solar (photo-voltaic) system. The community was given basic computer skills and relevant training to operate the telecentre. The telecentre is currently being run by community members and they are aware of the opportunities and risks presented by Internet access. The main role of the telecentre is envisaged as a means to bridge the digital divide, not only providing connectivity to a remote community but also as a catalyst to bring about socio-economic development.

Rural Tourism

Efforts are under way to integrate information and communication technologies (ICTs) to all sectors and new rural services. Rural tourism is one such area. Given that

the rich cultural heritage of the Penan people and the beauty of flora and fauna, makes Long Lamai a region which is ideal to take advantage of the interest in eco-tourism and cultural tourism (see Figure 2). In addition, the existence of the telecentre can act as an enabler to assist the new tourism industry in Long Lamai in terms of promotion, and e-commerce. Rural tourism would improve the livelihood of the rural community by generating enhanced source of income and creating alternative income options, which otherwise is dependent upon subsistence farming.

The local community in Long Lamai started to leverage on the telecentre by setting up an e-Commerce business to grow the handicraft industry. Handicrafts that produced by the Penans in Long Lamai varies from mat weaving to basketry, beading and blacksmithing. The Penans artisans are skilled in traditional handicraft making thus authenticity of their handiwork is highly sought and valued in the market, moreover highly relevant from a cultural perspective. Before e-Commerce is introduced, due to the remoteness of Long Lamai, their handicraft products may not achieve the asking price by directly going onto the open market; they may have to take an inferior amount that is offered by a middle vendor. Marketing and selling rural handicrafts online will not only expand the economy of people in Long Lamai, but also attract tourists to learn more about the uniqueness of handicrafts.

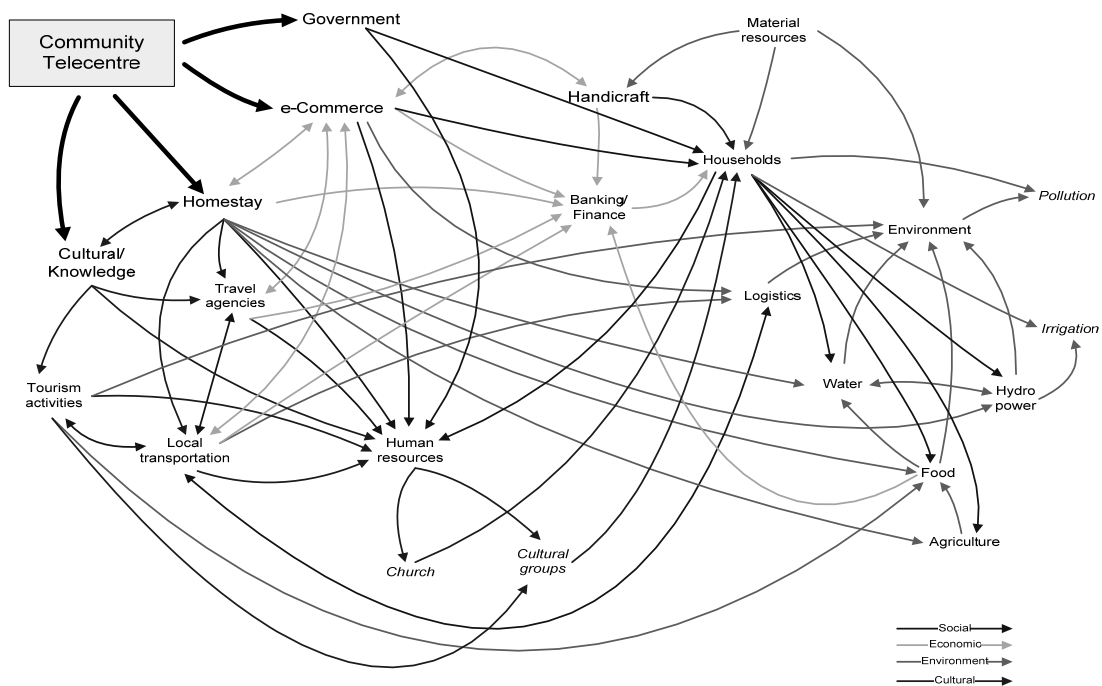


Figure 3: System design of rural tourism in Long Lamai

Besides, the community in Long Lamai has also started to establish community-based homestay programme where tourists stay with selected families, interact and experience the Penan culture and lifestyle. In addition, tourists are often involved in local activities planned in this remotely rural community such as jungle trekking, boat cruising or rafting, fishing, picnicking and cultural night performances. Like commercialising local handicraft through online, the community uses the telecentre in the marketing of the eco-tourism and homestay programme. As a result, rural tourism in Long Lamai has improved community facilities and public amenities such as transportation facilities and sewage system. The boatmen in Long Lamai gather and collaboratively arrange longboat transports for the tourists – by taking

turns so that everyone can benefit from another income. Some houses that provide homestay are building proper long drop toilets with in-ground septic tanks and privacy shed. A proper latrine system in rural area may improve better hygiene and sanitation practices by the people in Long Lamai.

Nevertheless, there are downsides with rural tourism development. While travelling, tourists may impact on the natural environment and climate. Natural stock of raw materials for handicraft making (such as rattan) may become scarce and deplete, or may only be available at certain time of the year. Greater number of tourists may cause environmental pressure such as water pollution (reducing quality of river water quality, which affects water consumption) and tranquillity of rural area (overcrowding). Competitive demands may exploit the limited natural resources and spoil the natural scenic beauty.

Rural tourism retailing (e.g. corporate travel agencies and operators) can also bring positive and negative economic and cultural changes, such as employment opportunities but the community may become too dependent on the urban entrepreneur or investor resulting local rural employees being exploited. Also, rural tourism may lead to modernisation which may hasten the loss of traditional values and cultural practices.

The following sections will employ the SHIP approach to identify and provide a platform to study the rural community and propose plans to move forward.

Systemic and Holistic

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The positive impact of rural tourism is favourably anticipated but the negative ones should be envisaged and overcome. Sustainable rural tourism development must encompass a *systemic* view of the structure and processes that occur in between the sub-system components (system parts). Each sub-system interact as they continually influence one another (directly or indirectly) in order to maintain or achieve a common goal; hence the adoption of “systems thinking” encourages thinking about the cause-and-effect between these elements. Systems thinking focuses on cyclical rather than linear cause-and-effect. It is best understood in the context of relationship with other sub-system, rather than in isolation. By doing so, each problem/goal can be identified and be solved by working on the relevant sub-systems, before continuing to work on the problem at a *holistic* level.

A system view of rural tourism in Long Lamai is illustrated in Figure 3 where tourism clusters are taken into account. The system gives an illustration of the cause-and-effect relationships between the sub-systems. These relationships can be subsequently analysed at the sub-systems level and later, holistically to achieve the goal of sustainable development or solving a problem. Taking the example of handicraft making industry in Long Lamai is perceived as an economical (sub-)system that generates income for the local people (Handicrafts to Banking/Finance connection in Figure 3). However when the (sub-)system is viewed at a higher level, it is found that handicraft activity may have an environmental issue as the source of raw materials are collected from the forest (Handicraft to Material resources-Environment connection in Figure 3). Thus, a solution is required to either use conservatively or to consider planting rattan to ensure a sustainable supply.

Interdisciplinary and Participatory

In addition, these problem need to be solved systematically and holistically, by means of an *interdisciplinary* approach. Each sub-system is different and needs of different expertise and knowledge. For example, rural handicraft industry involves the artisans, who have different knowledge from the farmers and agriculturalist. Farmers and agriculturalist may be needed to start the plantation to ensure a steady supply of raw materials (rattan). The solution requires the artisans, farmers and agriculturalist to discuss how to ensure a sustainable supply of rattan. One party by themselves would not have a complete solution. The gap between the different disciplines needs to be bridged to bring about a consolidated solution. There are six criteria which must be comprehensively assessed so that solution is technically (robust in rural environment and condition), economically (affordable, cost-effective), ergonomically (safer and healthier), socio-culturally sound (relevant to local cultures and practices), saves energy (green technology that works at limited energy resources), and it must preserve the environment (environmental friendly) (Manuaba, 2007). If one or more of these criteria gives a negative rating, steps needs to be taken to overcome these aspects; else a compromise may be required.

This in turn, implies a strong commitment of *participation* by the local rural communities. In order to be sustainable, it is imperatively to involve local community, provide to a certain extent of local control and to respect their concerns. In rural development, local community empowerment is important as a process that helps people to have a sense of ownership over the development being implemented at their area. In a Delphi survey by Miller (2001) highlighted that the importance of local stakeholder involvement, *“Locals are considered by many respondents to be key to the issue of sustainability and as such their negative perception of tourism are a ‘barrier to sustainability’. Locals must be convinced therefore of the benefits from tourism before any progress can be made towards a more sustainable positions”*. In fact, the study of eco-tourism in Long Lamai provides a good example of local active participation where the development is “locally-governed” and at the local community’s interest.

Conclusion

The development of sustainable rural tourism in Long Lamai can be studied from a total SHIP. Through this total approach, tourism development can be potentially more humane (at local’s interest), competitive (local community empowerment) and sustainable for survival and continual development. This paper concludes that using the SHIP approach, we can assist in the study of rural tourism industry in a more detailed manner, by identifying the components (actors and tourism clusters) and though a breakdown of the sub-systems, the relationships and the factors that induce the competitiveness at different level of interest (intra- and inter- issues). These sub-systems can be optimised to achieve the concept of sustainable development.

To-date rural tourism development is still on-going in Long Lamai which is making slow but steady progress in becoming an eco-tourism destination. While many of the facilities are not developed, through the SHIP approach, we believe a sustainable rural tourism industry is achievable.

Acknowledgement

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Potentials And Challenges Of Involving Indigenous Communities In Ecotourism In Belum-Temenggor Forest Complex, Perak, Malaysia

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Ecotourism is usually regarded as responsible travel to nature-based areas with the aims to enjoy nature while at the same time to contribute towards the protection and conservation of nature as well as to the welfare of local communities in that area. Most significantly, ecotourism should provide opportunity for the locals to participate and gain benefit from its development. Belum Temenggor forest is among the most promising ecotourism destinations in Malaysia. Furthermore, this area is currently widely being promoted up to international level due to its complex ecosystem and rich wildlife diversity. Not only blessed with rich and flourishing flora and fauna, this area also shelters the indigenous orang asli communities made up of Jahai and Temiar together with their unique cultures. However, the main research questions explored in this paper are: Are these 'shy' indigenous communities prepared to delve into the fast developing ecotourism sector? How are they involved in ecotourism and do they benefit from it? This paper examines how the orang asli perceive ecotourism and its development, and how ecotourism in turn affects them. The main research instrument used is qualitative techniques based on interviews with key informants. Results indicate that the BTFC is facing increasing threats, and tourism development is threatening its natural heritage. The results also show that ecotourism has great potentials but the orang asli community enjoys little of the tourism benefits. Instead, orang asli cultures are eroded, their natural habitat on which they rely on for their subsistence increasingly destroyed, and their villages encroached upon. Ecotourism needs to find a balance between economics, environment and social equity, viz. where the orang asli community is involved and enjoys equally the benefits to ensure its sustainability in BTFC.

Key words: ecotourism, indigenous community, protected area, culture

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Introduction

In most countries, ecotourism is closely related to not only its natural attributes/attractions but also its indigenous peoples (Suriati et. al, 2006). Ecotourism cannot possibly be detached from indigenous peoples as the latter is part and parcel of the tourism package as an added value attraction in itself. However, while tourism and ecotourism have received a great deal of attention in many countries and is seen as a tool to stimulate economic growth and promote environmental conservation, sadly the same cannot be said about the indigenous peoples. There have been too many cases of marginalisation of indigenous peoples in the tourism development literature (Chan, 2004a). Ecotourism development has been taking place in the forests of Malaysia since independence in 1954. However, the involvement of local indigenous community has been marginal and the benefits of the industry to locals are small. Lim et al (2006) has found that a small number of *Orang Asli* is engaged in the tourism industry, but mostly working as unskilled workers in hotels, waiters in restaurants, sales persons selling souvenirs and other odd jobs. The local community could contribute to the development of ecotourism development by playing a more active role. They have good knowledge of the tropical forests, their flora and fauna. They make use of the forest resources for generations and thus are able share their knowledge and experience with tourists from within and outside the country.

According to Ceballos-Lascuráin (1996), ecotourism is defined as “environmentally responsible travel and visitation to relatively undisturbed natural areas, in order to enjoy and appreciate nature (and any accompanying cultural features- both past and present) that promotes conservation, has low negative impact, and provides for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local populations”. The Malaysian government in the National Ecotourism Plan 1996 has adopted this definition. This definition succinctly means ecotourism depends on destinations rich in natural areas that are considered natural heritage coupled with unique local cultures that are attractions (Chan, 2004b; Clifton, 2004).

Azreen et. al (2011) documents that Malaysia is endowed with vast amount of biological diversity, beautiful landscapes, unique cultures and lush ecosystems as and is considered one of the 17 megadiverse countries in the world that houses many endemic species (Latiff et. al., 1995). Badaruddin Mohamed (2002) has documented Malaysia’s immense potentials as an ecotourism destination. The Belum Temengor forest complex (BTFC) (Figure 1) is considered one of the rich biodiverse natural areas that have great potentials for ecotourism (Ang and Chan, 2009). In the National Ecotourism Plan (MOCAT, 1996), the Malaysian Government has earmarked the BTFC as one of the potential ecotourism sites to be fully developed. The Malaysian Government is of the view that important natural assets combining flora and fauna together with unique natural landscapes should be enjoyed by both its citizens and the world. Hence the attributes of BTFC must be conserved, protected and kept thriving in healthy numbers in order to ensure that the country’s national ecotourism plan be realized. Hence, lots of developments have been carried out or are planned for the BTFC and other natural areas. However, one must not lose sight that natural areas are not solely the ownership of ecotourism. Far from it, natural areas serve a great variety of purposes and functions such as water catchments, wildlife sanctuaries, biodiversity reservoir, forestry, research, habitat of flora and fauna (and also of indigenous forest people such as the *orang asli* in BTFC), and even climate change control. Unfortunately, over-zealous development at break-neck speed without proper planning and consideration have given rise to threats and negative effects on these

pristine areas (Chan, 2010). Others have also warned about the rampant poaching, uncontrolled logging activities, and mis-management issues are among some of the threats that could destroy the potentials of this area from becoming one of the internationally-known ecotourism destinations in Malaysia. Of great concern is that fact that rapid development in tourism and other developments have encroached upon the forested land which the *orang asli* call home (Tan, 2011). Badaruddin Mohamed (2002) has found that although ecotourism stresses the importance of strong community involvement in the tourist business, locals continue to be mere ‘objects’ or ‘products’ to be gazed by the visitors. For example, in the case of Taman Negara Malaysia (Malaysia National Park), visiting aboriginal villages and observing their lifestyle have been prominent features in the tourism activities in the park. Locals, much less indigenous peoples, become owners of tour businesses or run businesses related to tourism. This paper examines some of the negative effects of tourism development and threats on the *orang asli* in the BTFC and provides suggestions and recommendations in ensuring that the livelihood of *orang asli* is not endangered and their cultures not destroyed. The paper takes the middle approach of sustainable development whereby ecotourism development should be well balanced between economic gains and environmental conservation and social (*orang asli*) equity.

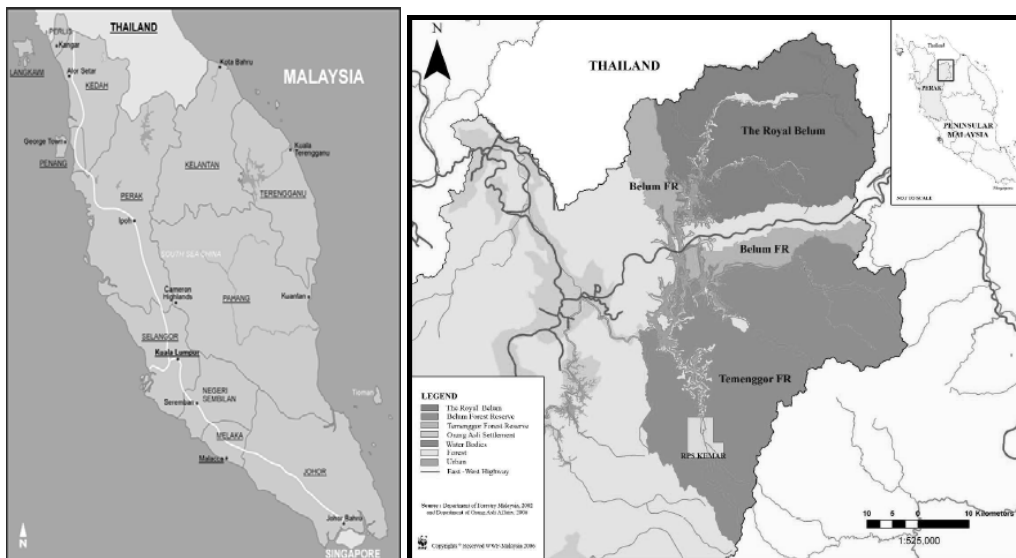


Figure 1: Location of Peninsular Malaysia and BTFC (source: WWF Malaysia website).

Research Methodology

The research methodology is largely based on a quantitative survey and qualitative in-depth interviews with key respondents. A total of 150 *orang asli* were surveyed in the quantitative survey whereas a total of 10 key informants were interviewed. The research methodology also includes a review of existing literature.

Threats to Orang Asli Communities in BTFC

BTFC is not a totally protected area. Only the Royal Belum in the northern part is gazetted and protected. The Temenggor Forest Reserve in the south is an actively logged area. Between the two, the East-West Highway runs through and along the highway there are lots of developments. A substantial portion of the forest in BTFC

has been modified by human activities in relatively recent times. Many parts of the BTFC forests have been previously logged. Active logging is still going on in the Temenggor Forest reserve. Hence, there are huge areas of secondary forests in the BTFC. In the logged areas, there is both a scarcity of flora and fauna, leaving the *orang asli* inadequate resources for collection and hunting activities. The Temenggor Lake and the rivers that feed the lake are rich with fishes. The *orang asli* communities as well as nearby local Malay communities also depend on these aquatic ecosystems for food. However, over-fishing and sport fishing together with water pollution have threatened the fishery sources. There are countless other threats to the ecosystem, environment and the *orang asli*.

As with most development that comes to a pristine forest, there are bound to be negative effects and other threats. In the case of BTFC, some of the threats include illegal logging, poaching, over-commercialisation of the destination, pollution, over-harvesting of forest products, and last but not least the marginalisation of the indigenous *orang asli* and the erosion of their way of life and culture. According to Tan (2010) and Tan (2011), logging and poaching are emptying the Belum-Temenggor forests of its wild resources, and the *orang asli* are suffering as the forest, which feeds them, is no longer as rich as before. According to Azrina Abdullah (2011), encroachment by both locals and foreigners into BTFC is not uncommon. These intruders get into BTFC in northern Perak to log, hunt for animals, fish and collect forest products such as bamboo, rotan (or rattan), *gaharu* (or incense wood), medicinal plants (e.g. *Kacip Fatimah* and *Tongkat Ali*). These illegal activities are depriving the *orang asli* of food and livelihood. This has resulted in the *orang asli* resorting to collect and sell *gaharu*, rattan, honey, rafflesia buds and medicinal plants such as *tongkat ali*, *kacip fatimah* and *gajah beranak* to tourists or “middlemen” to sustain themselves. *Orang asli* also commonly hunted birds, monkeys, gaurs, pangolins, barking deer, deer, soft-shelled terrapins, wild boar, fish and frogs for food. Depletion of these food sources has “forced” a number of *orang asli* to resort to hunting endangered and totally protected rhinoceros, young elephant, bear and tiger, but these are seldom reported and there is no data on this.

Poaching for wild animals such as tigers, tapirs, deer, wild boars, monkeys, and others is a very serious activity in BTFC. Azreen et. al. (2011) found that the building of the East-West Highway (also known as the Gerik-Jeli Highway), opened in 1982, improved communications between the east and west coasts of Peninsular Malaysia and has led to increasing economic growth at the east coast and encouraged economic exchange between east coast and west coast regions. However, in the process of linking these two forests, the highway has dissected the BTFC and impacted upon the *orang asli* and their livelihood. In a way, the highway offers a simpler route for “intruders” to enter BTFC for various illegal activities in much faster way, as well as to get out at any point along the highway. Based on surveys done by the WWF Wildlife Protection Unit (WPU) in 2009, at least 37 entry points along the highway were identified. The WWF Wildlife Protection Unit (WPU) also found evidence of illegal poaching such as 102 snares and aided the authorities in arresting 10 illegal hunters and traders. Azreen et. al. (2011) found that among the most poached animals were tigers, elephants, rhinoceros, pangolins, sambar deer and barking deer. Pangolins is a popular animal that is poached in BTFC as it is sought after for its medicinal properties for healing rheumatic pains and its aphrodisiac properties. A pangolin can fetch as much as RM150 per kg or RM500 per animal in the black market. Collectors also “steal” agarwood (sought for its aromatic, religious and medicinal purposes) which is considered one of the most expensive woods in the

world as the price of high quality agarwood can reach up to RM 1 million for a kilo (Konsesi Utama, 2010). Poaching affects *orang asli* as it depletes the number of animals and plants. This will ultimately reduce the amount of food resources available to the *orang asli*. New laws have also reduced food sources of the *orang asli* as under the new Wildlife Conservation Act 2010, the *orang asli* can only hunt 10 species for their own consumption including wild boar, sambar deer, lesser mousedeer, pig-tailed macaque, silver leaf monkey, dusky leaf monkey, Malayan porcupine, brush-tailed porcupine, white-breasted waterhen and emerald dove (Tan, 2011). In the past, under the old legislation, *orang asli* pretty much could hunt anything except for totally protected species (which includes endangered species such as the tiger, elephant and rhinoceros).

Unsustainable tourism development is another threat to the *orang asli*. Although the Perak State government has plans to log the area, especially the Temenggor Forest Reserve, it has also earmarked Royal Belum and parts of Temenggor Forest Reserve as ecotourism sites. Tourism development at Pulau Banting involved building a jetty, a resort hotel, a research centre and various other structures. Various other small scale floating hotels, sport fishing operators, floating restaurants, speed boats and tourist boats, fishing boats, jungle trekking operators, and tour operators are also impacting upon the BTFC. Many tour operators also use the *orang asli* villages as a “must see” site in their tour itinerary. This results in tourists visiting the *orang asli* villages. Although this is not necessarily a bad thing, too many tourists coming can be disturbing for the peace-loving *orang asli*. Visitors and tourists often disturb the peace, get in the way of *orang asli* activities, and worse of all give token of money and other “handouts” to *orang asli*. This is no good as it creates an alien culture of begging amongst the *orang asli* children.

Illegal logging is another huge threat in BTFC. BTFC has good timber much sought after by the market. Malaysia is considered one of the top five International Tropical Timber Organisation (ITTO) tropical log producers in the world (Figure 2). Yeap et. al. (2009) documented that on the 3rd May 2007, the Perak State Government gazetted the northern portion of Belum Forest Reserve as the Royal Belum State Park. This means the gazetted part of BTFC is now legally protected. However, Yeap et. al. (2009) are of the opinion that the battle to conserve BTFC is only half won as the ungazetted parts (which is larger than Royal Belum) continues to be affected by timber extraction, poaching, illegal extraction of forest products and threats of conversion to other forms of landuse (e.g. agriculture, mono-plantations) and infrastructure development. The BTFC also serves as a water catchment for the northern states in Peninsular Malaysia. The BTFC forests are important with unique flora such as *Shorea lumutensis*, *Johannesteijmannia perakensis*, *Rafflesia* spp, salt licks and archaeological artefacts. Logging will threaten these attributes as well. The Perak state government had actually pledged that logging in areas surrounding Temenggor Lake and Banding island would be banned from 2008 (NST - Aug 1, 2006). However, Azreen et. al. (2011) reasoned that such a pledge would not save the area from logging but exacerbate it as companies which have been awarded logging concessions in these areas would probably be given other areas deeper in the 147,000 hectares Temenggor forest reserve. This will mean deeper penetration into virgin forests where most of the wild animals hide and eventually open more trails along logging tracks made simple for poachers to invade the area. It would also encroach upon and affect *orang asli* villages as well as their livelihood.

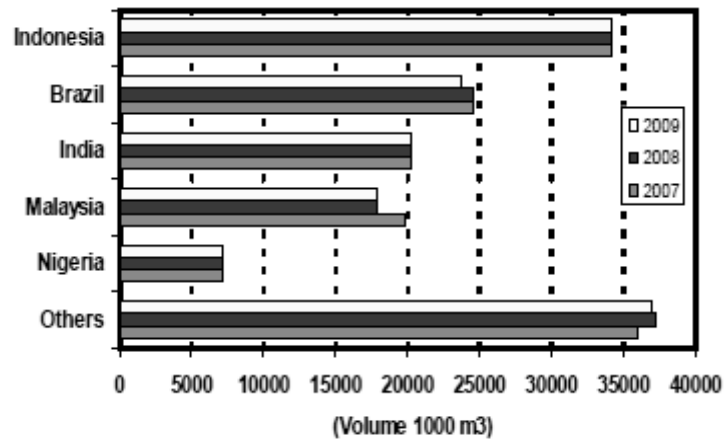


Figure 2: Major tropical timber producers (Source: ITTO, 2009)

BTFC is located on the central forest spine (CFS) of Malaysia, and is considered a High Conservation Value Forest (HCVF) because of its high environmental, biodiversity, socio-economic, and landscape values. BTFC is also recognised in the National Physical Plan Malaysia (NPP) as an Environmentally Sensitive Area (ESA) Rank 1, and this category means it should not be subject to development, agricultural or logging activities as only low impact nature-based tourism, educational and research activities can be allowed (Yeap et. al., 2009). Surprisingly, the Perak state government has categorised Temengor Forest as ESA Rank II which indicates sustainable logging could be carried out in the forest. Insufficient manpower (only two rangers are in charged in patrolling the vast Royal Belum area) has led to ineffective detection and law enforcement on poachers and illegal loggers.

Ineffective management not considering *orang asli* welfare sufficiently is another threat faced by the indigenous communities. Interviews with *orang asli* in BTFC indicate that they are almost never consulted in any development. Yeap et. al. (2009) found that management of BTFC is ineffective as it is complicated by the lack of integrated planning and management of BTFC as it involves various Federal and State government sectoral agencies.

Temengor lake is also facing pollution and over-fishing as it is an attraction for sport-fishing. This has led to a declining population of freshwater fish. There is no regulation on sport fishing as anglers can catch as many fishes of whatever sizes as they can. Plus, there is no limitation on numbers of tourists to enter BTFC (excluding Royal Belum as only 30 persons could get in per entry). Aquaculture is booming in the area and this has led to threats such as water pollution and over-breeding of the tilapia fish. According to Azreen et. al. (2011), the Tilapia is a non-indigenous, invasive fish in the Temengor lake and the escaped tilapia (from cages) might be hazardous to the indigenous fish species there. Such invasive species pose risks to native species through competition for food, niche displacement, hybridization, introgression, predation and eventually lead to local species extinction (Mooney and Cleland, 2001). There is also a threat of biological pollution as Temengor lake is threatened by the invasion of *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) bacteria. Untreated solid wastes from lakeside hotels, the jetty, floating hotels, camping sites and *orang asli* villages all combine to increase untreated sewage discharges into the aquatic ecosystem. *E. coli* can cause serious water and food poisoning in *orang asli* communities as these communities use water directly from the rivers and lakes without treatment.

Results and Discussion

This study gave good insights into what was previously undocumented. Results showed that the age of the 150 Orang Asli surveyed ranged from 17 to 78, with the majority from the 21-45 age group (108 respondents or 72 %). Amongst the respondents, 81 respondents (54.0 %) were males and 69 respondents (46.0 %) were females. In terms of education, the orang asli were poorly educated with nearly half of them (72 respondents or 48.0 %) never having attended school, while 33 respondents (22.0 %) had primary education, 30 respondents (20.0 %) had lower secondary education and only 15 respondents (10.0 %) having higher secondary education. There was none who had a college (diploma) or tertiary/university education (Table 1). Interestingly, although there was no significant difference between males and females in educational achievement (the majority of both genders have never attended school and at most had a primary education), it appears that the females had a higher achievement in the secondary school level. This may perhaps be due to the fact that teenage orang asli boys needed to go into the forest with their fathers to learn how to hunt and gather food, while the teenage girls who stayed at home to help their mothers had a better opportunity to attend school (in Malaysia, students attend school only for half a day, either in the morning or afternoon sessions). In terms of those without any schooling, the majority are from the older respondents of age 40 and above. In contrast, the younger respondents (e.g. teenagers) generally have the opportunity to attend school as primary and secondary education is provided free by the Malaysian Government. The poor level of educational achievement of the orang asli in BTFC is in stark contrast to the much higher educational levels attained by the other major communities in Malaysia, such as the Malays, the Chinese and the Indians (Suriati Ghazali et. al., 2006). The results confirmed the findings of previous researches on Orang Asli that concludes that Orang Asli are placed at the margin of development and are often excluded from the mainstream of the socio-economic development (Nicholas 1993, 2000).

Table 1: Educational Achievements of Orang Asli By Gender in BTFC

Levels of education	Male		Female		Total	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Never attended school	44	54.3	28	40.6	72	48.0
Primary education	18	22.2	15	21.7	33	22.0
Lower secondary education	12	14.8	18	26.1	30	20.0
Upper secondary education	7	8.7	8	11.6	15	10.0
College, polytechnic and university	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	81	100.0	69	100.0	150	100.0

In terms of their work, it was found that the *Orang Asli* in BTFC were engaged in various types of occupation. The majority of them are “unemployed” but professed to make a living through hunting and gathering from the jungle/forest. Very few of them worked in the professional, technical, administrative and managerial categories as their educational achievements were low, but a large number of them worked as unskilled labourers and as agricultural workers or farmers (Table 2). There was no significant difference between the type of jobs employed by the males and the females, although a slightly higher percentage of females worked in the top three categories as professional, managerial and clerical workers when compared to the men.

Table 2: Occupation of Orang Asli By Gender in BTFC

Occupation category	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Professional and technical workers	1	1.2	1	1.4	2	1.3
Administration and Managerial Workers	2	2.4	3	4.3	5	3.3
Clerical, Sales & Service Workers	5	6.2	6	8.7	11	7.3
Skilled Workers	5	6.2	3	4.3	8	5.3
Agricultural Workers or Farmers	16	19.8	10	14.5	26	17.3
Unskilled Labourers & Odd Jobs	21	25.9	18	26.1	39	26.0
Unemployed (Hunters & Gatherers)	31	38.3	28	40.7	59	39.5
Total	81	100.0	69	100.0	150	100.0

These findings above showed that *orang asli* in BTFC are still very low in terms of educational achievement and this has prevented them from getting better jobs. Despite the rapid development in ecotourism in the area, these indigenous peoples have actually not benefited much. They are still largely hunters and gatherers, although modernisation has brought some of them into mainstream development. Hence, they are still very much dependent on the land, rivers and forest as their main sources of livelihood, but development has brought threats that are gradually destroying these sources of livelihood. These findings appear similar to other findings elsewhere which indicate that while tourism development has brought positive economic impacts to an area due to income generation and employment opportunities from the infrastructure development such as tarred roads, hotels, lodges and resorts (Suriati et. al., 2006), it has still a long way to go in terms of benefiting the orang asli. Interestingly, ecotourism can offer viable economic alternatives and self-improvement opportunities to the Orang Asli to allow them to escape from hunting and gathering, and to abandon shifting cultivation and allowing forests to regenerate. Ecotourism can be used as a tool to balance development, environmental conservation (maintaining ecosystem integrity) and achieving social equity.

While ecotourism in the BTFC is thriving with tour operators making good money, the extent to which the Orang Asli are able to reap the economic benefits from the ecotourism industry is small. The average monthly income of orang asli households in this study is a reflection of the negligible benefits that this local indigenous community has reaped from ecotourism (Table 3). Since 59 respondents (39.3 %) are not employed, they have no income. They survive on food gathered and hunted from the forests. No household has an income above RM3000 which is the income level below which the Malaysian Government considered to qualify for the 1Malaysia People's Aid (BR1M) handed out by the Government. Hence, all orang asli households in this study qualified for this aid. Based on Malaysia's average national poverty line of RM800 per household monthly income, it can be seen that 140 households (93.3 %) are classified poor as their monthly household incomes fall below the poverty line.

Table 3: Average Monthly Income of Orang Asli Households in BTFC

Monthly Income Category	Total	
	Count	%
No Income	59	39.3
RM1 - RM300	35	23.3
RM301- RM600	31	20.7
RM601-RM900	15	10.0
RM901-RM1200	7	4.7
RM1201-RM3000	3	2.0
RM3001 and Above	0	0.0
Total	150	100.0

Ecotourism can then be a tool to raise the income levels of the *orang asli* households. In this study, it was found that orang asli who are employed in jobs directly related to ecotourism (e.g. maintenance workers and labourers in the hotels, tourist guides, waiters and sales assistants), earn between RM601 to RM900 per month. Only 3 respondents (2.0 %) managed an income between RM1201 and RM3000. All three were employed in services industry related to the tourism sector. These findings are similar to the findings by Chan (2006), Suriati et. al. (2006) and Ashley and Roe (2002) which indicate that ecotourism offers a wide range of jobs to many poorly educated indigenous peoples. According to Suraiti et. al (2006), although the income level is still rather low, what little they obtain is important to the livelihood of the local people, especially at a time when ready money is becoming increasingly important to pay for necessities such as food, services and education. Hence, the majority of Orang Asli view ecotourism positively as something that can help them improve their livelihoods.

In terms of perceptions on economic and socio-cultural impact of ecotourism, the orang asli communities in BTFC have shown positive views. Often, locals are not happy when tourists intrude into their lives. In this study, respondents were asked on how they feel with the influx of tourists to BTFC and to their villages. The results indicate that the majority of 133 respondents (88.7 %) were happy and excited with the inflow of tourists into BTFC although a small percentage of 10.0 % (15 respondents) were unhappy, or felt irritated and disturbed with the tourists' influx. Another 1.3 % (2 respondents) did not comment. In terms of gender, a higher percentage of women view the tourists' influx negatively as they were uncomfortable with the arrival of tourists in comparison to the men. There were many reasons given for their positive and negative perceptions (Table 4). It can be seen that women are more likely to have negative perceptions about tourists as they see them as a disturbance. The grievances and irritation due to tourists' behaviour have been reported by other research on the perceptions of host communities (Ransom 2005; Suriati 2004). The women are generally shy and were concerned about tourists taking photographs of them and looking at them. Similarly the women complained about the inappropriate attire of the tourists that showed a lack of respect for the locals. In contrast, however, the *orang asli* men see tourists positively they look at the economic aspects, new experience and opportunities.

Table 4: Positive and Negative Reasons for Tourists' Influx into BTFC

	Male		Female		Total	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Positive Reasons						
Increase of Household Income	15	18.5	9	13.0	24	16.0
New Experience	22	27.2	8	11.6	30	20.0
Increase in Development	21	25.9	9	13.0	30	20.0
Negative Reasons						
Tourists are impolite, noisy and rude. They disturb the peace.	12	14.8	20	29.0	32	21.3
Tourists bring bad influence – beer, tobacco, drugs, pornography, etc	1	1.2	18	26.1	19	12.7
No Comments	10	12.4	5	7.3	15	10.0
Total	81	100.0	69	100.0	150	100.0

Based on the above discussion and results, there is no doubt that the BTFC has great potentials for ecotourism. The main challenge now is how to integrate the Orang Asli community into ecotourism and pass on some of the benefits to them. This could be implemented at several levels in BTFC. In the jetty area that has been built-up with hotels and resorts which is along the highway, an “Orang Asli Information Centre” could be established. Such a centre could provide basic information on the Orang Asli community in BTFC. This centre can serve as an education centre for both local and foreign tourists, and be run by *orang asli* themselves. The Department of Orang Asli can be the funder and advisor of the centre, but should not run the centre. After visiting the centre, tour groups could then be arranged to visit selected orang asli villages together with other destinations of interests such as waterfalls, rivers, rafflesia spots, caves and others. At the village level, a homestay programme and village-stay programme could be an added attraction. At these levels, the Orang Asli could be trained to become tourist guides in show-casing the archaeological and historical sites, architectural types of houses in different villages, *orang asli* cultures (e.g. dancing and food), socio-economic activities, hill padi farming areas, trapping and fishing methods, animal trails and plant/tree identification. They can also lead the tourists in non-timber product harvesting trips.

The active involvement of Orang Asli's in ecotourism can be achieved via a smart-partnership between Government, private sector and NGO. Government can initially pump in the investment in putting up basic facilities. The private sector such as MK Land (a developer who has invested interests in the area) can provide funding as part of the company's Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) commitment. The NGOs (e.g. WWF Malaysia and Malaysian Nature Society) could provide proper training to the Orang Asli. The private sector such as tour operators and hotels can also assist by bringing the tourists to Orang Asli Information Centre and villages. The Orang Asli have to learn English and acquire communication skills besides having a sense of time management and commitment. In terms of becoming a good tourist guide, the acquirement of additional knowledge on flora and fauna is essential. The WWF Malaysia and Malaysian Nature Society, or Universiti Sains Malaysia which has research in the area, can help train the orang asli in these aspects. Active involvement in ecotourism development in BTFC is expected to uplift their living standards with better income and better living conditions.

Threats affecting BTFC need to be reduced or eliminated. Poaching and illegal logging are the most common threats that pose serious problems to the natural

resources in BTFC. Stringent penalties need to be imposed on the culprits found guilty of committing these illegal activities. Currently, there are only two rangers in charge of patrolling the BTFC. According to Yeap et. al. (2009), in order to counter the lack of man-power, the management of the park should open applications to the public especially to the local people, tour guides and tourists. This is an alternative way of tourism called as volunteer tourism where the tourists will be the eyes and ears by informing the authority any poaching or illegal logging activities. Other threats like overexploitation of fish resources through overfishing and illegal fishing methods need to be curbed. Once the fishes are gone, the tourists who come to fish will also disappear. This will destroy the tourism industry of BTFC. Regulations must be put in place to control and regulate fishing activities, be it fishing for food or sport fishing.

Conclusion

The *orang asli* is now a minority group, despite the fact that they are legally the “original” people who first set foot in the country. They are now largely marginalised and are classified as the “poorest of the poor” in a country that is blessed with rich resources. Malaysia is rapidly developing into a developed nation, but the *orang asli* has not kept pace and is left behind. They were once known to be talented hunters and gatherers, but even those skills are gradually eroded as many of the young *Orang Asli* today have lost their traditional skills. In this study, although 39.5 % of the respondents claimed that they are still gatherers and hunters, the stark reality is that they do this by the fringe and periphery of the forest. That too they do it during the day without spending the night in the forest. They no longer have the ability to go deep into the forests and spend weeks on one hunting trip as the majority of them possess little skills in survival in the deep forests. The majority of them have also admitted that they have no ability or talent to live in the forests compared to their grandparents or ancestors. In a way, bringing them into the mainstream of development has improved their education and livelihood, but has also led to the demise of their traditional skills. These skills that remain with some of the elders need to be passed on and this is where training needs to be facilitated by government and NGOs. These skills can be used effectively in ecotourism. The *orang asli* knows the BTFC forests like the back of their hands. With added traditional skills, they can be the best tourists guides in ecotourism in the forests. In relation to this, BTFC largely depends on the rich natural heritage to lure in tourists. BTFC has the vast potentials to be recognised as a world class ecotourism destination that combines economic development with environmental conservation and social equity. This can be done with proper planning and execution via a smart-partnership between government, private sector and NGOs. However, this study has shown that the perils and threats posed by poaching, uncontrolled logging and mis-management issues (incoherent policies between state and federal government, inadequate numbers of rangers to guard and patrol BTFC, overfishing, invasive species, water contamination etc) are the threats and dangers that need to be addressed before BTFC can move towards sustainable tourism that leads eventually to sustainable development. Stakeholders need to work together. The Temenggor Forest reserve needs greater protection and there is no other greater protection than to gazette it into a National or State Park like Royal Belum. The results of this study show that ecotourism has great potentials but the *orang asli* community enjoys very little of the tourism benefits. Instead, *orang asli* cultures are eroded, their natural habitat on which they rely on for their subsistence increasingly destroyed, and their villages encroached upon. Ecotourism needs to find

a balance between economics, environment and social equity, viz. where the orang asli community is involved and enjoys equally the benefits to ensure its sustainability in BTFC.

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Tragedy Of The Commons In Ecotourism: A Case Study At Kenyir Lake, Malaysia

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Tourism is the only sector in which natural environment plays a substantial role. Nowadays, the interaction between ecotourism and the natural environment is generally inter-dependence; ecotourism holds on to natural environment for resources, and in order to survive the environmental threat, natural environment in turn, depends on ecotourism. In human society, the selfish use of common resources can lead to catastrophic consequences, a situation known as the 'tragedy of the commons' (TOC). More often than not, natural environment as the common pool resource (CPR) is overused and degraded, as is the unfortunate fate of most TOC. Thus, this paper explains this particular circumstance in the context of Ecotourism in Malaysia, specifically in Kenyir Lake. First, it introduces and details the TOC. before exploring the possibility of Kenyir Lake being a CPR issue. Finally, this paper attempts to add an ethical dimension (also known as Environmental Culture) into the debate on the interaction between tourism and CPRs based on findings established on Kenyir Lake.

Key words: ecotourism, tragedy of the commons, common pool resources, environmental culture

Introduction

Tourism destinations are considered to be attractive and appealing from various sources; some are man-made attractions with cultural/historical/modern backgrounds while other destinations rely on their natural assets which include beaches, lakes, forests, mountains and general scenic beauty (Huybers & Bennett, 2003). The fact that the environment, both natural and cultural, is the very resource based upon which most ecotourism is founded, is widely recognized (Jim, 2000). The natural environment is the main basis upon which a nature-based tourism destination, as a collective unit, competes with rival destination regions (Huybers & Bennett, 2003).

Nevertheless, the interaction between nature-based tourism and the natural environment is generally interdependence; tourism is often highly dependent on environmental quality (Pintassilgo & Silva, 2007) and nature depends on the tourism business to protect the quality of the region's environmental attractions (Huybers &

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Bennett, 2003). Tourism is principally the encounter of a mainly known and stable population (the residents) with a generally unknown and changing population (the tourists) (Bimonte, 2008). Even though the ecotourism business is reliant on nature, it does not automatically translate into the cooperation between those businesses with respect to environmental protection (Huybers & Bennett, 2003). Consequently, tourism generates impacts associated with development of infrastructures, movement of people and vehicles and over-utilization of natural resources (Pintassilgo & Silva, 2007).

In human society, selfish use of common resources can lead to disaster, a situation known as the 'Tragedy of the Commons' (TOC) (Wenseleers & Ratnieks, 2004). However, in tourism literature, debate regarding TOC has received limited attention (Holden, 2005). Thus, this paper will discuss the TOC in the scope of ecotourism, specifically in Kenyir Lake, Terengganu, Malaysia.

Tragedy of the Common

The term 'Tragedy of the Commons' (TOC) was first introduced by Garrett Hardin (1968) wherein the essential idea is that common resources, such as oceans, rivers, air, and parklands, are subject to massive degradation (Feeny, Berkes, McCay, & Acheson, 1990). In his essay, Hardin (1968) asks readers to picture a pasture 'open to all' in which each herder receives large benefits from selling his or her own animals while facing only small costs of over-grazing (Huybers & Bennett, 2003). Such an arrangement may work reasonably well until the number of animals exceeds the capacity of the pasture. Nonetheless, each herder is still motivated to add more animals since the herder receives all of the proceeds from the sale of animals and only a partial share of the cost of over-grazing (Huybers & Bennett, 2003). Hardin Page 3, (1968) then concludes:

"Therein is the tragedy. Each man is locked into a system that compels him to increase his herd without limit – in a world that is limited. Ruin is the destination toward which all men rush, each pursuing his own best interest in a society that believes in the freedom of the commons. Freedom in a commons brings ruin to all"

Although Hardin is referring to global concepts such as carrying capacity, his observations about resources held in common are considered by many as a definitive insight (Feeny, *et al.*, 1990). The TOC arises when it is difficult and costly to exclude potential users from the Common Pool Resource (CPR) that yields finite flows of benefits- as a result, those resources will be exhausted by rational, utility-maximizing individuals rather than conserved for the benefit of all (Huybers & Bennett, 2003).

Common Pool Resource

Following Hardin's (1968) seminal essay on the TOC, numerous studies have been conducted and an international association formed on the subject of 'common pool resources' (CPR) (Wenseleers & Ratnieks, 2004). Common-property resources include fisheries, wildlife, surface and groundwater, range, and forests (Feeny, *et al.*, 1990). CPR exists wherever natural resources or human-made facilities exist (Huybers & Bennett, 2003). CPR also shares two important characteristics; (i) excludability (where excluding users are costly or virtually impossible) and (ii) subtractability (each user is capable of subtracting from the welfare of other users) (Feeny, *et al.*, 1990). Feeny (1990) also mentions four types of resources:

- i. Open Access - the absence of well-defined property rights. Access to the resource is unregulated, free and open to everyone. Many offshore ocean fisheries before the twentieth century and the global atmosphere are some examples.
- ii. Under private property, the rights to exclude others from using the resource and to regulate the use of the resource are vested in an individual (or group of individuals such as a corporation). Private-property rights are generally recognized and enforced by the state. Unlike the entitlement of rights under open access, private-property rights usually are exclusive and transferable (Regier and Grima, 1985). Examples include forests and rangelands that are held privately.
- iii. Communal Property - the resource is held by an identifiable community of interdependent users. These users exclude outsiders while regulating its use by members of the local community. Within the community, rights to the resource are unlikely to be either exclusive or transferable; they are often rights of equal access and use. Some inshore fisheries, shellfish beds, range lands, and forests have been managed as communal property; similarly, water-users associations for many groundwater and irrigation systems can be included in this category. The rights of the group may be legally recognized. In other cases the rights are *de facto*, depending on the benign neglect of the state.
- iv. State Property, or state governance – indicating that the rights to the resource are vested exclusively in the government, which in turn makes decisions concerning access to the resource and the level and nature of exploitation. Examples include forests and rangelands held by the government or crown-owned, and resources such as fish and wildlife that may be held in public trust for the citizenry. The category of state property may refer to the property to which the general public has equal access and use rights such as highways and public parks. The nature of the state property regime also differs from the other regimes in the sense that, in general, the state, unlike private parties, has coercive power of enforcement.

Although the nature of the property-rights regime under which the resource is held is important, that information is insufficient for one to draw valid conclusions concerning behavior and outcomes (Feeny, *et al.*, 1990). Besides, there is no certainty that these management regimes will ensure resource conservation (Holden, 2005).

Tragedy of the Common in Tourism

In the case of tourism, resources utilised for tourism are also used by the local population and many others are collectively shared in everyday life (Briassoulis, 2002). Both (tourists and local people) are probably internally divided into sub-communities, each with its preferences, interests and subjective needs, who most of the time have to reach an agreement on how to use and/or share simultaneously the local resources and how much should they be exploited (Bimonte, 2008). These resources are used, on one hand, by tourists in common with other tourists and, on the other hand, for tourists in common with other activities performed by the locals (Briassoulis, 2002). In some cases, tourists and local people may have different preferences and attitudes and, therefore, want to use the resources in different ways or for alternative purposes (Bimonte, 2008). When the users have different attitudes or expectations toward the resources, conflicts may tend to arise and welfare and environmental degradation problems can occur (Bimonte, 2008).

CPR problems often arise in the course of managing tourism resources, but in certain circumstances these problems can be overcome (Huybers & Bennett, 2003). Users of CPR are assumed to be short-term, profit-maximizing actors who have complete information and are homogeneous in terms of their assets, skills, discount rates and cultural views (Huybers & Bennett, 2003). Thus, anyone can enter a resource and take resource units (Huybers & Bennett, 2003) causing resources to be overused and degraded, as is the unfortunate fate of most CPR (Wenseleers & Ratnieks, 2004). In the case of tourism, it is implicitly related to the number of tourists visiting a destination (Bimonte, 2008). In his article, Hardin (1968, Page 3) further points out:

“The National Parks present another instance of the working out of the tragedy of the commons. At present, they are open to all, without limit. The parks themselves are limited in extent - there is only one Yosemite Valley - whereas population seems to grow without limit. The values that visitors seek in the parks are steadily eroded. Plainly, we must soon cease to treat the parks as commons or they will be of no value to anyone.”

In the context of tourism, Briassoulis (2002) in his review paper has suggested factors that cause the “tragedy” to occur. In his study, he proposes goals, principles, and elements of policies for the management of CPRs. A different study by Huybers and Bennett (2003) investigates the environmental cooperation between firms at nature-based tourism destinations using the Tropical North Queensland Australia as their case study. They mention that the “tragedy” can be avoided, provided that self-regulatory governance regime, based on strong internal institutions complemented by informal monitoring and enforcement, is particularly effective at nature-based tourism destinations. In a further study done in Asia specifically in Nepal, Agrawal and Gupta (2005) focus on the participation of local people in the management of CPR. Their study proves that more powerful, better-off local groups tend to have greater participation in the management of CPR even though sponsored by the government. In another similar study done in a village which neighbours Taman Negara, Daim, Bakri, Kamarudin and Zakaria (2012) also look into community participation where it shows that the attitudes of the village community are generally positive towards community participation.

In a different study, Bimonte (2008) has based his review paper on the game theory framework, demonstrating why an unsustainable path may emerge even when both players (tourists and local people) prefer preservation to exploitation. He, like most of the authors, again addresses some policy issues to prevent the dreaded result emerging from non-cooperative behavior, from yielding. However Bimonte (2008, Page 463) concludes that:

“It is up to the local community to move first, using regulatory and normative instruments rather than traditional economic tools. Residents have the prime responsibility for the typology of tourists that visit their territory and the activities they are allowed to perform.”

In another study by Moore & Rodger (2010), they derive a list of enabling conditions required for the sustainability of CPR and its applicability in a Whale Shark Tourism in Australia. In this study, they again emphasize on the importance of having a good governance to manage the CPRs. Yusof, Said, Osman & Daud (2010) also conduct a comparable study, in which they try to investigate whether resort operators in Kenyir Lake adopt certain organizational culture that is harmonious to the environment. They have found that most resort operators implement an ecologically

friendly approach in conducting business. Like most of the authors, they propose that new policies should be introduced to enhance environmental protection.

However, Holden (2005) in his review paper, tries to relate environmentally ethical issues underpinning the behaviour of tourism users, specifically regarding the resource conserving behavior (RCB). He discovers that the behavior of stakeholders towards nature, particularly entrepreneurs, tourists, governments and local communities, will be influential in determining the sustainability of CPRs. The focus of this paper would be on Kenyir Lake as a potential CPR as it matches the characteristics of CPR.

Tragedy of The Common in Kenyir Lake Malaysia

In Peninsular Malaysia, the ‘Tragedy of the Common’ also occurs in one of the National Parks; *Taman Negara, Pahang*. Taman Negara is situated at the center of the Peninsular Malaysia which covers three states- Pahang, Kelantan and Terengganu (Daim, *et al.*, 2012). The ease of accessibility to Taman Negara as many other national parks due to the improvement of transport infrastructure has led to a range of problems associated with their resource over-use (Holden, 2005).

In this paper, our focus will be on Kenyir Lake, one of the two gateways to the national park. Being the biggest man-made lake in Malaysia, Kenyir Lake shares a common characteristic of common pool resources (CPR), as part of it is located within the national park where protected areas known as the gene pool, rich with its biodiversity and important for conservation and protection of species are found (Daim, *et al.*, 2012). Thus, any one person, apart from the Natives, or *Orang Asli* will be considered as trespassing the protected area if they enter the area without obtaining the permission from the management agency (Daim, *et al.*, 2012).

In developed countries, national parks are founded upon what, in modern times, has become an apparently conflicting rationale, attempting to both conserve nature and provide open access to urban dwellers for recreation (Holden, 2005). Quoting Hardin (1968):

“The tragedy of the commons reappears in problems of pollution. Here it is not a question of taking something out of the commons, but of putting something in -sewage, or chemical, radioactive, and heat wastes into water.”

In many tourism destinations, resort operators are accused as the main contributor for pollution (Hillary, 2000). Kenyir Lake as shown in Figure 1, matches “Tragedy of the Common” following Hardin’s (1968) descriptions, where; (1) the lake is a pasture ‘open to all’, (2) in which each resort serves as a herder (3) it receives large benefits from selling their services, (4) while facing only small costs of operation. Here, Kenyir Lake and the natural resources constitute the “Common Pool Resources”. This system may properly work until the number of tourists surpasses the carrying capacity of the lake.

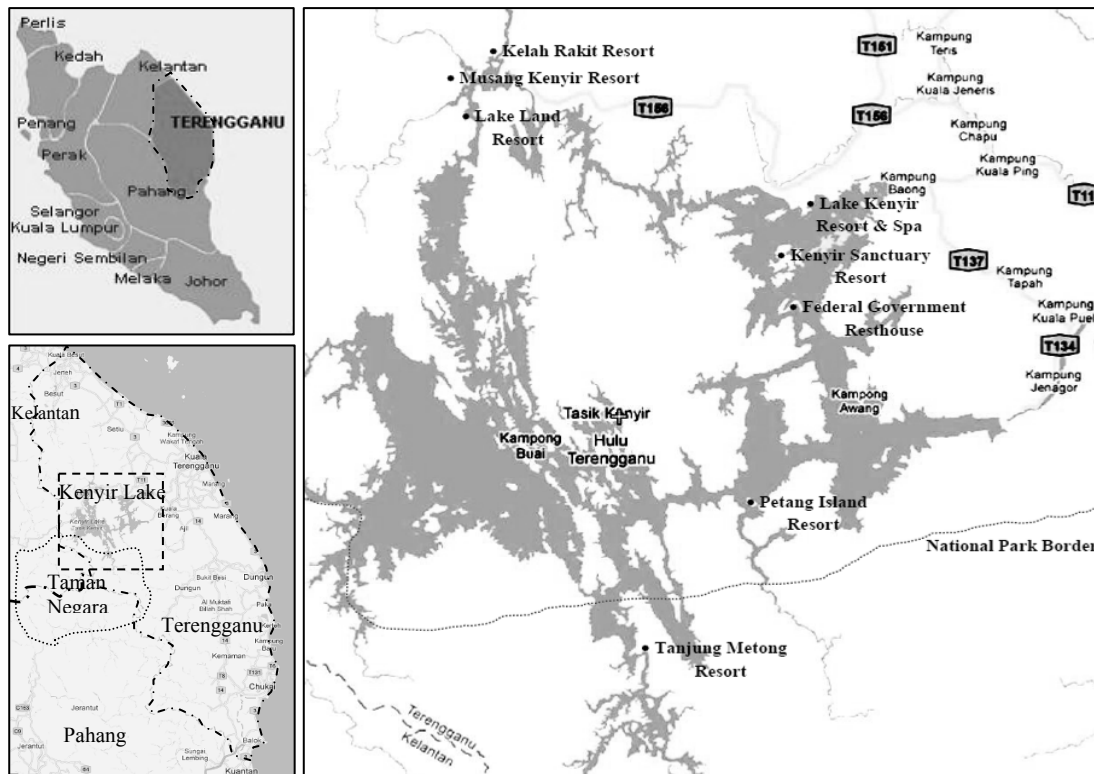


Figure 1: Location of Kenyir Lake which borders Taman Negara Malaysia.
(Source: Adapted from www.wikimapia.com)

The rational man (resorts) finds that his share of the cost of the wastes he discharges into the commons is less than the cost of purifying his wastes before releasing them (Hardin, 1968). Problems also arise from what is put into CPRs as a by-product of tourism in the form of water, noise, aesthetic values and air pollution (Holden, 2005). The disposal of untreated human waste by the resorts into the lake is one of the examples of TOC that occur in Kenyir Lake. Yusof, *et al.*, (2010) mention that out of 6 resorts operating in Kenyir Lake, only 2 resorts incorporate waste recycling activities while the remaining settles for rubbish disposal.

When the number of resorts increases, so do the visitors. Indeed as highlighted by Lynn and Brown, (2003) it has become evident that failure to manage properly the increasing number of tourists who visits protected areas has led to a decline in biological diversity and exploitation of natural resources. For the following items; usage of low energy consumption devices, water-saving practices, and recycled materials, Yusof, *et al.*, (2010) establish that out of 6 resorts, only 3 resorts claim to practice these environmental friendly practices.

The human-wildlife conflicts often occur to the local people living in villages neighboring the protected areas (Daim, *et al.*, 2012). Areas surrounding Taman Negara have experienced threat, especially from opening additional land for agriculture, industry or housing, and carrying out logging in forest reserves in upstream states, which affect the water catchment areas and subsequently reduce the amount of water in a state to which the river flows (Saleem, 2005). In some cases, the fish pond projects owned by the local community also pose a threat to the lake by the intrusion of exotic species from these ponds (Daim, *et al.*, 2012).

Results And Discussion

Table 1 explains the CPR features of Kenyir Lake. Based of the four types of CPR by Feeny (1990), we can conclude that Kenyir Lake is under Communal Property Resources where the resource is held by an identifiable community in which they exclude outsiders while regulating its use by members of the local community. As Bimonte (2008) mentioned, residents have a primary responsibility for the typology of tourists who visit their territory and the activities they are allowed to perform. This is because most of the tourism activities are operated by the local people.

Table 1: Kenyir Lake, Terengganu, Malaysia as a CPR issue.

	CPR Feature	Kenyir Lake Tourism Attribute
1.	Permeable boundaries Mobile Resource	Mobile and migratory
2.	Potential impacts on resource sustainability	Resources in lakes and forests, therefore, it is difficult to prevent impact by tourists and local people
3.	Subtractability (each user is capable of subtracting from the welfare of other users)	“Too many” tourists and tourists boats can impact tourists’ experiences
4.	Excludability (where excluding users are costly or virtually impossible)	Excluding the ‘Orang Asli’ or the aborigines from entering the Taman Negara is impossible
5.	Users are short-term, profit-maximizing actors who have complete information and are homogeneous in terms of their assets, skills, discount rates and cultural views	Referring to the tourists as one of the users, they share common preferences, interests and subjective needs.

In the case of Kenyir Lake, resources utilised for tourism are also used by the local population. However, there is not much conflict of interest between the tourist and local community, because when it comes to employing staff, the resorts would give priority to locals (Yusof, *et al.*, 2010). Successful conservation in resorts involves the participation of staff at all levels, from the management to engineering, technical and service employees (Jim, 2000). In fact, it is the stable population (local people) who will have to live and cope with whatever is left over, while the tourists have the chance to move on to a new destination (Bimonte, 2008).

Future Study

Previous literature has shown proof that most of the studies concerning TOC and CPR have placed focus on the goals, principles, policy issues, the list of condition and local participation for the sustainability of CPR. A study done by Holden (2005) and Yusof *et al.*, (2010) serves as an expansion to this genre of study, where the paper proposes for future study an ethical dimension, known as environmental culture which should be used as a means to cope with the interactions that take place between CPR and tourism.

Nature-based tourism has been a fast-growing segment in the international tourism market (World Travel and Tourism Council, 1998). Such alternative tourism activities, if not properly understood and managed, could usher in habitat degradation

(Jim, 2000). The degradation of resources however, is not only a matter of number, but also of attitude where it depends on the behaviour (typology) more than on the number of tourists (Patterson, Niccolucci, & Bastianoni, 2007). Accepting that the activity of tourism can have negative consequences for CPRs, the challenge, therefore, lies in the best possible measure to arrest or mitigate them (Holden, 2005).

Accordingly, there is evidence to suggest that an environmental ethics already has a foothold within the tourism market (Holden, 2005). The influence of the conservation ethic in the framework of reasoning of tourism's interaction with the environment is emphasized by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (Holden, 2005). As Goodpaster (1998) suggests, ethics are about human action and their moral adequacy. Environmental ethics (in this paper Environmental Culture), is concerned with the collective action of humans towards nature (Holden, 2005). In the view of Westra (1998), a true environmental ethic requires that we pass beyond an anthropocentric viewpoint of the world to establish who, or what may possess moral standing and rights.

Environmental ethics is concerned with establishing the laws or agreements that enable 'what ought to be' statements of the human-nature relationship to be made in response to 'what is' statements (Holden, 2005). In addition, institutions can be either formal if they are sanctioned through formally established procedures, or informal if they are enforced spontaneously within the group (Huybers & Bennett, 2003). Jim (2000) and McMinn (1997) mention that: Environmental ethics and minimum impact behaviour should be fostered in the programmes; facilities should not detract from the intrinsic values of the nature experience which could revolve around the environment rather than humans.

Conclusion

There are many settings in the world where the tragedy of the commons has occurred and continued to occur – ocean fisheries and the atmosphere being the most obvious (Huybers & Bennett, 2003). The conventional CPRs comprise of air and the atmosphere, water resources, oceans, ecosystems, fisheries, forests, wildlife, grazing fields, and irrigation systems (Wenseleers & Ratnieks, 2004).

In the contexts of TOC and CPR in ecotourism, the roles of resort operators are vital in tackling environmental issues at local level, in particular, the area where they operate (Yusof, *et al.*, 2010). Whenever possible, residents should find an agreement on which resources to share and open up to the "interference" of tourism (front stage regions), in what forms and under what conditions, and which resources, instead, should be set aside as belonging to inalienable spheres of life for the local communities (backstage regions) (Bimonte, 2008).

However, whilst it can be argued that the increase in demand for 'eco' and 'nature' tourism is reflective of a growth in 'green consumerism', we know little about the extent to which consumers who purchased nature-based tourism holidays do so because they feel they are making a genuine contribution towards conservation, or because they simply want to enjoy nature and visit 'new' or 'unspoilt' places (Holden, 2005). In these cases, the preservation of tourism resources asks for the simultaneous cooperation of the different players (a beach will be cleaned only if all the users cooperate towards this end)(Bimonte, 2008). It has been argued that the behaviour of all stakeholders towards nature, not only the tourist entrepreneurs and tourists but also governments and local communities, will be influential in determining the sustainability of CPRs (Holden, 2005).

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Promoting Ecotourism Product Development In Kilim Geopark Based On Tourists' Perceptions

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Langkawi is currently re-developing its brand as an international geopark tourism spot. Popular for its boating activities, KilimGeopark features its natural as attractions as its main products. With assistance from the government, tourism development helps spur the growth of local businesses. Successful community cooperation in offering services to the visitors is significant in sustaining such development. However, having an annually increasing number of tourists visiting the area has resulted in a dilemma between maintaining the environment's sustainability and the local community's economic gains. Given that high economic returns are based on tourist satisfaction, this study explores the levels of clients' satisfaction with the tourism products and services offered in Kilim. The results indicate that tourists prefer exploring the new ecotourism products being offered. However, as a newly emerging tourism spot, there are many steps that must be undertaken to improve the services. With limitations in the product offered, this study's results can provide insights to the main stakeholders.

Key words: ecotourism, product development, tourism product and services, tourists' perceptions, KilimGeopark

Introduction

Tourism is one of the largest industries throughout the world (Bjork, 1997). It has played a vital part in invigorating the economic growth of many developed and developing countries (Chaiboonsri&Chaitip, 2008). The official website of Tourism Malaysia states that the country has had 23.6 million international tourists in 2009. Meanwhile, according to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), tourism ranked as the second largest industry in 2005, accounting for 3.8 percent of global GDP (Rosli&Azhar, 2007). At present, the islands of Malaysia continue to be developed into tourist spots, attracting a continuous number of arrivals (Mohamed et al., 2006).

In many countries, government agencies have used the term "ecotourism" to promote and attract travelers worldwide (Schillinger, 1995). Ecotourism is a type of tourism industry that is nature-based and is very attractive compared with other types of tourism (Bjork, 1997). Ecotourism can be distinguished as a visit to a certain destination that is wealthy with untainted and unobstructed nature for the purpose of

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studying and enjoying the beauty of wildlife and any existing cultural features in that area (Bjork, 1997; Litvin, 1996). Jaafar and Maideen (2012) refer to ecotourism as a nature-based visit to value the natural attractions and cultural features of a destination.

Currently, there are limited numbers of studies on ecotourism product development. Originally, the product development model is described as the process of creating product from scratch (generating idea) until it becomes available in the open market. Matilla (2011) states that tourism product development, according to the holistic approach, usually begins with some minor improvements to the existing products; furthermore, entrepreneurs must be creative and innovative in developing new tourism products in their effort to provide meaningful experiences to tourists.

Tourists nowadays have developed awareness of their right to be involved in the process of creating meaningful experiences during their vacation; their inputs are normally based on their prior knowledge and experiences. Therefore, it is essential for the service provider to identify and understand the clients' needs (Matilla, 2011). Taneva (2009) argues that tourism products must adhere to the specifications and requirements earlier set by the clients in order to provide meaningful experiences that meet their expectations. The consideration of this aspect is of paramount importance, because tourism sells nature-based products as well as experiences and satisfaction.

The knowledge gaps in this topic are addressed in the current work by exploring ecotourism product development in a Geopark site in Malaysia. The objective of the paper is to study the ecotourism products offered in Kilim and the satisfaction levels of tourists who visited KilimGeopark in terms of using the services and activities offered in the destination. The paper starts with a brief introduction on tourism product development in KilimGeopark and other worldwide views. We then present the methodology and instruments used in our research, followed by our analysis of the results, and finally, the findings of our research.

KilimGeopark

Kilim Karst Geopark Area is one of the three designated areas in LangkawiGeopark. It was recognized as a UNESCO Global Geoparks Network in 2007. This recognition facilitated the re-branding of Langkawi as a "Geopark Island" by the local government. By 2011, tourist arrivals to Langkawi reached 6 million, signifying a sharp increase from previous years. Kilim Karst also benefitted from this re-branding when it recorded a high number of tourist arrivals over the past 5 years from 78,145 in 2007 to 159,338 in 2011 (KCS, 2012).

Despite the recent success, however, Kilim has already attracted tourist attention since the late 1990s, especially foreign travelers seeking to experience the vast nature-based attractions in the surrounding the area. Tourism development in Kilimbegan with initiatives taken by the Kilim Cooperative Society (KCS). Previously known as the Kilim Fishermen Association, this organization has successfully convinced the Langkawi Development Authority (LADA) to provide some basic infrastructure, including a jetty, to allow the community to launch related tourism businesses. The cooperative also acts as intermediary with the local authorities as regards issues related to the tourism development in the area. Their responsibility is to supervise businesses in Kilim and encourage the locals to engage in entrepreneurship and help improve the economic status of the community. The involvement of the local community in providing boating services to cater to the needs of tourists first started in 1999 and has been carried out independently by a few individual boat owners. By 1999, the government, led by LADA, developed Kilim's

mangrove forest for tourism purposes. Thus KCS has been given the full responsibility of ensuring the sustainability of tourism product and activities offered in Kilim.

Literature Review

The Development of Eco-Tourism Product

Generally, the concept of ecotourism is derived from two different notions, namely, ecology and tourism. Ecology is the study of the relationship between living organisms and their natural or developed environment (Encarta Dictionary, 2009), while tourism is the act of travelling to benefit from a particular service or activity that is unavailable at one's home (Encarta Dictionary, 2009). In fact, tourism is an activity where the authorities, tourists, and locals cooperate to make it possible for tourists to study and admire the beauty of nature and the local culture, while maintaining the sustainability of the area (Bjork, 1997). Bjork further states that each ecotourism program should consider the following factors: 1) the impact on the environment, 2) the impact on the host cultures, 3) the economic benefits for the host country, and 4) the tourists' recreational satisfaction. There are several principles of ecotourism that ensure environmental protection, provide first-hand experiences, involve all parties (local community, authority, and tourists), promote partnership and responsibilities among parties, as well as provide long-term benefits to the resources, local community and the industry (Wight, 1993).

Tourism Product and Satisfaction

International researchers portray tourism as comprising of "products" rather than "services," despite the fact that tourism is actually classified as a service industry (Carlos et al., 2007; Osmund & Sunday, 2010). Instead, the term "service" should be used to describe product development within the specific service industry (Osmund & Sunday, 2010).

However, Matilla (2011) opines that it is rather difficult to distinguish between tourism products and tourism services. To date, there are no definite definitions of tourism products that can best describe tourism products. Magnar et al. (2012) define a tourism product as a service or process that facilitates tourism and promotes activities carried out by individuals beyond their familiar environment; in addition, tourism products also consist of natural and cultural resources, facilities, infrastructure, accommodation, and restaurants (Eraqi, 2006). From a marketing perspective, tourism products cover any physical objects, services, places, organizations or ideas that are open to the market and are influential in satisfying the clients' demands (Smith, 2001; Chaiboonsri & Chaitip, 2008; Magnar et al., 2012).

One of the essential features of a tourism product is its quality, which must be measured in order to determine the prices of the products. Quality is an important consideration because it provides the appropriate product equivalent to the amount of fixed price; it is also related to the clients' satisfaction with the tourism products. The quality of tourism product can only be determined by gauging the clients' experiences as to whether or not the product has fulfilled their expectations. Different clients have different expectations that are normally based on their prior experiences and knowledge of the prices of services offered (Matilla, 2011).

Customers' satisfaction is related to a complete assessment of the performance of products or services offered (Bartikowski&Llosa, 2004), which consists of certain characteristics' of a product or service in innumerable industry (Albayrak et al., 2010; Choi, 2005; Herrick & McDonald, 1992). In providing the best services to the clients, service providers are continuously pressured to provide individualized services that meet client expectations (Osmund& Sunday, 2010).

Xu (2010) argues that tourists encounter a wide range of tourism products in various destinations. Many researchers believe that the variety of products offered at different tourism destinations contributes to several memorable experiences for different clients (Albayrak et al., 2010). Tourism product management is a system of managing skills and activities that are used to arrange and systematize tourism for a specific tourism destination; in line with this, Chaiboonsri and Chaitip (2008) state that tourism product management must deal with the following factors: a) attractions, b) amenities, c) accessibility, d) image and e) price of the product or service.

Methodology

Respondents (Setting and Sampling)

The data collection process was conducted throughout March 2012, and took place in KilimGeopark, Langkawi, Malaysia. The method chosen was questionnaire-based survey. The questionnaires were distributed to the respondents in person. Using area sampling, the selected respondents included consumers of the ecotourism products currently being provided in KilimGeopark. The total number of valid responses was 341.

Instrument and Data Analysis

A four-point Likert scale was used to measure the tourists' satisfaction of the activities and services offered in KilimGeopark. The choices were represented by the following levels: least satisfied, satisfied, most satisfied, and not applicable. Descriptive statistics analysis was run to map the tourists' demographic profiles and measure their satisfaction level. The satisfaction levels per item were determined using the mean score and standard deviation of each item. The highest mean score indicated the highest satisfaction level.

Findings

Table 1 depicts the respondents' profile. Out of 341 respondents, 47.5 percent were male and 52.5 percent were female. The majority of the respondentfell under the following age groups: between 21–30 years old (37.2 percent), 31–40 years old (22.3 percent), 41–50 years old (18.8 percent), and 51 years old or above (17.3 percent). In terms of educational background, most respondents had formal education (98.5 percent), and only few have no prior formal education (1.5 percent). As for employment status, majority of the respondents are in the private sector (62.4 percent), the government sector (17.6 percent), students (9.1 percent), and others (10.8 percent). For marital status, majority of the respondents are married (61.9 percent) and the rest (32.6 percent) are single. The nationality of the respondents indicated that majority are local (45.5 percent), followed by Asian (23.4 percent) and Western tourists (31.8 percent).

Table 1: Demographic profile of the respondents.

Demographic	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	162	47.5
	Female	179	52.5
Age	18-20	15	4.4
	21-30	127	37.2
	31-40	76	22.3
	41-50	64	18.8
	51 or above	59	17.3
Educational	No formal education	5	1.5
	Formal education	336	98.5
Employment	Government sector	60	17.6
	Private sector	213	62.4
	Student	31	9.1
	Others	37	10.8
Marital status	Single	111	32.6
	Married	211	61.9
	Others	19	5.6
Nationality	Asian	79	23.4
	Western	107	31.8
	Local	155	45.5

Table 2: Types of ecotourism activities offered in KilimGeopark and customer satisfaction levels.

Eco-tourism activities	Mean Rank
Fishing trip	5.68
Food served at floating restaurant	5.19
Open sea	5.17
Fish feeding	4.98
Eagle feeding	4.86
Mangrove sightseeing	4.86
Floating fish farm	4.77
Bat cave	4.74
Crocodile cave	4.74

Chi-Square=75.571, Asymp. Sig.=0.000

Table 2 shows the results of the levels of tourist satisfaction with the ecotourism activities in KilimGeopark. Generally, fishing trip activities have the highest mean rank score (5.68), while visits to the crocodile and the bat caves garner the lowest mean rank values (both 4.74). The other activities that the respondents are satisfied with are visits to the floating restaurant (5.19), open sea viewing (5.17), fish feeding (4.98), eagle feeding (4.86), mangrove sightseeing (4.86), and visits to the floating fish farm (4.77).

Table 3: Customers' satisfaction with the services offered in Kilim.

Services	Mean	Std. Deviation
Natural attraction		
Visual appeal of the natural attraction	2.66	.790
Uncrowded and unspoiled environment	2.59	.795
Appealing and good condition	2.56	.789
Services		
Willingness to assist tourists	2.64	.791
Responding to tourists' questions	2.61	.803
Providing timely and punctual services	2.60	.815
Convenient operating hours	2.59	.813
Giving additional information about KilimGeopark	2.58	.810
Providing accurate information	2.58	.780
Prompt services to tourists	2.57	.800
Understanding the special needs of tourists	2.57	.811
Knowledge to answer tourists' questions	2.55	.760
Giving personal attention to tourists	2.53	.828
Neat appearance of the staff	2.50	.803
Adequate safety facilities	2.47	.746
Facilities		
Adequate safety facilities	2.58	.765
Information center with relevant information about park	2.57	.836
Price		
Cheap recreational activities	2.58	.856
Reasonable prices	2.54	.802

Table 3 shows the levels of tourist satisfaction with the services offered in KilimGeopark. The satisfaction levels were determined by the highest mean value. Visual appeal of the natural attraction garner the highest score (mean of 2.66, SD = 0.790), followed by willingness to assist tourists (2.64, SD = 0.791), responding to tourists' questions (2.61, SD = 0.803), providing timely and punctual services (2.60, SD = 0.815), and knowledge to answer tourists' questions (2.60, SD = 0.794). The lowest satisfactory level was determined by the lowest mean value. Adequate safety facilities garner the highest score (2.47, SD = 0.746), while neat appearance of staff obtain the second lowest score (2.50, SD = 0.803).

Discussion

For a geopark site to be officially recognized by UNESCO, KCS have to maintain the sustainability of mangrove environments. The attractiveness of a natural environment has been used by KCS to embark on tourism business development in Kilim. Several remarkable activities have been conducted throughout KilimGeopark and are managed by the local community, including mangrove sightseeing, eagle feeding, fishing trip, and tour to several exciting places (e.g., floating restaurant, fish farm, bat cave, crocodile cave, and so on). Jaafar and Maideen (2011) raised concerns over the extensive use of certain areas that, in turn, brings difficulties to balance between conservation and tourism activities. According to Stephen et al. (1998), striking a balance between financial goals and environmental-social objectives is important in ensuring the sustainable development of the tourism industry. Thus, the current article

explores the levels of customers' satisfaction with using the product offered besides other requirement for them to indicate their perception on different services offered in KilimGeopark.

The increasing number of tourists visiting Kilim every year explains the continued satisfaction with and patronage of the tourism product and services offered by the KCS. However Apart from various elements of tourism-related products and services identified in the literature, such as natural and cultural resources, facilities, infrastructure, accommodation and restaurants (Eraqi, 2006), as well as wider elements for tourism product from marketing perspective (Smith, 2001; Chaiboonsri&Chaitip, 2008; Magnar et al., 2012), the collected data are only limited to services offered in KilimGeopark.

Based on the findings of this research, the most satisfactory activity determined from the descriptive analysis is the fishing trip, which has received the highest mean score; this is followed by activities offered in packages. However tourists have different satisfaction levels with the different product offered. Although activities are offered as part of the same packages, their levels of enjoyment and satisfaction can still differ. Mostly, we find that they enjoyed and are satisfied with the food served at the floating restaurant and the open sea scenario; in comparison, they did not enjoy visiting the caves.

Overall, there has been a positive perception on the initiatives done by the KCS. Currently, the combination of natural attractiveness and isolated and unspoiled environment has been maximized by KCS in its attempt to offer the best services to tourists. After four years of being recognized by UNESCO, KCS – as a responsible agency – has maintained the natural attractiveness of Kilim. Furthermore, the excellent services offered provide added value to the product in attracting national and international tourists. KCS has successfully developed their marketing ability with a focus on customer's satisfaction. We find that that satisfied tourists are most likely to (1) provide a positive feedback and have the highest possibility to become regular customers, and (2) have a tendency to promote the destination to the other people. Thus, the positive image of the tourism destination itself will be developed while increasing the destination's market ability at the same time.

This paper widens our understanding of the tourists' level of satisfaction with the tourism products offered in KilimGeopark. As argued by Murphy et al. (2000) and Albayrak et al. (2010), a tourism destination is a collection of individual products and experiences that come together to develop a complete total experience for the visitors. The effort of service providers to fulfill the tourist's requirements can also provide a meaningful experience to these tourists (Matilla, 2011). Based on our results, we find that the products and services offered in Kilim could have fulfilled the respondent's requirement in terms of its cleanliness, beauty, safety, and environmentally friendly features, which support the findings of Chaiboonsri and Chaitip (2008) and Swanson and Horridge (2004). In general, tourists are satisfied with tour or boat operator that know how to assist tourists, are able to respond to their questions, and can provide timely and punctual services.

However, some improvements still need to be done to increase the respondents' satisfaction levels. For instance, KCS needs to reconsider its prices, increase their knowledge of tour or boat operators, as well as improve the staff's appearance and its on-site safety facilities. As a newly emerging tourist spot, the local community sees the opportunity to venture into business under the management of KCS. Depending on local attractiveness, local business operators must also enhance their service from time to time. In addition, the international visitors might not be too

concerned with the prices of services offered, but it could be a different matter for local visitors. With an international geopark attraction, KCS should improve their services while exploring new attractive tourist spots in the area. However KCS must also focus on sustainability, because increasing boating services to meet the higher demand from visitors can affect the environment. Indeed, carrying capacity could be important measures for future sustainability business of local people.

Conclusion

This study provides significant insights for various stakeholders, such as the tourist, government agencies and local community and businesses, who are operating in internationally recognized geoparks. The tourism sector is continuously growing worldwide especially in Langkawi, Malaysia. At present, the re-branding of Langkawi as a “Geopark Island” has pushed the tourism development at their optimum carrying capacity. With various ecotourism attractions, Langkawi today has managed to attract both foreign and local tourists. The aim of this study is to determine the levels of tourists’ satisfaction with the tourism products and services offered in KilimGeopark. In this study, the term “tourism products” has been extended to the “services” offered to tourists during their visit to the destination. The results reveal that, in general, tourists prefer the fishing trip, which garnered the highest satisfaction level compared with the other types of activities offered. Regarding the tourists’ satisfaction with the services offered, they are most satisfied with the visual appeal of the natural attractions and related services offered during their tour.

Nevertheless, the results and analysis of this study need to be viewed in light of the following limitations. First, this study is based on a sample of tourists who have visited and experienced the activities and services offered in KilimGeopark. Thus, their assessment of the products offered may be limited. Furthermore, the small size of this study is restrictive, and the results’ generalizability is limited to the particular population in a specific country. However, our findings are highly significant for KCS by providing insights into marketing and service improvement measures. This study not only provides signals to KCS, but is also a sign that the government must improve the facilities in Kilim. However, regardless of whether ecotourism or nature-based tourism products are developed, the local community, government, and the private sector need to join forces so as to preserve the environment, ensuring the viability of small businesses. Thus, the present study has provided meaningful documentation on the tourism products offered in KilimGeopark, Langkawi, Malaysia. In light of this, KCS and other stakeholders must focus on the feedback provided by tourists towards further tourism development in Kilim.

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Medical Tourism Research: A Conceptual Framework Of Emerging Business Strategies In Healthcare Industry

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Malaysia is in the progress of diversifying its economic activities towards a service-based economy to create highly payable jobs and to achieve a developed nation status by 2020. At the same time, the world had recognized healthcare sector as a highly potential global industry. Therefore, based on the available resources in the country and the changing trend of the world economy, Malaysia noticeably recognizing healthcare travel as one of the new source of sustainable economic activity. Malaysia's effort in promoting medical tourism industry is being materialized through the strategies adopted by the healthcare centers in the country. Looking into this opportunity, academic research is needed to devise strategies to gain competitive advantage in medical tourism industry in the region. Therefore, the purpose of the study is to examine the factors that contribute to the growth of the medical tourism industry in Malaysia by studying the medical tourists' satisfaction from the aspects of medical cost, quality healthcare services, specialist medical services, government regulations and contribution of medical tourism agents. Medical cost, quality healthcare services and specialist medical services are identified as internal factors within the control of the healthcare centers. Government regulations and contribution of medical tourism agents are defined as the external factors that are not regulated by the healthcare providers. This study is designed to see the relationship between internal factors and external factors on medical tourists' satisfaction using resource based view (RBV) theory and adopting Porter's Competitive Advantage Model. The practical implication of the study is focused to the management of the international healthcare providers in adopting strategies in achieving greater medical tourists' satisfaction.

Key words: medical tourism, healthcare, resource, competitive strategies, customer satisfaction

Introduction

Malaysia is in the process of diversifying its economic activities towards a service-based economy to create highly payable jobs in order to achieve a developed nation status by 2020. Due to that, the New Key Economic Area (NKEA), which was initiated under the Malaysian government's Economic Transforming Program (ETP)

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is intended to reform healthcare as an economic commodity which is expected to create 181,000 new jobs (Economic Transformation Program-Annual report, 2011). Malaysia's intention is in line with General Agreement of Trade in Services (GATS) which require the member countries to provide health services in four different modes such as delivering health services to cross border patients (telemedicine), consumption abroad (medical tourism, retirees, expatriates and emergency cases while abroad), commercial presence (foreign participation or ownership in capital investments, technology tie-ups, collaborative ventures), and presence of natural persons (movement of doctors and health personnel for the purpose of commercial medical practice) (Cattaneo, 2009). In addition, in the Third Industrial Master Plan launched in 2006, the government had identified healthcare travel as one of the potential services sub-sector to generate national economic growth.

Looking into the new global economic trend and the available resources in the country, the government is noticeably recognizing healthcare travel as one of the new source of sustainable economy. Accordingly, globalization gives greatest impact on the demand and supply of health care services in the departure countries and the destination countries in medical tourism industry which provides diversified business opportunities. In conjunction to this, Malaysia's effort in promoting medical tourism industry can be materialized through the strategies adopted by the medical tourism hospitals in the country. Looking into this opportunity, academic research is needed to device strategies to gain competitive advantage in medical tourism industry in the region

Methodology

This study intends to see the role of competitive strategies in achieving inbound medical tourists' satisfaction by the medical tourism hospitals. Due to that, this study is proposed to be a prospective cross sectional study of inbound medical tourists' satisfaction and its relationship to the medical tourism hospitals competitive advantage based on the Porters' Competitive Advantage Model. The unit of analysis of this study will be the inbound medical tourists seeking medical treatment in medical tourism hospitals in Malaysia. Respondents will be selected using stratified sampling technique. The samples will be stratified equally among all the 41 medical tourism hospitals (Association of Private Hospital Malaysia (APHM), 2012). The respondents will be interviewed by the researcher guided by the questionnaire to comment on the various experiences while treated in the private healthcare centers.

Literature Review

Defining the Scope of Medical Tourism

Health tourism consists of wellness tourism and medical tourism. Wellness tourism promotes healthier lifestyle through spa, thermal and water treatment, acupuncture, aromatherapy, beauty care, facials, exercise and diet, herbal healing, homeopathy, massage, spa treatment, and yoga which do not require medically trained staffs. Medical tourism includes medical treatments for reproduction, illness and enhancement. Procedure-driven medical treatments are performed through qualified medical interventions by qualified and trained medical personnel. Therefore, this study will only consider medical treatments that needs medical interventions and qualified medical personnel which cover the scope of treatment for fertility, illness

and enhancement. However, wellness tourism and birth tourism will be excluded from this study because they are considered as out of the scope of the study.

For the purpose of this study, medical tourism will be viewed from the point of inbound medical tourism which involves foreign patients visiting Malaysia's private health care centers for medical treatments involving medical procedures by trained and qualified medical personnel. Therefore, medical tourism, for the purpose of this study, from the perspective of customers is defined as international travel for illness, enhancement and fertility treatment by qualified and trained medical personnel involving medical interventions.

Business Strategies In Medical Tourism

Lee (2007), reported that the medical tourism industry has entrepreneurial opportunity in a new emerging international business. In medical tourism industry, private hospitals or private healthcare providers are mostly funded by the medical tourist themselves which has been common for entrepreneurial ventures to increase revenue to remain self-sufficient in the emerging industry. Meanwhile, efforts by healthcare centers such as Raffles Hospital & Parkway Groups are taking initiative to market Singapore's medical tourism in China, South Asia, the Middle East, Indonesia and Russia (Teh 2007) shows that healthcare centers themselves are taking the initiative to promote medical tourism to increase their customer market which in turn increases revenue earned and optimize productivity by utilizing available resources. On the other hand, Hospitals in Thailand are collaborating through tie-ups and affiliations with travel agencies, referral agencies and patients' home-country hospitals besides making significant investment in the latest technology, acquiring quality certification (ISO), accreditations and attracting highly skilled doctors (Teh et al.,2007). Whereas hospitals in India are coordinating with tourism industry, among national government, state government and numerous federal bodies to promote medical tourism in the country (Heung, 2010).

A part from that, Turner (2007) reported that there is changing trend in promoting medical tourism. Attracting individual clients is time consuming and inefficient. Due to that, medical tourism agents are learning to attract high volume of medical tourist by offering company packages (Yi, 2006). As medical tourism agents shift to establishing out-of-country health care for corporate clients, collaboration between medical tourism companies and healthcare centers has become important factor to gain higher volume of medical tourists. Moreover, collaboration with travel and tour agencies, home-country hospitals, tourism industry and government bodies also contribute to attract significant volume of international patients.

However, the growth of the medical tourism industry in Malaysia believed to be relied on the strategies outlined by the medical tourism hospitals, the government, and the medical tourism agents. These strategies are categorized as internal factors and external factors. Internal factors will be examined from the aspects of cost, quality services, specialist services which are within the control of the medical tourism hospitals. Government regulations and contribution of medical tourism agents are measured as external factors which are not regulated by the medical tourism hospitals.

Internal Factors of Medical Tourism

Cost

In medical tourism industry, Cost has been recognized as one of the important variable that influences the growth of medical tourism industry in 21st century (Deloitte Center for Health Solutions, 2011). Cost can be analyzed as a push factor for the medical tourists from the developed countries to demand medical services abroad and as a pull factor for the destination countries which supply healthcare services to the world market. Meanwhile, procedures cost has significant influence on medical tourists' decision when considering outsourced medical treatments (Peters & Sauer, 2011).

At the same time, based on economical point of view, supply of medical services at relatively cheaper cost in developing countries (Lin, 2010; Connell, 2006) became the major factor that attracts inbound medical tourists to the developing countries. Moreover, reduced cost of international travel (Connell et al. 2006), favorable economic exchange rates (Chambers & McIntosh, 2008), are also identified as other important factors for cost sensitive medical tourists especially for those who are underinsured and uninsured from developed countries to travel abroad for medical services. Cost-effective medical treatment and affordability due to relatively cheaper medical services became important factors contributing to competitive advantage in reversing medical tourism growth in developing countries.

In conclusion, like any other international trade, competitive pricing of the procedures attract the medical tourists to receive care in the destination countries (Lee et al., 2007). Therefore, in order to be competitive in the emerging medical tourism industry Malaysia need to attract medical tourists based on competitive pricing strategy besides emphasizing on the quality of the medical services offered in the country. Therefore this study will examine competitive pricing strategy based on cost leadership method which influences healthcare centers strategies and at the same time medical tourists' satisfaction.

Quality Sservice

Turner et al. (2007) pointed out that, in medical tourism, quality which signals high standards of care have been the main concern of the medical tourism agents and medical tourism hospitals. Quality medical treatments offered by destination countries with the governments' endorsement helps to increase patients' confidence to utilize the medical services available in the countries (Lee et al. 2007). Delivery of quality medical treatment by doctors as service personals gives the highest satisfaction to the patients (Thilagavathi& Shankar, 2010). Due to that, physician trained in countries which have well established medical education and venture into research and development in medical field such as United States, Canada, Australia and United Kingdom become the important indicator of professional competence (Turner et al. (2007).

English-speaking physicians who are trained in developed countries such as England and United States of America (Lancaster, 2004) are advertised by medical tourism hospitals in their websites to attract international patients especially from the Western countries. A good patient-doctor relationship can lead to better outcome of medical treatment and medical customer will achieve satisfaction (Thilagavathi et al., 2010). This indicates that good communication between patient and doctor will lead

to better understanding of sickness and treatment required and will be able to tap larger international patients around the world. On the other hand, to tap the Asian and the Middle East where a variety of language are spoken, some medical hospitals in Thailand, Malaysia and Singapore provide translators for international patients (Turner et al., 2007; Cormany & Baloglu, 2011). Moreover, some of their nurses are also trained to speak foreign languages. The main aim is to deliver better service to various medical tourists with various backgrounds of language and culture and to satisfy them without language barrier.

The Joint Commission International (JCI) launched by the Joint Commission in 1999 emphasis quality of medical care offered and patient's safety (Chambers et al., 2008). Several other organizations, such as Accreditation of Health Care Organization and assessment by the British Standards Institute and International Standards Organization (ISO designation) which ensure that medical tourism facilities provide the highest-quality clinical care (Deloitte et al., 2008) became important indicators in marketing medical facilities to the medical tourists.

A part from that, improvement of technology and standards of the medical state-of-art facilities (Connell et al., 2006), hygiene and safety medical services offered in the developing countries are compatible to western countries (Connell et al. 2006 ; Chambers et al. 2008), availability of medical services that are not available in the US (Peters et al. 2011) due to lack of medical expertise, a very tourists friendly culture in countries like Thailand (Teh et al. 2007) and Philippine, and less waiting hours (Lin et al. 2010), using resorts to recuperate patients such as in India where Apollo Hospital Group made arrangements with the Taj group to transfer patients to its 38 leisure hotels (Leon-Jordan, Kuruvilla, & Jacob., 2010), and visiting exotic locations, interesting new cultures (Burkett, 2007) like traditional recreational tourism after medical treatment are also identified as internal strategies adopted by health care centers to promote and attract international patients.

Adaptation of advanced technology conveys the message that these hospitals offer top-tier healthcare with advanced, specialized, elite, acute care hospitals facilities (Turner et al., 2010).. Adaptation of technology in delivery of medical services such as Telemedicine and remote surgery may further reduce the gap between domestic and foreign care. Technological advancement and faster communication links especially through internet will allow the local surgeons to follow patients' progress in the abroad (Bennett, (2009). Hospitals with advanced medical facilities will be able to gain competitive advantage in the globalized medical tourism industry to attract higher patients' volume.

Specialized Service

In the healthcare industry, hospitals pursuing focus strategy compete in a narrow segment by specifying type of medical patients (Hlavackea, Bacharova, Rusnakova & Wagner, 2001) such as obstetrics and gynaecology, geriatrics, paediatrics, cancer treatment and cardiac care. Meanwhile, focused hospital services concentrate on single procedures. When hospitals adopt focused strategy, staffs develop an in depth knowledge and experience which later results in delivery of a high quality service (Van Merode, Groothuis & Arie, 2004) with better outcome results.

In medical tourism industry, international patients seek medical treatments in specialized hospitals for illness such as cancer, cardiac care, dentistry, oncology and organ transplant. There are countries promoting medical tourism by specialized medical care such as Singapore as cancer and organ transplant center and Thailand

specialized in cosmetic surgery. A part from that, some medical tourism hospital also provide specialized medical care through personalized post operative care (Leon-Jordan et al., 2010) where patients are able to have their own personal nurse at all times especially in India, perform medical treatment via telemedicine and remote surgery (Bennett et al., 2009), and arrange follow up for patients via the Internet (Bennett et al., 2009). Therefore, hospitals pursuing focus strategy try to gain competitive advantage by offering a unique and specialized service for the chosen market segment (Hlavackea et al., 2001).

External Factors of Medical Tourism

Government Regulations

Government as the policy maker had realized the potential of medical tourism for the local economy by promoting and supporting the growth of medical tourism industry. According to Deloitte et al. (2011) Korean and Taiwan governments are developing infrastructure facilities such as building new medical tourism hospitals for international patients. Meanwhile, the Philippines are promoting medical tourism by distributing medical tourism guidebook throughout Europe. In Malaysia, the government has increased the allowed stay under a medical visa from 30 days to six months and the government of Singapore has formed a collaboration of industry and governmental representatives to create a medical hub in Singapore (Deloitte et al., 2011).

Thailand government is making significant investment to promote medical tourism by implementing simplified visa procedures, construct new hospitals, and funding students to attain higher education abroad (Teh et al. 2007). Government of India is putting its effort to promote medical tourism to medical tourists from Britain and Canada (Lancaster et al. 2004) where British National Health Service are subcontracted to India (Bies & Zacharia, 2007). Moreover, India also provides special zoning law, reduce tariffs for imported medical devices, lower corporate taxes and investing in transportation infrastructure such as airports (Turner et al. 2007) and issuing M-visas which are valid for one year for the patients and companies (Chinai & Goswami, 2007).

The growth of medical tourism industry in developing countries also depends on the promotion and marketing strategies formulated by the government especially through multi-lateral trade between governments. Besides that, the baby boomers and the young generation who are heavy users of internet have established traveling lifestyle (Karuppanan & Karuppan, 2010). Therefore, these target groups prefer to travel and tour before or after medical treatment in destination countries. Collaboration with medical tourism industry and tourism industry expected to attract foreign patients and may contribute for the growth of medical tourism and tourism sector as a whole. Governments' effort as mediator to outline planning and enforcement to collaborate with tourism industry is essential in the growth of medical tourism industry. Therefore, in this study, government regulations will be examined from the perspective of the medical tourists' satisfaction to gain competitive advantage in the medical tourism industry in the region.

Medical Tourism Agents

Medical tourism agents or facilitators are companies that guide the use of medical tourism for patients and providers. Many medical tourists find that using facilitators to be more convenient and expedient than looking for a program on their own because facilitators have experience in the medical tourism process and are able to address any concerns or questions that patients might have. They often provide assistance with logistics and travel arrangements. Patients may even be able to get lower rates from medical facilitators than directly from clinical programs abroad (Deloitte et al, 2011)

Medical agents' website display cost comparison (Turner et al., 2007) of medical tourism hospitals around the world or in the region to give information to medical tourists to choose affordable medical care out of the country. The advertisement includes expenses of travel and accommodation besides prices for medical procedures. Therefore, private healthcare centers having collaboration with medical agents gain competitive advantage to increase the number of international patients travelling for medical services.

Medical tourism agents also offer wide range of packages from 'wellness packages', spa retreats, Ayurvedic medicine and traditional Chinese medicine to cosmetic surgeries, orthopedic procedures, cataract surgery, dental care, cardiac surgery, organ and bone marrow transplant, and stem cell injections (Turner et al., 2007). Some medical tourism agents specialize in arranging travel to single countries such as Raleigh-based IndUShealth arrange trips to hospitals in New Delhi, Chennai, Bangalore and Mumbai due to favorable currency exchange rate and Merit Global Health and Plenitas arrange package to hospitals in Buenos Aires by taking advantage of the economic crises (Turner et al. 2007). Therefore, in this study, relationship between contribution of medical tourism agents and medical tourists satisfaction will be examined in order to achieve competitive advantage in the medical tourism industry in the region.

Medical Tourists' Satisfaction

According to expectancy disconfirmation theory (Oliver, 1980), which has been tested and confirmed in several studies (Tse & Wilton 1988) explains that customers purchase goods and services with pre-purchase expectations about anticipated performance. Once the product or service has been purchased and used, outcomes are compared against expectations. When outcome matches expectations, confirmation occurs. Disconfirmation occurs when there are differences between expectations and outcomes. Negative disconfirmation occurs when product/service performance is less than expected. Positive disconfirmation occurs when product/service performance is better than expected. Satisfaction is caused by confirmation or positive disconfirmation of consumer expectations, and dissatisfaction is caused by negative disconfirmation of consumer expectations.

In today's challenging business environment, competitive advantage lies in delivering notable high quality service that resulted in satisfied customers (Shamwell, Yavas & Bilgin, 1998). In the healthcare industry, competitiveness among health care organizations depends upon patients' satisfaction. Patients' satisfaction is created through a combination of responsiveness to the patient's views and needs and continuous improvement of the healthcare services. Determining the factors associated with patients' satisfaction is important topic for the health care provider to understand what is valued by patients, how the quality of care is perceived by the

patients and to know where, when and how service change and improvement can be made. Generally, service quality promotes customer satisfaction, stimulate intention to return and encourage recommendations (Nadiri & Hussain, 2005). Due to that, this study is intended to identify the competitive advantage of healthcare centers to influence the medical tourists' satisfaction in the medical tourism industry.

Theoretical Review

Resource-Based View

According to resource-based view (RBV), the source of a competitive advantage lies in the firm's resources (Barney, 1991). Wernerfelt, (1984) defined firms' resources as tangible and intangible assets which are tied semi-permanently to the firm at a given time. On the other hand, Wernerfelt et al. (1984) and Barney et al. (1991) mentioned that RBV explains that firms are different because they have different resources. Barney et al. (1991) argued that to be a source of competitive advantage, a resource must have four characteristic such as valuable (to explore opportunities and/ or neutralized threats in competitive environment), rare (not available to actual or future competitors), inimitable (unique) and non-substitutable (other resources cannot generate equivalent outcome). Therefore, a firm holds a competitive advantage when implementing a value creating strategy which is not identical to the strategy pursued by a competitor (Serra & Ferreira, 2010). Grant (2001) mentioned resources as the source of a firm's capabilities and capabilities are the main source of its competitive advantage. Therefore, Grant et al. (2001) suggested six major categories of resources. They are financial resources, physical resources, human resources, technological resources, reputation and organizational resources. Therefore, this study will only focus on the tangible elements in the organization. Aspects such as healthcare centers infrastructure, advanced technology used in medical care, quality medical care offered by the doctors (the service personals), nurses and paramedics (support service) and latest state of art facilities provided will be analyzed to understand how these recourses can bring competitive advantages to the healthcare centers. Furthermore, this study will also look into the strategies on how to use these available resources effectively and efficiently in order to gain competitive advantage in the industry.

Porter Model of Competitive Advantage

Porter's generic strategy concept in gaining competitive advantage is a tested and well proven model in the business field. Competitive methods are actions taken or resources used in the overall strategy development process and are increasingly important to managers seeking to increase the performance of their firms (Porter, 1980, 1985). The link between competitive methods are cost leadership, differentiation and focused generic strategies which result in the firm's performance (Fahy & Smithee, 1999).

A superior cost or differentiation, however, leads to a large market share, which in turn leads to higher profitability (Karnani, 1984). Meanwhile, Porter (1991) assumed that a firm's competitive position will lead to superior and sustainable financial performance. Porter also added that to gain competitive advantage a firm need to address challenges to new market and technological opportunities that are hard to perceive. At the same time, the company needs to adopt change by enhancing and expanding the skills of employees and improving the companies scientific and

knowledge base (Porter, 1990). Porter, however, emphasizes that innovation grows out of pressure and challenges. Therefore, firms should tune the pressure and challenges to be innovative which may lead to competitive advantage. These innovations can be achieved by selling to the most sophisticated and demanding buyers who are knowledgeable and expect the best performance (Porter et al. 1990).

Some firms gain success by having unique resources. These resources, however, are meaningful if the firm performs activities to attain competitive advantage (Porter et al. 1991). Moreover, the resources competitive can be enhanced or eliminated by factors such as change in technology, competitors behavior or buyers need. Therefore, in order to be competitive firm's needs more than resources, the environment as the origin of advantage (Porter, et al. 1991). The environment shapes the configuration of activities, unique assembles of resources, and commitments to success. This environment is strongly influenced by government. Government plays an important role in shaping pressure, incentives, and capabilities of a firm through its policies and investment encouraging and challenging firms to move to higher level of competition (Porter, et al. 1991).

All in all, in national circumstances, the most significant competitive advantage depends on the firm's industry and strategy (Porter et al. 1990) with a significant influence from the government. In medical tourism industry which intercepts scientific research based industry and resources-driven industry, low-cost factor and quality of factor in human resource and technology become important attributes. Therefore, in this study government is identified as an important factor as medical tourism involving international trade. This study also will look into the government's laws, policies and regulation that enhance medical tourism industry in Malaysia.

Proposed Theoretical Framework

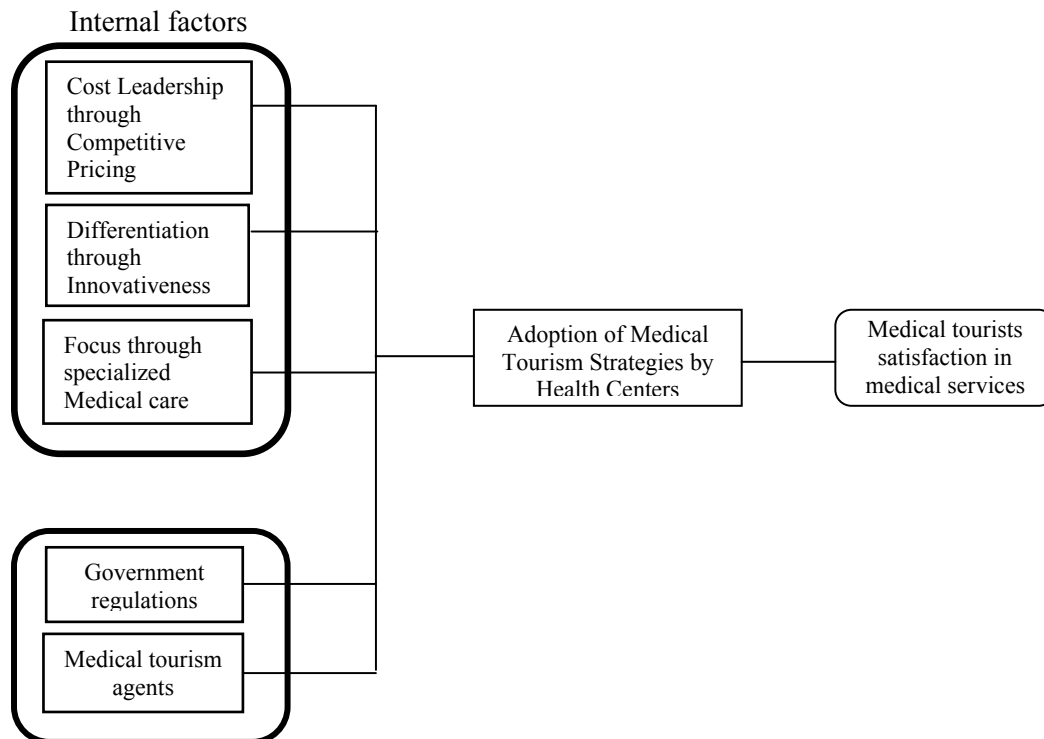


Figure 1: Theoretical Framework of Medical Tourism Research

Theme 1: Cost Leadership through Competitive Pricing

Cost advantage occurs when a firm delivers the same services as its competitors but at a lower cost (Porter, 1998). The advantages of cost leadership are gaining market share at competitors price and at the same time gain same level of profit as the competitor do. In medical tourism industry procedures cost has significant influence on medical tourists' decision when considering outsourced medical treatments (Peters et al., 2011). Relatively cheaper cost in developing countries (Lin et al. 2010; Connell et al. 2006) due to favorable exchange rate became one of the important pull factors for the growth of medical tourism industry in the developing countries. Therefore, it is suggested that medical tourism hospitals can adopt cost leadership strategy through competitive pricing in order to gain competitive advantage.

Theme 2: Differentiation through Innovativeness

A firm can achieve differentiation by creating a unique product or service. Differentiation advantage also occurs when a firm delivers greater services for the same price of its competitors. Therefore, this study will measure the relationship between medical tourists satisfaction and differentiation strategy through innovativeness by focusing on international quality healthcare, English-speaking, highly trained and qualified medical specialists, qualified support service, tie-ups between healthcare centers and travel agencies, international accreditation such as Joint Commission International (JCI), and availability of wide range of medical services.

Theme 3: Focus through Specialized Medical Care

A focused approach requires the firm to concentrate on a narrow, exclusive competitive segment (market niche) which serves the needs of limited customer group or segment. The niche market can be defined by geographical uniqueness, type of customers and segment of product line such as health and wellness (Chee & Harris, 1998). Therefore, focus strategy will be examined through specialized medical care by personalized care, suitable environment for surgery recovery, and specialize medical treatment. This information will be analyzed to study the relationship between the focus strategy and medical tourists' satisfaction. The outcome of the analysis will be recommended to the healthcare centers to be adopted as competitive strategy in emerging medical tourism industry.

Theme 4: Government Regulations

Turner et al. (2007), reported that regional and national government of India, Thailand, Singapore, Malaysia, and the Philippines sees medical tourism as progressive vehicle to diversify their economics, attracting foreign investment, promoting job creation, building the health services industry and using regional strength to benefit from the doctrine of competitive advantage. Therefore, in this study, government regulations will be examined from the perspective of the medical tourists. The relationship between government regulations and medical tourists' satisfaction will be measured by simplified medical visa process, visa extension for medical tourists, political stability, government's referral for medical treatment abroad, airport services and local attractions.

Theme 5: Contribution of Medical Tourism Agents

Medical tourism agents' plays an important role for medical tourists to obtain affordable medical treatment by providing assistance with logistics and travel arrangements. Meanwhile for medical tourism hospitals, medical tourism agents help to tap bigger customer market through collaborations. Therefore, the relationship between contribution of medical tourism agents and medical tourists' satisfaction will be analyzed to give adequate information to the medical tourism hospitals to device competitive strategies.

Conclusion

Therefore, based on this study, factors that contribute to the growth of the medical tourism industry in Malaysia will be analyzed by studying the medical tourists' satisfaction from the aspects of medical cost, quality healthcare services, specialist medical services, government regulations and contribution of medical tourism agents. The information available from this analysis will be adopted by the medical tourism hospitals to device competitive strategies to gain bigger market share in the region. Whereas, government regulations and contribution of medical tourism agents may enhance the growth of this emerging industry which in turn will make Malaysia the medical hub in the region. Moreover, this study is also designed to see the relationship between internal factors and external factors on medical tourists' satisfaction using resource based view (RBV) theory and adopting Porter's Competitive Advantage Model. The practical implication of the study is focused to the management of the medical tourism hospitals in adopting strategies in achieving greater medical tourists' satisfaction.

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The Roles Of Auxiliary Players In Health Tourism Industry In Penang, Malaysia

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The main players of the drama in health tourism industry have always being acknowledgement said the medical service providers and health seeking tourists. Most of the credits have been directly taken by these groups. The success of health tourism industry in a location practically does rely on its supporting players in the industry's supply chain. The objective of this paper is to introduce the critical roles played by the supporting activities in the health tourism industry. In addition, it is also to facilitate the formulation of recommended interventions to develop the competitiveness of each of the identified roles the players. The Value Chain Analysis (VCA) will be applied in this research paper as a methodology for the systematic competitiveness analysis of enterprises and local industries. All relevant activities and processes will be examined and sorted out which have a critical relevance to improve the competitiveness in health tourism industry. The application of VCA in the health tourism industry has a clear objective in mind that is to introduce roles of processes and elements in the production of health tourism services of the supporting players. The importance of VCA is also indicates the critical phase in the process of producing best services. Details observation will also be conducted with the local entrepreneurs in Penang, as chosen to be the case study of this research paper. Initial findings show that the local entrepreneurs in Penang are adapting well to compete in the industry and being innovative in different ways.

Key words: medical tourism, value chain analysis, tourism industry, competitive advantage, innovation

Introduction

Tourism is an attractive tool for economic development, for both developed and developing countries. Tourism is stimulating the world's economy, as it being a strategically important sector for economic growth. It can play a critical role in reaching the goals of every countries in the world. According to Research EU Focus (2008), tourism represents almost 11% of European Union's GDP, providing approximately 12% of the labour force, and a significant growth potential. Tourism is particularly important when it comes to offering job opportunities to young people, who represent twice as much of the labour force in tourism than in the rest of the economy (CORDIS, 2008). Employment growth in the tourism sector has been

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significantly higher than in other economic sector in recent years. The importance of tourism in the EU economy is likely to continue to increase with the expected annual growth rate above 3 % in the coming years (Tourism Satellite Accounting Regional Reports, European Union 2007, World Travel and Tourism Council, London, United Kingdom). The main objective of this paper is to show the existence and also to introduce the importance of the roles of auxiliary players in health tourism industry.

Generally, health tourism being classified under this huge industry as it is an important source of income for most of the countries in the world. Health tourism, sometimes referred to as medical tourism, is broadly defined as people travelling from their place of residence for health reasons (I Aniza et al. 2009). Health tourism has been made possible and extremely affordable in the last few decades as a result of globalization. This phenomenon proves that globalization is no longer limited to manufacturing because the provision of health services will also eventually transcend national barriers (Farrugia, 2006). Hence, the business of medical travel is very promising and more than 130 countries worldwide are competing for a pie of this global business. Promoting Penang as Medical City of the Region of Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand-Growth Triangle (IMT-GT) is the holistic plan to set its name in the world. Penang envisage the objectives of providing quality healthcare that is affordable for all segments of the market and capable to look into the comfort and needs of tourist patients and their families. As a result, Penang was chosen as the case study for this paper.

In comprehending these objectives, the application of value chain analysis in the tourism subsector has the roles to play. The term 'Value Chain' was used by Michael Porter in his book "Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining superior Performance" (1985). The value chain analysis describes the activities the organization performs and links them to the organizations competitive position. It is the objective of this paper to explore the introductory of the value chain analysis towards Penang's health tourism. In the chain itself, there are many auxiliary players that involved in the health tourism which will be described in the paper.

Health Tourism In Malaysia

Medical tourism in Penang is one of the best options available to people within IMT-GT which was formed in 1993 to speed up economic transformation within the sphere of 14 provinces in southern Thailand, 8 states of Peninsular Malaysia and 10 provinces of Sumatra in Indonesia (IMT-GT, 2012). Millions come every year to get treated and then enjoy their recuperative holidays across Penang. People from different walks of life cut across the entire span of the IMT-GT to come to Penang to have their treatments done with a peace of mind. Penang provides world class medical facilities with hospitals and specialized multi specialty health centres providing their expertise in the areas of cosmetic surgery, dental care, heart surgeries, coronary by-pass, heart check up, valve replacements, knee replacements, eye surgeries, Chinese traditional treatments like acupuncture therapies and much more, practically covering every aspect of medicine combining modern treatments with traditional experience.

With Penang having captured 57% of the medical tourism receipts for Malaysia in 2009 and 66% in 2010, the state government is aiming to develop and promote the state as a medical city in the region (InvestPenang, 2012). The primary reasons as to why medical tourism would flourish in Penang include much lower medical costs for various ailments such as by-pass surgery, knee surgery and full medical check-up as compared to other places. As a result of higher and very

expensive medical costs in the western countries, patients from countries within IMT-GT region and various Asian countries have started exploring medical treatment in hospitals on the basis of economies of scale in Penang because its medical infrastructure has geared up to provide them non-subsidized medical treatment at comparatively much lower costs. It is from here that the competitive advantage of Penang establishes.



Source: Indonesia-Malaysia-Thailand Growth Triangle, www.imtgt.org

Rivalry Within The Region

Thailand is one of the giants in this industry because its government has promoted Thailand as the “Health Tourism Hub of Asia”, “Wellness Capital of Asia”, and “Thai Herbs for Health” to become health service centre in the Southeast Asian Region by 2010 (The Star, 2008). In 2004, Thailand embarked on a five-year strategic plan to establish Thailand as “Centre of Excellent Health of Asia”. The plan focuses on three key areas: medical services, healthcare services and Thai herbal products. The three leading products under the “Healthcare Services” category are health spas, traditional Thai massage, and long stay healthcare products and services. For health care the target is to raise the number of foreigners seeking medical treatment in Thailand’s hospitals from 970,000 persons treated in 2003 to two million by 2010, and total income of Baht 19,000 million to Baht 80,000 million (USD 605 million to USD 2.6 billion) (The Star, 2008).

Medical tourism in Singapore is not new. In 1997, Singapore was already receiving 370,000 healthcare visitors, which increased to 410,000 in 2006. The country spends less than four percent of GDP on healthcare but yet was ranked the best healthcare system in Asia by the World Health Organizations and has more Joint Commission International (JCI) –accredited facilities than any other country in Asia.

The hospitals in Singapore are extremely well equipped and are staffed by highly qualified doctors, many of them with international qualifications. One well known case demonstrating the expertise of Singapore doctors is when in April 2001 Singapore doctors successfully separated Nepalese twins, Ganga and Jamuna, who were joined at the head in a 90-hour operation. This has put Singapore medical expertise in the world headlines (The Star, 2008).

The Basic of Industry Value Chain

Value chain analysis describes the activities within and around an organization, and relates them to an analysis of the competitive strength of the organization. Therefore, it evaluates which value each particular activity adds to the organizations products or services. This idea was built upon the insight that an organization is more than a random compilation of machinery, equipment, people and money. Only if these things are arranged into systems and systematic activates it will become possible to produce something for which customers are willing to pay a price. Porter (1985) argues that the ability to perform particular activities and to manage the linkages between these activities is a source of competitive advantage. He distinguished between primary activities and auxiliary activities where primary activities are directly concerned with the creation or delivery of a product or service. They can be grouped into five main areas: inbound logistics, operations, outbound logistics, marketing and sales, and service. Each of these primary activities is linked to auxiliary activities which help to improve their effectiveness or efficiency. There are four main areas of auxiliary activities: procurement, technology development (including R&D), human resource management, and infrastructure (systems for planning, finance, quality, information management etc.) (Porter, 1985).

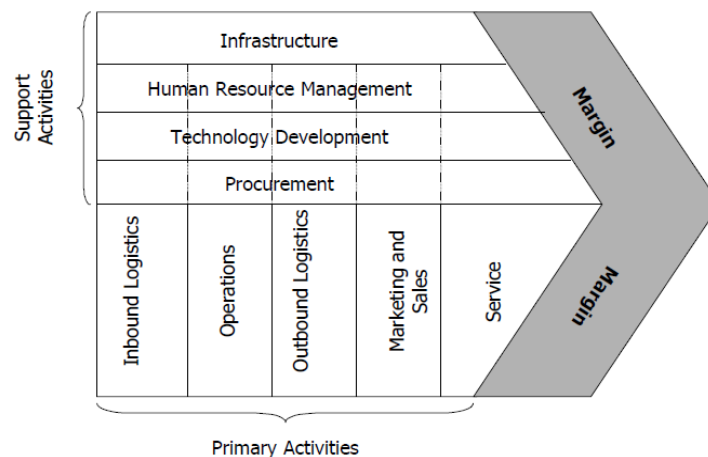


Figure 1 : The Basic Model Of Porters Value Chain Is As Follows

Source: Porter, M. (1985), *Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance*, The Free Press, New York

The term ‘Margin’ implies that organizations realize a profit margin that depends on their ability to manage the linkages between all activities in the value chain. In other words, the organization is able to deliver a product / service for which the customer is willing to pay more than the sum of the costs of all activities in the value chain (Porter, 1985). The same goes to health tourism industry whenever the

patient-tourist coming in for treatment, the margin of each activity will be gained respectively.

The linkages are crucial for industry success. The linkages are flows of information, goods and services, as well as systems and processes for adjusting activities. Their importance is best illustrated with some simple examples: Only if the Marketing & Sales function delivers patients forecasts for the next period to all other departments in time and in reliable accuracy, medical departments will be able to arrange nurses and necessary material for the correct date. And only if front office does a good job and forwards patients' information to respective clinics, only then operations will be able to schedule treatment in a way that guarantees the delivery of services in a timely and effective manner – as pre-determined by marketing. In the result, the linkages are about seamless cooperation and information flow between the value chain activities.

In most industries, it is rather unusual that a single company performs all activities from product design, production of components, and final assembly to delivery to the final user by itself. Most often, organizations are elements of a value system or supply chain. Hence, value chain analysis should cover the whole value system in which the organization operates. This is also applies in health tourism industry.

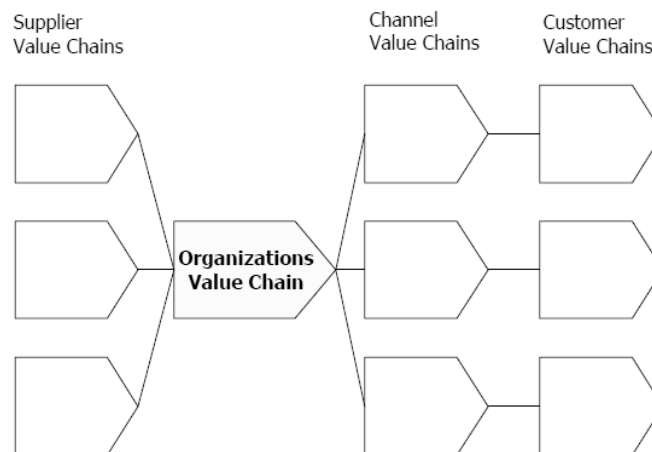


Figure 2 : Value Chain Analysis

Source: Porter, M. (1985), *Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance*, The Free Press, New York

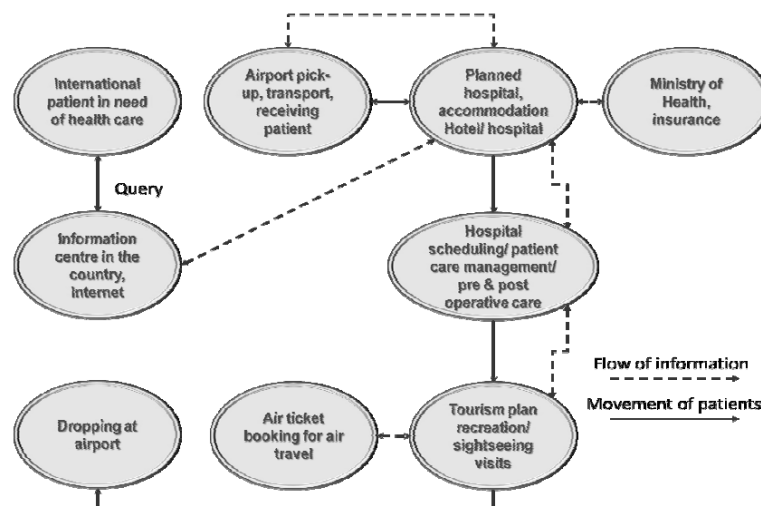
Within the whole value system, there is only a certain value of profit margin available. This is the difference of the final price the customer pays and the sum of all costs incurred with the production and delivery of the product/service (e.g. raw material, energy etc.). It depends on the structure of the value system, how this margin spreads across the suppliers, producers, distributors, customers, and other elements of the value system. Each member of the system will use its market position and negotiating power to get a higher proportion of this margin. Nevertheless, members of a value system can cooperate to improve their efficiency and to reduce their costs in order to achieve a higher total margin to the benefit of all of them (e.g. by reducing service lead-time in a Just-In-Time system). A typical value chain analysis can be performed in the following steps:

1. Analysis of own value chain – which costs are related to every single activity
2. Analysis of customers value chains – how does our product fit into their value chain

3. Identification of potential cost advantages in comparison with competitors
4. Identification of potential value added for the customer – how can our product add value to the customers value chain (e.g. lower costs or higher performance) – where does the customer see such potential

Value Chain and Auxiliary Players for Health Tourism in Penang

Acharyulu and Reddy (2004) conceptualized value chain for an international patient as following:



Adapted from Acharyulu and Reddy (2004)

Source: Porter Acharyulu, G. R., & Reddy, B. K. (2004). Hospital logistics strategy for medical tourism. *Supply Chain Seminar: An International Conference on Logistics*. Brisbane: Queensland University of Technology.

According to Prakash M., Tyagi N. and Devrath R. (2011), medical travel operators can be broadly classified into two groups. First, there are medical service providers such as hospitals and specialist centres. Hospitals that actively attract international patients are not involved only in the medical procedure itself, but are, in many cases, also responsible for all patient logistics from arrival to departure. Often the hospitals' involvement starts before arrival with the processing of the visa requirements and ends only after departure with patient follow up. The second group consists of medical travel facilitators who function like local agents and associated service providers. These are often smaller companies with just a few people on their payroll and most of them have spread their risk by dealing with hospitals and clinics in a number of different countries particularly Indonesia, Thailand, Cambodia, Philippines and Vietnam. Those medical travel agents which are dealing exclusively with hospitals of only one country or region are exposed to the same risks as the hospitals with which they work. These facilitators offer Penang's health-care options that will enable international patients, primarily from source countries to access local health care at fraction of the cost of domestic care or shorter wait time. By selling a type of medical value travel, they focus particularly on the self-insured patient. Some companies charge clients a flat rate commission or a percentage of the total cost of care. Others do not directly charge customers, but are paid by the hospitals to which their clients travel for treatment. The companies typically provide experienced nurse care managers to assist patients with pre and post procedure medical issues. They also

help provide resources for follow-up care upon the patient's return. Medical travel packages can include all costs associated with medical care, air and ground transportation, hotel accommodation, provision of a cell phone in the destination country for ease of communication, practical assistance from a local company representative at the health-care facility, travel arrangements for a companion, stays in nearby resorts during the post-operative recovery period and vacation to tourist destinations.

Table 1: List of Penang's specialist centres visited by medical tourists in 2011

Name of medical centre	Total numbers of medical tourist
Pantai Mutiara Hospital	333,000 people
Lam Wah Ee Hospital	
Mount Mariam Cancer Hospital	
Loh Guan Lye Specialist Centre	
Gleneagles Hospital	
Penang Adventist Hospital	
Island Hospital	

Source: The Star Newspaper: Penang tops list for medical tourism, 2012, viewed 5 October 2012,

<http://thestar.com.my/news/story.asp?file=/2012/10/5/nation/12125673&sec=nation>

On the other hand, there are small-medium enterprises that are operating along benefiting while playing their roles in the industry in Penang. It has been a trend in Georgetown with the mushrooming of new lodging inns which are designed in the way to suit the theme of heritage zone. This player does the accommodation roles for family and friends when they accompany the foreign patient to Penang. Others activities involve are laundry services, local limousines, nursing homes, tour guide agencies and many others.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Value chain with the auxiliary players playing their part has made health tourism possible and continues to flourish. In the ASEAN region, Malaysia is making a mark in the health tourism industry (I Aniza et al. 2009), thanks to the availability of value chain practices that bring in medical and technical expertise, political and economical stability, high quality infrastructure, and scenic beauty of the land. Nonetheless, despite all these, Malaysia has yet to be at par with her neighbours - Thailand, Singapore and India, in terms of the number of foreign patients and the revenue gained from this industry.

As a first step, it is recommended to intensify the discussion and to involve other relevant partners in Penang and, if needed, also from elsewhere. A broad debate is necessary to identify products, strategic options, partnerships and a step-by-step approach. Furthermore, it is recommended to gain firsthand experience from best practice in Malaysia and abroad. This also includes to actively seeking information, knowledge and partners to further professionalize stakeholders.

The next step should put the emphasis on bringing together suppliers and operators to jointly engage in extending the limited health tourism offer and to better commercialise it. External expertise could contribute in bringing in innovative services concepts and sensitize on quality improvement. It is also recommended to

initiate roundtable meetings in the field of healthcare resort construction and operation.

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The Importance Of Patient's Companion Towards Sustainable Medical Tourism In Malaysia

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Malaysian government considers medical tourism as one of the leading contributors towards the country's revenue and economic growth. In sustaining and promoting the industry, it is imperative to provide continuous quality service. To do so, Malaysian private hospitals need to address the key players in this industry as well as their role in assessing the quality of medical care. While much is known generally about patient's perspectives towards service quality, the perspectives of their families or so called "companion" towards the services is neglected. Limited research is being done to investigate on the importance of medical tourist companion in medical tourism industry. In medical tourism, accompanied companion play important roles as facilitator to enhance quality of care for patients who are receiving treatment in another country. The insight forwarded by this paper could provide some basis for future studies in this domain, particularly, on the role played by medical tourist's companion. Doctors and nurses responsiveness, sociability, politeness, civility, capability, access, communication, accessibility of the medical doctor and the hospital staff are some constructs that can be used to measure companion's satisfaction as well as communication, responsiveness, courtesy, cleanliness, hospital facilities and environment. Hence, companion's satisfaction needs to be explored to improve understanding of the significant impact they have in relation to hospital service quality in Malaysian private hospitals. This study will contribute to the body of knowledge which drive the sustainability of the tourism industry in Malaysia.

Key words: healthcare, medical tourism, medical tourist's companion, patients, tourism

Introduction

In this 21st century, medical tourism may well be one of the fastest growing 'new' businesses in the world (Chaudhuri, 2008), facilitated by advancements in medical technology, more affordable travel, the availability of information to potential patients through the Internet and a rapidly growing medical tourism brokerage industry (Leahy, 2008). Goodrich and Goodrich (1987) defined healthcare tourism as "the

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attempt on the part of a tourist facility or destination to attract tourists by deliberately promoting its health-care services and facilities, in addition to its regular tourist amenities” (p. 217). According to Gupta (2004), medical tourism can be defined as the provision of cost-effective medical care to patients in collaboration with the tourism industry. Within tourism, the health sub-sector precisely is the most promising and lucrative area for the advancement of the industry in the country (Dewi, 2003; Ormond, 2011). Therefore, medical tourism can be generalised as a partial and an important component within the tourism industry.

In tourism industry context, tourists usually travel with families or friends for vacations. While in medical tourism context, patients often travel with companions to ensure their comfort, safety, and feeling of security. Nevertheless, there is a difference of opinion with regard on the family’s relevancy to health and health care. Family involvement has been expressed as one of the six dimensions of patient-centred care (Gerteis, Edgman-Levitan, & Daley, 1993), and a central tenant of chronic care processes (Institute of Medicine, 2011). Various studies empirically reveal the importance of family to patients’ engagement in medical decision-making (Clayman, Roter, Wissow, & Bandeen-Roche, 2005), satisfaction with physician care (J. Wolff & Roter, 2008), treatment adherence (DiMatteo, 2004), quality of health care processes (Glynn, Cohen, Dixon, & Niv, 2006; Vickrey et al., 2006), physical and mental health (Seeman, 2000), and mortality (Christakis & Allison, 2006). However, despite vast understanding that families matter, specific knowledge regarding which actions and manners undertaken by family members are most helpful, or effective in improving health, is limited (J. L. Wolff & Roter, 2011).

The complexity of family attributes and dynamics and capacity to both benefit and exacerbate health and health care (DiMatteo, 2004; Seeman, 2000), complicate measurement and interference efforts. Therefore, a better perspective of the pathways by which families and friends wield their influence within the medical tourism context could inform efforts to improve the services by private hospitals as well as other relevant stakeholders such as the hotels and facilitators related to this industry.

Medical Tourism In Malaysia

Today, medical tourism in developing countries (e.g. Malaysia, Thailand, and India) not only provides an alternative option for better access to health services to inbound tourists, in terms of cheaper costs and superior services, or both, but also helps these countries to sustain their growth domestic products, especially with the recent deterioration and fluctuation of the economy in many Asian countries (e.g. Asian Economic Crisis in late 1990s) (Musa, Thirumoorthi, & Doshi, 2011). In Malaysia, medical tourism has emerged as one of the integral contributors of the country’s economic growth over the past years. A good majority of its visiting patients comes from Indonesia (69%) in 2011 contributing 68% revenue to the country’s economic growth leaving a huge gap from other countries. The country’s private hospitals participating in medical tourism have demonstrated an overall remarkable performance by the World Health Organisation (WHO) standards. Out of 41 private hospitals participating in medical tourism, 5 hospitals have JCI and MSQH accreditation, 20 with MSQH (Malaysian Society for Quality in Health) quality certification and 40 hospitals have ISO certifications.

In 1998, medical tourism attracted about 39,000 foreign patients and generated revenue of RM90 million and increased to about 100,000 patients with RM150 million revenue in 2001 (The Star, 2003). In 2005, the numbers increased to 232,161

with revenue of RM150.9 million, 296,687 foreign patients bringing in RM203.6 million in 2006 and 341,288 patients with revenue of RM253.84 million in 2007 (MHTC, 2012; The New Straits Times, 2008). In 2008, the industry received 374,063 foreign patients, generating RM299.1 million in revenue for the country (MHTC, 2012). The annual growth rate is 31.5% in 2010, leading to 392,956 foreign patients and RM378.9 million in revenue (MHTC, 2012). In addition, in 2011 foreign tourist visiting Malaysia for medical services has reached 583,296 generating RM511million in total revenue to the country (MHTC, 2012).

Merger, collaborations and expansions are part of sustainable planning and emerging trends in the business of medical tourism in Malaysia. The National Committee for the Promotion of Medical and Health Tourism was formed by the Ministry of Health in January 1998 to establish Malaysia as a regional hub for healthcare services (Chee, 2007). In 2009, this committee has been renamed as Malaysian Health Tourism Council (MHTC) and officially launched (21 December 2009) by the Malaysian Prime Minister. Its role is to streamline service providers and industry players in both private and government sectors, together with the packaging and standardisation of the prices for healthcare services and to market them internationally (Musa et al., 2011). In line to this, in January 2011, Malaysia's Parkway Holdings revealed its plan to build the largest private hospitals in the Malaysian State of Sabah. The new 200-bed Gleneagles Medical Centre located in Kota Kinabalu cost over RM200 million (US\$65.4 million) and due to complete by early 2014 (Chieh, 2011).

The government of Malaysia has targeted medical tourism as one of the prime growth factors of the country leading to more strategic planning for global market. Under the 10th Malaysia Plan (2011-2015), healthcare is identified by the government as one of the 12 National Key Economic Areas (NKEA). Contributions and investments in this area are expected to help the country become a high income nation by the year 2020. This sector is hoping to generate RM35.5 billion incremental gross national income (GNI) contribution and reach RM506 billion by the target year. Tourism Malaysia (2007) has listed factors that contribute in making Malaysia a centre of medical excellence in the region. They are:

- Safe and politically stable country
- Wide choice of world class infrastructure facilities
- Competitive and affordable pricing and favourable exchange rate
- Highly qualified, experienced and skilled consultants with internationally recognised qualifications
- Tolerant multi-cultural and multiracial Malaysian society accommodates patients of different cultures and religions
- Communication is easy with English speaking medical staff
- State-of-the-art technology, such as Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI), 64-Slice Computed Tomography Scanners, and Positron Emission Tomography (PET) Scanners for early detection of cancers and other diseases
- Quality and safety systems in place, such as ISO and accreditation by the Malaysian Society for Quality in Health (MSQH)
- Attractive and affordable travel packages during the recuperation period

These factors are important indicators for medical tourist when they plan for their medical treatment. Indeed, these elements are in-line with the expectation by medical tourist globally thereby helping to assure patient's maximum satisfaction. It is an attraction that has significantly contributed to the growth of medical tourism in Malaysia.

To encourage the rising trend of medical travel, Malaysia has established the, “My Second Home programme”, which allows foreigners to live in Malaysia with a social visit pass for as long as five years, making it an easy and convenient location for overseas medical treatment. The Health Ministry, Ministry of Tourism, the Association of Private Hospitals of Malaysia (APHM), Malaysian Health Tourism Council (MHTC) and other government agencies such as the Malaysian Association of Tours and Travel Agencies, Malaysia Airlines, and Malaysian External Trade Development Corporation (MATRADE) has also collaborated together to position Malaysia as a health tourism hub in Asia as well as globally.

With projections of growth in the industry, it is an appropriate time to undertake knowledge syntheses to assess services offered to accompany family members and what exactly is known about medical tourism so as to ultimately inform research, government, and industry agendas alike. In the remainder of this article we take on this task, presenting the scoping review that addresses the question: what is known about the companion’s importance in medical tourism? This article is hope to serve as one of the knowledge contributor in drawing together on this issue, and thus is a valuable contribution to the burgeoning literature on medical tourism.

Role of Patient’s Companion

Definition of Companion

Family as commonly and broadly defines include immediate family and distant relatives and friends who have been designated as ‘family like’ by the patients receiving care. According to Street and Gordon (2008), companion can be an important and productive part of the medical consultation. Companion can help patients provide physicians with essential medical history as well as reinforce, verify and expand patients’ statements (Clayman et al., 2005). Companion also may facilitate patient participation in the encounter by helping patients identify and remember to ask questions, express concerns, and make requests (Ishikawa, Hashimoto, & Roter, 2005).

There is a broad definition of “family” as defined by each and different patient. This concept is recognized by the American Academy of Family Physicians, which defines “family” as “a group of individuals with a continuing legal, genetic and/or emotional relationship” (Leawood, 2009). Ideally, patients, their families, and other partners in care are respected as essential members of the health care team, helping to ensure quality and safety. Patients often get their family involvement in care, care planning, and decision-making. Family members, as identified by the patient, provide support, comfort, and important information during ambulatory care experiences, a hospital stay in critical care, medical/surgical, and specialty units, in an emergency room visit, and in the transition to home and community care.

Supporting Role of Companion

Research has demonstrated that the presence and participation of family members and friends as partners in care provides cost savings, enhances the patient and family experience of care, improves management of chronic and acute illnesses, enhances continuity of care, and prevents hospital readmissions (Boudreaux, Francis, & Loyacono, 2002; Brumbaugh & Sodomka, 2009; Chow, 1999; Davidson et al., 2007; Edgman-Levitan, 2003; Fumagalli et al., 2006; Garrouste-Orgeas et al., 2008;

Halm, 2005; Lewandowski, 1994; Sodomka, 2006; Titler, 1997). In addition, this broad concept of family is recognized by the American Academy of Family Physicians, which defines “family” as “*a group of individuals with a continuing legal, genetic and/or emotional relationship*” (Leawood, 2009). A patient’s family is an integral part of the care of the patient and they are the supporting strength of the patient and become an instrumental part in the patient’s recovery. For example, in a hospital emergency department setting, almost all cases needed prompt attention. Thereby, the emergency department experience will affect the patient and accompanied person’s perceptions of the quality of care received and their satisfaction with the health service (Ekwall, Gerdtz, & Manias, 2008). While the role of the accompanied person will be determined by their relationship to the patient, most play an important role in providing emotional support and advocacy for the patient during this time of stress.

In medical tourism, accompanied companion do play an important role as facilitator for patients who are receiving treatment in another country as the culture and environment are different from their own. Numerous studies suggest that healthcare quality can be assessed by taking into account observer, such as friends and family perceptions. Moreover, these observer groups represent potential future clients and act as major influencers of patient healthcare choices (Strasser, Stephen, Sharon, Gerald, & Burge, 1995). Family members perceived that they “provided comfort and protection” to the patient who was vulnerable and helpless (Meyers et al., 2000). In the theme “being comforted”, patients described how they felt safer and less afraid when family members were present. They also described how they felt loved, supported and less alone. The theme “receiving help” includes the patients’ reports of family members acting as their advocates during their stay in the emergency department (ED). Eichhorn et al. (2001) stressed that the family members shared the burden of the need to understand and assumed responsibility for interpreting and explaining information to the patient.

Companion’s Satisfaction

So far, research on satisfaction in health care has focused on patient perspective. Yet, individuals who accompany patients are potential consumers as well and their satisfaction with medical care may influence patients’ healthcare outcomes as well as their own healthcare needs in the future. For example, Ekwall et al. (2008) emphasize on how accompanied persons experience in the emergency care visit may give valuable information for future quality improvements with emergency care. Nystrom, Dahlberg, and Carlsson (2003a) further emphasise where patients could not afford the risk of being looked upon as inappropriate clients in the emergency department, accompanied family played a major caring and supportive role for patients while patients waited for a medical examination. Harvey (2004) later described how the crisis of a critical illness affects both the patient and the family, identifying family satisfaction as a surrogate for patient satisfaction in critical care. However, only a few studies, have described family satisfaction with care of patients who are in a critical care setting (Harvey, 2004).

Most of the marketing research studies conducted on the quality of healthcare have considered patient perceptions, patient satisfaction, patient trust, and patient expectations. According to Ekwall et al. (2008), it has been suggested that patients’ families should also be regarded as clients. In addition, family members’ satisfaction with the service provided by a specific hospital affects preferences regarding

admission if hospitalization is needed as well as recommendations of that hospital to others (Vom Eigen, Edgman-Levitan, Cleary, & Delbanco, 1999). Therefore, family members or companion is also potential clients, and their satisfaction and experience with nursing care and hospital services may influence patients' healthcare outcomes as well as their own future healthcare needs. Satisfied family members give support to the care intervention of the patient and helped improve patient outcomes (Miracle, 2006). Despite these results, the ways in which companion experience the hospital service and their perceptions of quality have been less investigated. Considering the perspective of an accompanying family member is an important way in which patients' concerns can be addressed.

Measurement of Companion's Satisfaction

Satisfaction has generally been defined as the fulfillment of one's needs (Dawson, 1991; Wright, 1998). Molter (1979) reported companion's priority needs include hope, adequate and honest information and a feeling that hospital personnel are concerned about their loved ones. Hasin, Seeluangsawat, and Shareef (2001) found in their study that the communication, responsiveness, courtesy, cost and cleanliness are the major concerns for the satisfaction of service quality in Thai hospitals. Their investigation revealed that staffs norms and behaviour are also key factors for customer satisfaction. According to Haque, Sarwar, Yasmin, Anwar, and Nuruzzaman (2012), measurement of customer satisfaction and the service quality provided by the healthcare centres are vital with some construct such as the staffs including doctors and nurses responsiveness, sociability, politeness, civility, access, communication and the accessibility of the medical doctor and the hospital staff. Cooperative and helpful staffs are able to instill confidence among the customer of the healthcare service industry which often leads to satisfaction.

Companion's satisfaction with healthcare delivery can be conceptualised as a cognitive evaluation of a wide range of attributes of the care received, in addition to an overall emotional disposition, during a particular episode of healthcare service (Singh, 1991). According to Padma, Rajendran, and Sai (2009), companion satisfaction should reflect the need of healthcare quality requested by the companions due to its direct and indirect relationships between personnel support and companion satisfaction, attention to companions and hospital facilities as well as hospital facilities and companion satisfaction. Hospital facilities include the concrete features of a delivery of service for example amenities, physical structure and appearance of the hospital, signage, availability of resources, etc. In addition, the personnel support service is expected to be approachable, dependable, gracious, sincere and capable by the companions. Personnel support consists of all the interactions between service personnel and patients and family members including moments of certainty, serious incidents, service upturn, etc. (Padma et al., 2009).

The measurement of companions' satisfaction with healthcare delivery is itself a critically important issue. Satisfaction may be measured by the perception of companions who determine if the patient received high-quality care regardless of clinical outcomes. Heyland and Tranmer (2001) measured companion's satisfaction through care of family (ie, emotional support, spiritual support, concern and caring for family), care of the patient (pain management), professional care (physician and nursing communication, nursing skill and competence), intensive care unit (ICU) environment (atmosphere of the waiting room) and overall satisfaction. McDonagh, Elliot, and Engelberg (2004) studied companion's satisfaction on duration of time

companions communicate in clinical meetings. Communication has been depicted in many studies as a major determinant of companion's satisfaction. As Hashim (2007) reported, nurses communication was essential to the companions as they were able to provide accurate information on the patient's condition via their instrumental care for patients.

Customer service providers' approaches and the facilities serve with the organization are some observable key factors that consumers rely (Oswald et al. 1998). Duggirala, Rajendran, and Anantharaman (2008) also added that patients highlighted, as their companions perform important functions, facilities provided to them by the hospital have an impact on the perception, well being and assurance level of the patients. Therefore, the hospital environment is part of patient's companion assessment in assessing satisfaction with care (Roberti & Fitzpatrick, 2010). Cleanliness and appearance of the waiting room and peacefulness of the waiting room should be addressed as well. As Hashim (2007) highlighted, visiting hours and designated waiting rooms were important for companions who waited vigilantly for the sick relative.

In addition, Stricker et al. (2009); Stricker et al. (2007) looked upon satisfaction with care, information or decision making and overall companion's satisfaction in the intensive care unit. In their study, emotional support, coordination of care and communication associated with the intensive care unit leads to the need of improvement. Consequently, it appears useful to include an overall measure of satisfaction with a healthcare service experience in addition to attribute based evaluations. This allows a direct assessment of how the individual aspects contribute to overall companion's satisfaction.

The Importance of Companion

In Malaysia, there have been very few studies that particularly looked upon the importance of companion in hospitals setting as well as in medical tourism industry. Many studies in Western societies have acknowledged the importance of healthcare givers providing adequate support to family members and identifying their needs in times of crisis, in order to ease the effects of the crisis to family members (Azoulay, 2001; Leske, 2002; Rose, 1995). In a study on medical tourists in Thailand, Saiprasert (2011) found that respondents who travel with others (companion) have higher mean scores than respondents who travel individually due to their feeling of more security when having a companion with them.

Medical Tourism Association (2010) conducted the first patient survey of outbound American patients, as part of a larger research project to study the medical tourism industry. They found that 83% of the respondents travelled with a companion. 95% of the respondents, including their companions, participated in tourism experiences, such as sightseeing, shopping, eating, and enjoying the local culture. 70% of respondents rated the quality of medical services at the hospital as excellent. 51% of respondents used medical-tourism facilitators. In another study by Musa et al. (2011) of an inbound medical tourist in Kuala Lumpur, it further justifies that most respondents travel with a companion. They found that 47.1% of the respondents travelled to Malaysia in the company of their family and relatives while another 15.2% and 13.0% of the respondents travelled with their spouses and friends. This showed that a total of 87.6% respondents travelling with a companion while those who travelled alone only constituted 10.1%. The travelling companion varied from none to 13 in a group with an average number of two. The majority of the respondents

received healthcare services in the hospital for a period of 6-10 days (64.5%), however, 3.6% of the respondents stayed for more than 21 days due to their critical illnesses (Musa et al., 2011).

To date, studies in hospitals have focused on patients' rather than on the family members' assessment of healthcare quality (Vom Eigen et al., 1999), while studies on the role of family members in healthcare have tended to concentrate on care at home (Åstedt-Kurki, Paunonen, & Lehti, 1997). Most studies often concern families of patients hospitalised in specific departments (e.g. paediatric) or with specific medical conditions (e.g. intensive care) but studies regarding family member's importance in the area of medical tourism is scarce or has been neglected. This prompts further investigation on the importance of accompanying companion in medical tourism industry.

Conclusion

Past studies have only focused on the patient's perspective neglecting the presence important component of companion. Yet, individuals who accompany patients are potential consumers as well and their satisfaction with medical care may influence patients' healthcare outcomes as well as their own healthcare needs in the future. This paper further discussed and confirmed that medical tourists are always accompanied where research had shown that 80% of patients travel with a companion. Further confirmation study by Musa et al. (2011) claimed that each respondent was, on average, accompanied by two other people. It shows the importance of companion's presence easing the burgeoning feelings of patients being on their own. Companion's satisfaction with healthcare delivery can be conceptualised as a cognitive evaluation of a wide range of attributes of the care received, in addition to an overall emotional disposition, during a particular episode of healthcare service (Singh, 1991). Companion satisfaction should reflect the need of healthcare quality requested by the companions due to its direct and indirect relationships between personnel support and companion satisfaction, attention to companions and hospital facilities as well as hospital facilities and companion satisfaction. Thus, companion could be seen as an important contributor and an indicator used in assessing the quality of service in private hospitals. The presence of companion in this industry will also contribute towards the sustainability of tourism sector with the continuance usage of hotel, transportation and airline services. With the growth of medical tourism in Malaysia, indeed Malaysia's private healthcare industry is a hidden jewel that has a strong potential to compete successfully and to be an earner of foreign exchange, thus, gearing the economic growth of our country. Indeed, growth in the medical tourism industry will further contribute towards sustainability of the Malaysian tourism industry.

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Islamic Tourism: The Impacts To Malaysia's Tourism Industry

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This paper seeks to explore the evolution of Islamic tourism in the world especially in Malaysia as a multi-cultural nation. Since the religious factors have been brewed in Islamic tourism, it most likely influences the pros and cons of its growth in Malaysia. The data gathered from literature review were critically debated to fill the gaps in understanding the emergence of Islamic tourism. Therefore, the main issue address in this paper is to highlight as to how Islamic tourism (or so called religious/spiritual tourism) could give significant changes and impacts towards Malaysia's tourism industry. The findings of the study provide the impacts of Islamic tourism from the aspects of economics, socio-culture, politics and environment. Since the tourism industry itself is a profitable chain, it also helps to be as a weapon of poverty reduction to Muslim countries while preserving and conserving the Islamic socio-culture. Islamic tourism helps to stabilize the politic issues and provide less pollution to the environment.

Key words: islamic tourism, Malaysia, religious tourism, tourism impacts

Introduction

The tourism industry is well known with the visitation of tourists from one place to another. Travel and tourism relate to the activities whereby travellers having a trip outside their usual environment with the duration of less than one year (WTTC,2012). There are types of tourisms which are, mass tourism, sports tourism, heritage tourism, island tourism, adventure tourism and agriculture tourism. However, a new tourism product that's based on religious or spiritual attribute has emerge such as Islamic tourism through events, volunteering and community based initiatives. This requires understanding that leads into need of in-depth study on how it was perceived in terms of demand and supply.

The emergence of Islamic tourism has a significant relation to the tragedy of September 11, 2001 whereby the Middle East tourists started to change their travel flow from Western countries to other Muslim countries especially in Asia (Hanim, Redzuan, Hassan & Safar, 2010; Zulkifli, Salehudin, Maimunah, Zulhan & Kamaruzaman, 2009). Taking into advantage is Malaysia as a new destination to be visited by Middle East tourists (Hanim et al, 2010) and other Muslim tourists, this

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study trying to understand and explore the impacts of Islamic tourism to Malaysia's tourism industry as a review for further studies within this context.

Literature Review

Tourism Industry in Malaysia

In Malaysia, the Tourism Department has been established in 1985 to organize the movement of tourism industry in Malaysia. Since 1970's, Malaysia has emphasized on primary sectors which were focusing on productive industry. After the economic recession in the 1980's (Hanim et al, 2010), the government was trying to find new industry which can contribute to high revenue for long term economic development to the country. With that concern, the tourism industry has been recognized as a new industry that can contribute to high revenue. (Yusof, 1991) and Malaysia has established Ministry of Culture, Art and Tourism (MOCAT) on 1987. With the rapid growth in tourism industry in the globalization era as well to Malaysia context, Malaysia has divided this ministry into two different ministries, Ministry of Tourism and Ministry of Arts and Culture in 2004 so that the government can focus more on developing this industry to the higher level.

In the 10th Malaysia Plan, through the Economic Transformation Program (ETP), 12 National Key Economic Areas (NKEAs) have been identified in which tourism industry is one of the lists to leverage competitive advantages. This is due to the significance of contribution to the Gross National Income (GNI) and therefore, as an economic driver to the nation (ETP, 2011). The growth of tourism industry became faster and wider parallel with the advancement of the technologies. With that concern, Ministry of Tourism has established Islamic Tourism Centre (ITC) on February 2009 to support and focus on developing the strategies of Islamic tourism in Malaysia. The definition of Islamic tourism has given by ITC stated as below:

Islamic Tourism definition from ITC (2009):

“A sphere of interest or activity that is related to travel to explore Islamic history, arts, culture and heritage and/or to experience the Islamic way of life, in conformity with the Islamic faith”

While the Islamic Tourism definition from OIC, 2008 (Henderson, 2010b):

“Muslims tourists travelling to destinations where Islam is an official or dominant faith, often for reasons connected to religion”

Islamic Tourism Concept

Historically, Islamic tourism related to people who are travelling to Mecca for pilgrimage practices to perform one of the pillars in Islam, with an average of 8.6 million people visit the sacred place (Zamani & Henderson, 2010). In Islamic history, travelling by Prophet Muhammad to spread the Islamic teaching has encouraged Muslim tourists to travel to learn more about Islamic thought and civilization. Besides that, Islam also encourages its people to make a journey to one place to another to appreciate and educate person as stated in Holy Quran, Surah Al-Ankabut, verse 20 below:

“Travel through the earth and see how Allah did originate creation. So will Allah produce a later creation, for Allah has power over all things.”

However, the definition of the concept of Islamic tourism is still ambiguous and the ramification of the Islamic tourism terms itself is not clearly defined

(Henderson, 2010). The concept of Islamic Tourism also can be considered as *'ibadah* and *Da'wah* where tourists travel from one place to another place is being seen as a blessing from God by avoid any wrongdoings during the travel. Any other words it can also be translated as religious tourism, spiritual tourism and cultural tourism as well as the claims that characteristics of Islamic tourism itself are flexible, rational, simple and balanced (Laderlah, Rahman, Awang, & Man, 2011).

Furthermore, an Islamic tourism concept also brewed with economic concept, cultural concept and religion conservative concept (Steiner, 2010). Factors that need to be emphasized in promoting Muslim destinations include prayer times, Halal food destinations and travel tips on Muslim conducts (Hashim, Murphy, & Hashim, 2007) in achieving the goals of generic goal, spiritual goal and social goal (Din, 1989). Weidenfeld, 2009 indicated that the relationship between tourism and religion are competition, mutual influence, being complimentary and co-habitualness.

Muslim Countries

Most of the Muslim countries are undeveloped country (Din, 1989; Laderlah et al., 2011). There are a few factors why Muslim countries are not well-known in tourism and has less visitation from tourists. One of the main reasons is because Muslim countries usually involved in wars (Din, 1989) in the last few decades such as Gulf War in 1990 and continues instability of the nations in the Middle East. At the same time, there are less facilities and infrastructures provided in the Muslim countries (Din, 1989). The establishment of Organization of Islamic Conference on 25th September 1969 with 57 members of Muslim countries all around the world helps unify and build rapport among the countries in all aspects especially related to ensuring safeguard and protect the interests of the Muslim world (OIC, 2012)

Within this context, Malaysia is the most active country in developing and finding opportunities for Islamic tourism followed by Singapura in Southeast Asia region (Henderson, 2010). Malaysia put a lot of efforts in focusing the development of Islamic tourism and took initiatives to organize the first OIC Global Islamic Tourism Conference and Exhibition (Henderson, 2010). Besides that, Malaysia also took initiative to promote products and services based on Islamic lifestyle by organizing events such as Islamic Festival Fashion (IFF), Halal Showcase, Islamic MATTA Fair, and Islamic tourism conferences such as Regional Seminar on Islamic Tourism (ReSIT, 2012) and World Islamic Tourism Mart (WITM, 2012) organized by Islamic Tourism Centre, MATTA and Tourism Ministry.

In 2004, there are four Muslim countries received the highest total of tourists arrival which is Morocco, Egypt, Turkey and Malaysia (Bhuiyan, Siwar, Ismail, & Islam, 2011; Henderson, 2003; Laderlah et al., 2011). In Malaysia, the popular Muslim tourists are coming from the Middle East countries such as Jordan, Kuwait, Oman, United Arab Emirates, Syrian Arab Republic and Saudi Arabia (Hanim, Othman, Shaari & Safar, 2010). This shows that the relationship among Islamic countries is going closer not only for the general purposes such as education, but also beyond of it which is people starts to visit destinations which dominated by local people who has the same religion as theirs.

Facts And Figures

Table 1 shows the allocation for tourism industry provided by the government of Malaysia in each Malaysia Plans. The establishment of Tourism Development

Corporation (TDC) on 1972 has appeared in the first plan which was completed in 1975. The federal government has outlined the strategies for tourism planning and development in the National Five Year Plan by providing statistics and allocations for tourism development in every state in Malaysia (Marzuki, 2009). A significant number of funds have been allocated to develop tourism industry as one of the second largest revenue in the country. The fund has increased from 4th Malaysia Plan to the 5th Malaysia Plan which was RM140.50 million to RM533.50 million due to the awareness of high returns in tourism industry. The allocation in the 9th Malaysian Plan however provides more opportunities for tourism industry to grow and develop in order to reach the target of receiving 36 million tourist arrival and RM68 billion revenue to the country in 2020. The implementation of Visit Malaysia Year (VMY) in 1990, 1994, 2000, 2004 and 2007 as shown in Table 2 indicate the successful effort in increasing the number of the tourist to Malaysia.

Table 1: Government Allocation for Tourism Development

Five Years Plan	Allocation (RM in million)
1 st Malaysia Plan (1965 – 1970)	No allocation
2 nd Malaysia Plan (1971 – 1975)	8.59
3 rd Malaysia Plan (1976 – 1980)	27.19
4 th Malaysia Plan (1981 – 1985)	40.00
5 th Malaysia Plan (1986 – 1990)	140.50
6 th Malaysia Plan (1991 – 1995)	533.90
7 th Malaysia Plan (1996 – 2000)	605.50
8 th Malaysia Plan (2001 – 2005)	1009.00
9 th Malaysia Plan (2006 – 2010)	1847.90

Source: Marzuki (2010)

Table 2 below represent the trends of tourists arrival to Malaysia from year 1990 until 2011. Economic recession in 1991, 1996 and 1998 has contributed to negative growth in tourism industry. However, tourism proved itself as resilient industry and fast growing after recovering from economic uncertainty. For example, after the economic crisis in 1991, Malaysia implemented Visit Malaysia Year 1994 and this promotion contributed growth of 10.66 percent instead of -21.47 percent in 1991.

Table 2: Trends of Tourists Arrival in Malaysia

YEAR	ARRIVAL	GROWTH (%)	EVENTS
1990	7,445,908	53.64	Visit Malaysia Year 1990
1991	5,847,213	-21.47	Economic Crisis
1992	6,016,209	2.89	
1993	6,503,860	8.11	
1994	7,197,229	10.66	Visit Malaysia Year 1994
1995	7,468,749	3.77	
1996	7,138,452	-4.42	Asian Economic Crisis
1997	6,210,921	-12.99	Dengue, Cocksackie, Asian Econ Crisis, Haze
1998	5,550,748	-10.63	Asian Economic Crisis, JE, Negative Publicity
1999	7,931,149	42.88	MTA launched
2000	10,221,582	28.88	Visit Malaysia Year 2000

2001	12,775,073	24.98	911 bombing
2002	13,292,010	4.05	Bali Bombing
2003	10,576,915	-20.43	SARS / Bombing in Pakistan
2004	15,703,406	48.47	Tsunami (Dec 2004)
2005	16,431,055	4.63	
2006	17,546,863	6.79	
2007	20,972,822	19.52	Visit Malaysia Year 2007
2008	22,052,488	5.10	Visit Malaysia Year/Global economic crisis
2009	23,646,191	7.2	Global Economic Crisis and H1N1
2010	24,577,196	3.9	
2011	24,714,324	0.6	Earthquake in Japan/Flood in Thailand

Source: Malaysia Tourism Ministry (2012)

As shown in Table 3, Singapore is the highest number of tourists visiting Malaysia, followed by Indonesia and Thailand. In terms of visitation from the Muslim world, Malaysia is a leading destination in receiving number of tourists from the Middle East. At the same time, Singapore setting up of two visa processing agencies in Dubai 2008 to attract this lucrative market (Henderson, 2010). Nevertheless, Malaysia and Indonesia have been considered by Middle East tourist as substitute destinations (Hanim et al, 2010).

Table 3: Total of Tourists Arrival by Countries (2008 – 2011)

Countries	2008	2009	2010	2011
Singapore	11,003,492	12,733,082	13,042,004	13,372,647
Indonesia	2,428,605	2,405,360	2,506,509	2,134,381
Thailand	1,493,789	1,449,262	1,458,678	1,442,048
Brunei	1,085,115	1,061,357	1,124,406	1,239,404
China	949,864	1,019,756	1,130,261	1,250,536
India	550,738	589,838	690,849	693,056
Australia	427,076	533,382	580,695	558,411
Philippine	397,884	447,470	486,790	362,101
United Kingdom	370,591	435,091	429,965	403,940
Japan	433,462	395,746	415,881	386,974

Source: Malaysia Tourism Ministry (2012)

Tourism development can be designed to support the local economy growth and helping in reducing poverty with a substantial reorientation in favour of the poor (UNEP, 2011). Table 4 indicates the the breakdown of tourism income and pro-poor income (PPI) contribution in Malaysia. In case of accommodation, most income captures by the hotel owners with share 88.4 percent of tourism revenue and 7.3 percent share of pro-poor income. The highest income share, particularly in restaurants may reflect the initiatives from public and private to employ or involve locals in tourism business operations.

Table 4: Breakdown of Tourism Income and Pro-Poor Income (PPI) Contribution in Malaysia

	Share in Tourism Revenue (%)	Share of PPI (%)
Accommodation and hotel meals	88.4	7.3
Restaurants	4.4	47.09
Retail	3.7	27.09
Tours and excursions	3.0	18.8
Others	0.5	n.a

Source: Tourism Planning Research Group, TPRG (2009) in UNEP (2011)

World religion population represented in Table 5 below. The highest religion adherent is Christian with composed of 33.35% (of which Roman Catholic 16.83%, Protestant 6.08%, Orthodox 4.03%, Anglican 1.26%), while Muslim with 22.43%, followed by Hindu 13.78%, Buddhist 7.13%, Sikh 0.36%, Jewish 0.21%, Baha'i 0.11%, other religions 11.17%, non-religious 9.42%, atheists 2.04% (2009 est.) The growing Muslim religion in the world shows that Islamic tourism has high potential to success in the tourism industry as Muslim people started to travel to destinations which could provides comfortable Islamic lifestyle.

Table 5: World Population by Religion 2012

Religion	Percentage (%)
Christian	33.35
Muslim	22.43
Hindu	13.78
Buddhist	7.13
Sikh	0.36
Jewish	0.21
Baha'i	0.11
Other Religions	11.17

Source: World Demographic Profile (2012)

While Table 5 shows the current percentage of religion population in the world, Table 6 represents the estimation of the world Muslim population for 75 years starting from year 2000 until the year 2075. The data denotes significant growth for every ten years and up to 33.14 percent for the year of 2075.

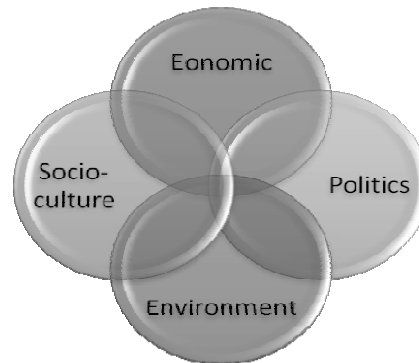
Table 6: Estimate of the World Muslim Population from 2000 – 2075

Year	World Population	Muslim (%)	Muslim Population
2000	6,150,471,087	22.72	1,397,526,691
2010	6,925,824,107	23.90	1,654,941,394
2020	7,798,921,234	25.13	1,959,770,095
2030	8,782,084,481	26.43	2,320,726,124
2040	9,889,189,225	27.79	2,748,211,429
2050	11,135,860,028	29.22	3,254,412,872
2075	14,984,127,319	33.14	4,966,253,886

Source: Houssain (2010)

Discussion

Islamic tourism can give high impacts on Malaysia's tourism industry from the perspectives of economic, social, environmental and politic. This is because Islamic tourism provides new peculiar and universal needs which will influence to the development of tourism industry in Malaysia.



Impacts on Economic

Tourism industry is the second largest sector which contributes to the Gross Domestic Products (GDP) of Malaysia. Thus, tourism is an activity which promises a profitable chain of economic opportunities (Othman, Mohamed & Aziz, 2012). There are increasing number of travel agencies starting to develop Muslim packages in Malaysia and even outside Malaysia. This will help to generate more income to Malaysia especially through tourist from the Middle East who well known with high spending power. Islamic tourism product can be as the medium to attract more tourists and becoming a powerful weapon to meet the attraction of visitors religious fulfilment (Bhuiyan et al., 2011) which will help to contribute to the development of the local economy and poverty reduction (UNEP, 2011)

Islamic tourism provides a lot of job opportunities for local people especially for those who are emphasizing the Islamic lifestyle. For example in hospitality, this industry usually hardly hiring workers who are wearing hijab especially in the hotel industry. Similarly, Islamic tourism has triggered the establishment of a Syariah compliance hotel where workers are free to wear hijab to serve their customers. The relationship between hosts and guests is conceived primarily for the blessing of God and other aspects are secondary (Zamani & Henderson, 2010). In 2011, travel and tourism industry generated 98,031,500 jobs with 3.3% of total employment around the world and expected to grow to 100,292,000 with 2.3% growth and 3.4% of total employment in 2012. With the existence of new tourism products such as Islamic tourism, the job employment for travel and tourism is expected in 2022 will account for 120,470,000 jobs directly will be achieved (WTTC, 2012)

Impacts on Social

Islamic tourism seems to act as a factor or medium to increase the relationship between Muslim people around the world. Leisure and mass tourism usually related to negative impacts to the local residents especially for social and cultural impact (Marzuki, 2012). However, the relationship of tourism and religion can reduce the risk of negative encounters between tourist and the host (Weidenfeld & Ron, 2008).

This is due to the claims that it provides less negative tourism impact to since it does not involve prohibited activities such as drinking alcohol, illegal spouse according to Shariah, and kissing openly in the public.

In contrast to cultural impact, Islamic tourism seems as a medium to preserve and conserve the Islamic civilizations and its monuments. For example, the visitation to Mosques and other places related to Islamic based theme development such as Islamic Civilization Park (TTI) will help to increase the appreciation of the Islamic architecture while conserving the history and civilization of Islam in Malaysia.

Impact on Politics

The advantages of easy and reachable destination between OIC countries also play its role since most of them located within six to seven hours flying distance between Southeast Asia, in comparison to Europeans and Americans (Henderson, 2010). This helps both regions to cooperate each other in all aspects. This contributes to the political stability externally and also positive economic growth for both regions due to plenty of flights between Muslim countries has been introduced.

The development of Islamic tourism denotes that Malaysia is a Muslim country which has put a lot of efforts to develop Islamic tourism products including new Islamic theme attractions such as an Islamic Civilization Park (TTI). Besides that, to balance the needs and demands of mass tourists, Malaysia also developed the lavishness tourism products for them. In this context, it indicates that politics in Malaysia have emphasized high tolerance and consideration to balance the mass tourism and Islamic tourism to its tourists. As Muslim country which dominated by more than 60 percent of Muslims, Malaysia can be a role model of Muslim countries in Asian for the stability of development in all aspects.

Impacts on Environment

Islamic tourism contributes less environmental impacts since this product usually related to the place with controlled activities such as visitation to mosques, pertaining Halal food and high consideration to cleanliness since Islam taught is very particular about it. Since the activities of Islamic tourism consist the appreciation of God's creations, less vandalism will happen to the environment due to the belief that the environment is also the creatures of God that need to be conserved and preserved.

Conclusion

Islamic tourism is a new trend of tourism product which seen as a new contributor to Malaysia economic especially in the tourism industry. The emergence of Islamic tourism around the world has triggered Malaysia to develop more strategies and plans to provide sufficient products and facilities to Muslim tourists. Malaysia has large opportunities to develop Islamic tourism due to Islam is the official religion of the country and taking advantage to the stability of politics and economics. Furthermore, Islamic tourism can be considered as sustainable tourism because it contributes positive impacts to environmental, preserving and conserving the socio-culture value while generating income to local people, whereby mostly local people serve the tourists with Islamic value considerations. Thus, the study of this paper would assist to give some review and knowledge theoretically and practically to the public and private sectors in implementing the Islamic tourism strategies successfully with the

consideration of economic, socio-culture, politics and environmental aspects. The study also contributes a review concept of tourism impacts of new tourism product, which is a religious tourism called as Islamic tourism within the Malaysia context.

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Preservation Of Cultural Heritage In Malaysia: An Insight Of The National Heritage Act 2005

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The National Heritage Act 2005, the only specific statute on the preservation of cultural heritage is seen to have given a narrow definition and scope of cultural heritage; unlike the broad scope of cultural heritage given by authors. The differentiation between 'Heritage' and 'National Heritage' in the National Heritage Act 2005 is provided in the Act and due to limited literatures on the legal aspects of the administration of cultural heritage it is timely that the administration of cultural heritage is disclosed. Apart from focusing on the issue of scope of cultural heritage in Malaysia, this paper highlights the significant role of the Commissioner of Cultural Heritage in the Act and emphasises that it should be properly exercised. The absence of archaeological impact assessment and the kind of protection provided to the listed item or objects in the Register are also points highlighted in this paper. The paper concludes with the recommendation that Malaysia should move towards a more active participation in various international conventions relating to preservation of cultural heritage.

Key words: cultural heritage, national heritage, intangible cultural heritage, conventions

Introduction

During the Eighth Malaysian Plan period, the development of culture was promoted to enhance national identity while strengthening national unity, harmony and integration. Besides, various aspects of culture were developed to offer a myriad of products and services that supported the growth of the tourism industry. Greater emphasis was given to the development of culture, arts and heritage when the Ministry of Information, Communications and Culture was set up in 2004. The Ministry has a role to consolidate policy and programmes that further promote Malaysia's culture, arts and heritage as well as to formulate new strategies to make the arts more accessible to the masses. Cultural heritage have been promoted as a source of economic growth. In the Ninth Malaysian Plan, the National Heritage Act 2005 (hereinafter referred to as the NHA 2005) was enacted to give protection and preserve various tangible and intangible cultural heritage and has been promoted for the tourism industry. RM442.2 million was allocated for culture, arts and heritage programmes, where 63 percent was used for the preservation and conservation of cultural heritage.

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Overview of National Heritage Act 2005

Preservation of heritage came under a joint jurisdiction between Federal and State Government. This is pursuant to an amendment made in the Parliamentary Session of January 2005 where the Ninth Schedule of the Federal Constitution was amended to include the preservation of heritage in the Concurrent List. The effect is that, either the Parliament or the State Legislative Assembly may make law relating to heritage.

The prevailing law passed by the Parliament relating to heritage is the NHA. Before the NHA was gazetted on 31st of December 2005 and came into effect on 1st of March 2006, only the Antiquities Act 1976 (Act 168) was adopted for the conservation and preservation of National Heritage relating to treasure trove, monuments and cultural heritage in Malaysia. The Treasure Trove Act (Act 542) is also related to the discovery of treasure trove but its implementation fell under the jurisdiction of the State Government. The NHA covers various matters on heritage that include but not limited to intangible cultural heritage.

Scope of Cultural Heritage

Definition of cultural heritage varies from writers to writers. One defines it as a corpus of a material signs, either artistic or symbolic which is handed on by the past to each culture.[1] Others view that cultures are diverse throughout nations and it is seemingly differs from one state law to another. It may be composed not only those elements with most impact being declared as items of cultural interest, but also of all those items which possess the cultural values determined by the law.[2] The Canadian law further provides that heritage is a reality, a possession of the community, and a rich inheritance that may be passed on, which invites recognition and participation from the public.[3] Moreover, UNESCO defines intangible cultural heritage as the practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skills – as well as the instruments, objects, artefacts and cultural spaces associated therewith – that communities, groups and, in some cases, individuals recognize as part of their cultural heritage.[4] This intangible cultural heritage, transmitted from generation to generation, is constantly recreated by communities and groups in response to their environment, their interaction with nature and their history, and provides them with a sense of identity and continuity, thus promoting respect for cultural diversity and human creativity.[5]

Although cultural heritage is recognized under section 2 of the NHA, unlike various definitions of cultural heritage discussed above, cultural heritage under the NHA is confined to heritage sites, heritage objects, underwater cultural heritage and intangible cultural heritage which are confined to forms of expressions, sounds and music, dances and performances. It would appear that the wider scope of cultural heritage discussed earlier is not covered in the NHA. The Minister under the NHA may, by order published in the Gazette, declare any heritage site, heritage object, underwater cultural heritage listed in the Register or any living person as a National Heritage [section 67(1)] and the minister has declared living heritage treasures under the NHA.

It would seem that social practices, for example, rituals and festive are not really the protected cultural heritage under this NHA. This explains why the living heritage, for instance villages which as a whole having heritage value would not qualify listed items of heritage under the NHA.

Administration of Cultural Heritage

The NHA vests powers in the authorities to conserve Malaysian built and natural heritage, tangible and intangible cultural heritage, and traditional, arts and culture and other manifestations such as heritage food and heritage persons. The Minister is responsible for the policies needed for the conservation and preservation of heritage. Besides the policies, the Minister is responsible for any statement or directives with regard to the same in respect of any matter, business, strategy or conduct. However, it should be noted that the Minister shall not interfere with the matter if it falls under the power or jurisdiction of a State unless the relevant State Authority has been consulted.[6]

The name of the Ministry gradually changes from time to time. The current Ministry of Information, Communications and Culture was previously known as the Ministry of Culture, Art and Heritage. The current Minister has made a lot of contributions in bringing forward Malaysia's cultural heritage into the UNESCO listings especially after the coming of the NHA. Malaysia has become one of the World Heritage Committee since then. As a deputy Chairman of the Committee, the Minister suggested that it is time for Malaysia to become a signatory to several conventions such as the 1972 Convention.

Section 4 of the NHA also recognises the establishment of Commissioner for Heritage. The Commissioner is also known as the Director General for Heritage of the Department of Heritage under the Ministry of Information, Communications and Culture. Section 6 of the NHA lays down various functions of the Commissioner including but not limited to Malaysia's cultural heritage.

Firstly, the Commissioner has to determine the designation of sites, registration of objects and underwater cultural heritage. The success of the Commissioner is evident in the designation of Lenggong Valley as a result of discovery and preservation of Perak Man in 1991. Secondly, the Commissioner establishes and maintains the Register and to determine and specify the categories of heritage to be listed in the Register. In this aspect, the Commissioner is to advise the Minister in deciding 'National Heritage' and 'Heritage' under the NHA. 'National heritage' is subscribed by the Minister and 'Heritage' is subscribed by the Commissioner. Section 67(3) of the NHA provides for grounds that the Minister may consider in determining certain object as National Heritage.

The Minister may inscribe a particular cultural heritage as 'National Heritage' on several grounds.[7] They are historical importance, association with or relationship to Malaysian history, involving social or cultural associations, having potential to educate, illustrate or provide further scientific investigation in relation to Malaysian cultural heritage, important to exhibit a richness, diversity or unusual integration of features, rarity or uniqueness of the natural heritage, tangible or intangible cultural heritage or any other matter which is relevant to determination of cultural heritage significance. The Commissioner also supervises and oversees the conservation, preservation, restoration, maintenance, promotion, exhibition and accessibility of heritage.

The Commissioner also maintains documents relating to any excavation, exploration, finding or search for heritage pursuant to the same section. The Commissioner also establishes and maintains liaison and co-operation with the State Authority in respect of conservation and preservation of heritage matters. One example is that after the Lenggong Valley is listed as one of the World Heritage Site, the Department of National Heritage works with the Perak State Authority to ensure

continuous development of the valley to attract tourist, thus, brings economic returns to the country.

The Commissioner advises and co-ordinates with the local planning authority, the Council and other bodies and entities at all levels for the purpose of safeguarding, promoting and dealing with heritage. An example is when the Commissioner conducts workshops, exhibitions, programmes and activities for Malaysian people about Malaysian heritage such as the performance in the Puteri Saadong theatre have inculcate youngsters interest in the story of Puteri Saadong. The tasks of the Commissioner extends to promote and regulate the best standards and practices are applied in the conservation and preservation of heritage. These standards have to be met because maintenance is always one of the hardest tasks. The Commissioner also bears the responsibility to advise the Minister with regard to any matter in respect of conservation and preservation of heritage. Section 6 also provides that the Commissioner shall perform such other functions under the NHA as the Minister may assign from time to time and to do all such things as may be incidental to or consequential upon the discharge of his powers and functions.

Administration of heritage in Malaysia also involves the establishment of the National Heritage Council. Part IV of the NHA provides for the establishment of the National Heritage Council pursuant to section 8. The functions of the Council are firstly, to advise the Minister and the Commissioner on all matters relating to heritage, and due administration and enforcement of laws relating to heritage; and to advise the Minister and the Commissioner on any matter referred to it by the Minister or the Commissioner. However, it should be noted that paragraph 2 of section 9 does not make it compulsory for the Minister and the Commissioner to act upon the advice of the Council.

Members of the Council consists of a Chairman who is appointed by the Minister, Secretary General of the Ministry of Information, Communications and Culture or his representative, the Director General of Town and Country Planning or his representative, the Director General of the Museums and Antiquity Department or his representative, the Commissioner and not more than six other members. Of all the committees involved in the conservation and preservation of cultural heritage, the Commissioner seems to have the most significant roles.

Selection Process Of Cultural Heritage

The NHA provides that the Commissioner has the responsibility to declare any object as having a cultural heritage significant.[8] The Commissioner is given the power to declare in the gazette any heritage object having cultural heritage significance. The Commissioner is given the power to register any heritage object having cultural heritage significance in the Register.[9] The Commissioner is also given the power to cause it to be published in the Gazette and local newspaper. The Commissioner under the NHA has the jurisdiction in this matter except that consent must be given by the owner of that particular object.[10] It should be emphasized that the wide discretion of the Commissioner should not be misused.

It is viewed that not all cultural heritage of Malaysia are listed in the Register unless the Commissioner and the public is actively involved in identifying certain objects as having cultural heritage significance. It is also viewed that the NHA, in particular section 49 is vague as to the roles of the community to inform or propose to the Commissioner about heritage objects. Besides, the NHA is silent as to the criteria of listing an object as of having cultural heritage significance as compared to those

being listed as National Heritage. The Commissioner is also required to discuss with the State Authority on what is a 'Heritage' if it involves both federal and state jurisdiction.

Public Participation

Community members can immediately notify the Commissioner or other relevant officers of the district where the object was discovered, and deliver the object to the Commissioner or other relevant officers.[11] This provision discusses the role of the community members that is to identify items that have cultural heritage significance and inform the Commissioner for further action.

The public has a role in preserving Malaysia's cultural. If a person is recognised that a person is the owner or in possession of the cultural heritage object including the intangible cultural heritage, this person must work together with the relevant bodies to develop, inter alia, research on it with the help from the Commissioner for Heritage.[12]

As mentioned earlier, the Minister may inscribe any object to be a National heritage pursuant to section 67. Here, the public has a role to participate in nominating any object having cultural heritage significant to be declared as a National Heritage.[13] However, these provisions are only a persuasive provision as the NHA is silent as to the obligatory duty of the public to safeguard cultural heritage. Hence, the public may choose not to nominate certain heritage which is important to the nation. This is a disadvantage to Malaysia's progress in promoting and preserving its cultural heritage at a macro and international level. It is suggested that there is a provision to make it obligatory for the public to participate in the preservation of cultural heritage. The obligation provision should also include the public participation regarding the discovery of Underwater Cultural Heritage.[14]

It is also suggested that other matters that need to be included in the NHA are detailed provisions regarding the qualification of the Members of the Council for Heritage, the Commissioner, members of the National Heritage Department and any other person or body who are having a direct involvement in safeguarding Malaysia's cultural heritage. This would ensure that preservation of cultural heritage is under the jurisdiction of qualified persons.

Absence of Archaeological Impact Assessment Provisions

The inclusion of archaeological impact assessment (AIA) study has yet to be made mandatory in all planning projects in Malaysia. Absence of such criteria has caused lost of archaeological objects and sites as evident in the formation of *Tasik Kenyir*, Terengganu. Before the creation of the *Tasik Kenyir*, there were probably several caves accessible and some were of archaeological importance which could contribute to the tourism industry. However when the area was flooded, most of the caves were lost underwater and among others, *Batu Tok Bidan cave* in *Gunung Bewah* was one of those.

Unfortunately, the preservation of cultural heritage is questioned as there is absence of archaeological impact assessment as a criterion in the development of projects as can be seen in the practices in many development projects even after the introduction of the NHA. It should be noted that the NHA is also silent on the criteria of AIA.

Effect of Listing of Cultural Heritage

Various departments, agencies, associations and non-governmental organizations are already putting their effort to inculcate the value or at least to inform the very existence of intangible cultural heritage among Malaysians and take the initiative to promote it through various medium to ensure it will last forever.

The NHA illustrates the involvement of various authorities in the conservation management plan.[15] The conservation management plan is prepared by the Commissioner with due consultation from the Council for Heritage. This plan must be submitted to the State Authority or the relevant local planning authority. The Commissioner must give advice and coordinate with the relevant authority in implementing the Conservation management plan.

However, the law is silent as to the kind of protection provided to the listed item or objects in the Register. It is viewed that, it is important that the NHA make it mandatory for the relevant authorities to take further steps or initiatives to sustain the listed item or objects in whatever mechanisms possible.

International Participation

The current Minister has been appointed as the Deputy Chairman to the World Heritage Committee from 2011 until 2015. This shows an openness of Malaysia to be actively involved in preserving and promoting cultural heritage at world level. On the 7th December 1988, Malaysia ratified the Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage 1972 (the 1972 Convention) which is also known as World Heritage Convention. Malaysia has become one of the State Parties since then. State Parties are countries which have adhered to the 1972 Convention. Hence, Malaysia agrees to identify and nominate properties on its national territory to be considered for inscription on the World Heritage List. UNESCO provides that when a State Party nominates a property, it gives details of how a property is protected and provides a management plan for its upkeep. States Parties are also expected to protect the World Heritage values of the properties inscribed and are encouraged to report periodically on their condition. This convention only focuses on the tangible heritage. It is viewed that intangible cultural heritage has no place in the 1972 Convention. It should be noted that Malaysia is yet to ratify other international conventions for example the Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage 2003, the Safeguarding of Traditional Culture and Folklore Convention 1989, and the Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity of 2001.

Conclusion

Though the enactment of NHA is a good sign of preservation of cultural heritage in Malaysia, however, there issues highlighted in this paper clearly indicate that, it is timely that the NHA be revised. Through the adoption of various guidelines in various conventions regarding the preservation of cultural heritage, it is believed that the NHA can be upgraded towards achieving the goal of preservation of cultural heritage. Hence, Malaysia should move towards a more active participation in various international conventions relating to preservation of cultural heritage.

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Notes

- [1] Definition of Cultural heritage. References to Documents in History. Selected by J. Jokilehto. (Originally for ICCROM, 1990). Revised for CIF: 15 January 2005. Page 4-5.
- [2] Law of the Cultural Heritage of Andorra.
- [3] 1982, ICOMOS Canada (Quebec) / Charter for the Preservation of Quebec's Heritage (Deschambault Declaration). (Quebec Association for the Interpretation of the National Heritage, Committee on Terminology, July 1980)
- [4] Article 2 of the 2003, UNESCO Convention (Intangible Cultural Heritage). Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage. The “intangible cultural heritage”, as defined in paragraph 1 above, is manifested inter alia in the following domains: (a) oral traditions and expressions, including language as a vehicle of the intangible cultural heritage; (b) performing arts; (c) social practices, rituals and festive events; (d) knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe; (e) traditional craftsmanship.
- [5] Article 2 of the 2003, UNESCO Convention (Intangible Cultural Heritage). Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage. The “intangible cultural heritage”, as defined in paragraph 1 above, is manifested inter alia in the following domains: (a) oral traditions and expressions, including language as a vehicle of the intangible cultural heritage; (b) performing arts; (c) social practices, rituals and festive events; (d) knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe; (e) traditional craftsmanship.
- [6] Section 3 of the NHA
- [7] Section 67 of the NHA
- [8] Section 49 (1) of the NHA. It should be noted that ‘object’ includes intangible cultural heritage defined in section 2 of the NHA.
- [9] Section 49 of the NHA
- [10] Section 49 (2) of the NHA
- [11] Section 47 of the NHA
- [12] Section 60 of the NHA
- [13] Section 68 of the NHA
- [14] Section 61 of the NHA
- [15] Section 46 of the NHA

Discussing The Conceptual Framework Of Cultural Landscape In Taiwan

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This study aims to develop a measureable tool to identify the feature of Taiwan cultural landscape. In-depth interviews from ten scholars were first conducted to design a questionnaire which contained a seven-dimension measurement model of identifying cultural landscape, and then 808 local participants were asked to response this questionnaire for gathering the quantitative data in four cultural significant sites. Exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were applied to confirm the structure of the supposed measurement model from the questionnaire data. The result of factor analysis showed that the confirmed measurement model was less complicated than the supposed measurement model. The cultural feature dimension of cultural landscape was composed of three factors which are environment element, human evidence and traditional custom. And the place meaning dimension of cultural landscape contained cultural atmosphere, life dependence and affective identity. This finding revealed the evidence that local participants' perception to the feature of cultural landscape was very different from experts' understanding of the composition of cultural landscape in Taiwan. It also hints the difficulty of conservation for cultural landscape was local people's disregards to their cultural landscape since these features didn't have any physical connection with local people's daily life. This study build a 16-item scale measuring cultural landscape from the perspective of local people in Taiwan, which provide practitioners a reliable and valid analytical tool to assess cultural landscape. And it also offered government agencies a useful foundation to make conservation strategies with local people for cultural landscape.

Key words: in-depth interview, cultural feature, place meaning, cultural process

Introduction

Taiwan, known as Formosa, is a developed district with dense population and high urbanization. Although a small island district, it showed a successful experience of economic development and successful democratization over the last three decades.

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Due to its unique geo-strategic position in Asia, Taiwan has been occupied successively by the Holland, Spain, China, Japan, and finally ruled by the contemporary authorities, and therefore it embraces diverse land use and architecture styles. A variety of ethnic groups, such as Fujian, Hakka, the aborigines and other Chinese immigrants have been living in this area. Their religious beliefs and cultural customs changed over time due to political, cultural and economic conflicts, and finally evolved into the unique culture compared with other Chinese-speaking districts. This unique contemporary Taiwanese culture represents abstracted and modified Chinese culture in the ideas of nationalism and self-identification as a result of the long separation from China.

Compared with the modern lifestyle in the urban place, the rural settlements, agricultural techniques, local food, clothing, and the religious tradition represent Taiwan's cultural characteristic that respects nature and lands. However, the huge profit from property development renders it increasingly hard for local residents to preserve their rural land and culture especially at the increasing rural-urban interface. Faced with the threat of losing the distinct rural landscape and cultural heritage, scholars began to call for government steps to address the issue. Under such circumstances, the Council of Cultural Affairs in Taiwan government finally extended the law articles of preserving cultural landscape such as the categories of cultural landscape, the registrations procedure and financial subsidy policies into the Cultural Heritage Conservation Law in 2005. Many local cultural affair department attempted to register their culturally significant rural places to the official cultural landscapes lists in Taiwan one after the other following the announcing of renewed the Cultural Heritage Conservation Law. There have been thirty-four cultural significant sites which were registered into the lists of Taiwan's cultural landscape by 2011. However, the local cultural affairs departments still have to overcome lots of difficulty for conserving the rural cultural landscapes in Taiwan.

From the point view of administrate, the main challenge is the unclear description of cultural landscape. In the registration procedure, the local government's cultural department has to review and evaluate every application for cultural landscape registration. The registration activities usually bring the economic benefit of tourism and investment from government. Thus local advocacy groups or politicians might make efforts to persuade the government agency to accept their applications of the registration even though these sites may not meet the basic criteria of cultural landscape or it could not be sustained well by local people. As a result, it will be difficult for the government agencies to assess whether specific sites could be nominated as cultural landscapes or not under the indefinite description of cultural landscape from the Cultural Heritage Conservation Law.

Above all, this study has two goals. The first goal is to explore and conceptualize the compositions of Taiwan's cultural landscape by interviewing scholars who in cultural landscape research field. The second goal is to develop a measurement model for cultural landscapes. The research results are expected to provide an important reference to promote the understanding of how it sustain cultural landscapes with local stakeholders at the rural-urban interface in developing or developed democratic countries facing increasing population and decreasing environmental resources. This is the first study to use quantitative and qualitative research methods to explore and confirm the cultural landscape measurement model in the cultural landscape research field.

Theoretical Background

Studying Cultural Landscape as a Multidimensional Framework

The importance of context within the parameters of the concept of setting in the practice of conserving cultural heritage in changing townscapes and landscapes was stressed by China in the 2005 International ICOMOS conference held in Xi'an. The Hoi An Protocols argued that the four dimensions of authenticity used to interpret culturally significant places are: 1. Location and Setting, 2. Form and Design, 3. Use and Function, and 4. Immaterial Qualities. It underscores the inter-relatedness of practices for the conservation of the physical heritage sites, the intangible heritage and cultural landscapes because the setting is not just about physical protection and may have cultural or social dimension (Taylor, 2009).

Some studies have also interpreted cultural landscape as a multidimensional conceptual framework that can be interpreted using some qualitative research methods. Tallbull, Deaver, and La Point (1996) described the physical environment, spiritual environment, cultural history and ethnohistory of the Blue Earth Hills cultural landscape using the local American Indian perspective. Sinha (2006) detailed the essential dimensions of the cultural landscape of Pavagadh and their relationships. These five dimensions included history, topographic symbolism, mythology, landscape of pilgrimage, and landscape experience. Taylor (2009) generalized a cultural construct which included meaning, value, spatial, and political dimension, and used it to interpret the cultural landscape. Solymosi (2011) systematically described nine categories of cultural landscape characteristics, which are: 1. Geography, 2. Site conditions, 3. History, 4. Land use, 5. Structure, 6. Economy, 7. Policy, 8. Cultural and 9. Perception.

In the past two decades, scholars are devoted to developing distinct and systematic approaches for clarifying the composition of cultural landscapes. Related studies have attempted to emphasize the importance of tangible and intangible characteristics in cultural landscape sites (Janssen & Knippenberg, 2008; Marignani, Rocchini, Torri, Chiarucci, & Maccherini, 2008; Selman, 2004; Solymosi, 2011; Stephenson, 2008; Tallbull et al., 1996; Walker & Ryan, 2008). But there is limited statistical evidence that tangible and intangible characteristics are both the core composition of cultural landscape. This needs to be verified, especially in contemporary rural areas which face the challenge of local conservation affairs. As a result, it is necessary to identify the pivotal dimensions and components of cultural landscapes. Because different cultural values and knowledge between the west and the east can affect the complex interactions in landscapes and the "cultural product of process" (Taylor, 2009).

Research Method

This study was conducted in two stages. The first stage was to develop a measure instrument of studying cultural landscape. The second stage was to examine the reliability and validity of the measurement model for cultural landscape. The third stage was to confirm the causal relationship and mediating effects among these dimensions of the cultural landscape measurement model.

In the first stage, information was gathered from interview manuscripts, and these items were eliminated from the original questionnaire in order to develop the first brief questionnaire. In the second stages, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and

confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to verify the factor structures of the revised version.

The Development of Primary Measure Instrument

This study aimed to develop a measurement instrument for studying cultural landscapes on the rural-urban fringe, particularly in the places with high levels of urbanization such as Taiwan. This research uses qualitative methods to develop a conceptual framework for studying cultural landscapes in Taiwan. The in-depth interview approach was used to explore the dimensions and components of cultural landscapes. The existing literature and analyses of interview transcripts were used to collect the items in the original questionnaire.

First, ten scholars who have worked on cultural landscapes research were asked to respond to the questions about the context of cultural landscapes. The concept of cultural feature and place meaning dimension resembled the components or elements of cultural landscape in some studies (Atik, Danaci, & Erdogan, 2010; Brabyn, 2009; Degraft-Hanson, 2005; Eben Saleh, 2000; Scazzosi, 2004; Selman & Knight, 2006; Shipley & Feick, 2009; Sinha, 2006; Solymosi, 2011) and it included seven categories, which are space district, geographical feature, living space, monument, myth, traditional custom, and festival.

An original questionnaire was designed as a survey instrument under the conceptual construct of studying cultural landscape mentioned above, and the items of the measure instrument were gathered from existing literature on cultural landscape research as well as the qualitative data collected through these interviews of locals and scholars. The written questions of cultural features asked respondents to rate the value that they place on cultural landscapes components. All questions used a five-point Likert-style scale which ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

In order to develop a brief and efficient version of the instrument, a pre-test of the original questionnaire was conducted involving 73 respondents. The questionnaire was sent to the local community members and residents in the rural zones where there are some famous cultural tourism destinations. The reliability and item analysis was used to reduce the number of items in the questionnaire in order to construct reliable measurement scales. The data was first examined for outliers and extreme values, and the distribution of normality was checked. An inspection of skewness and kurtosis results indicated that their values were in the acceptable range (-1 to +1), lending support for the normality in the distribution of data (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). Following this procedure, each scale was subjected to reliability analysis to control the internal consistency of the scale items. After these procedures, the formal questionnaire with three dimensions of studying cultural landscape was developed. The cultural feature dimension refers to the characteristic of cultural landscape (21 items ,see Table 1), and the place meaning dimension refers to the characteristic of cultural landscape (27 items ,see Table 2)

Table1: The item of cultural feature dimension in cultural landscape

Item	
1.	The local geology and terrain such as Valley, coast, rock
2.	The local water bodies such as water source, stream or pond
3.	The local specific ethnicity residents such as aboriginals and Hakka people
4.	The local living space such as settle, meeting place and pavilions
5.	The local Religious spaces such as Temple Square.....

Item	
6.	Production place such as gardens, farms, flower fields, oil fields and cane fields
7.	The local public facilities such as barns, sugar factory and Irrigated System
8.	Traditional transport facilities such as rail, sugar cars and cable cars
9.	The memorial space such as memorial stone, monuments and arches
10.	The local legends are the key elements of cultural landscape
11.	The local historical events.
12.	The traditional land use and special patterns(like Feng Shui).
13.	The traditional production method and skills
14.	The cultural rules such as traditional class level and the institution of marriage
15.	The traditional and local food
16.	The traditional dress and clothes.
17.	The local language, accent and tone
18.	The local ideas and values
19.	The local Cultural and aesthetic preferences.
20.	The local religious practices.
21.	The local ballad opera

Table2: The item of place meaning dimension in cultural landscape

Item	
1.	This place is more beautiful than other place
2.	There is a special feeling about the place
3.	The cultural image of the place is different from other similar cultural place...
4.	This place is of great ecologic value
5.	I am very familiar with the history and culture of the place
6.	I can easily identify any location of the place
7.	This place makes me remember the past wonderful memory easily.
8.	This place is full of historic meaning to me
9.	The resources provided from the place make me feel that it is the best place to me.
10.	I prefer here more than other place
11.	I can't find other place which is better than the place
12.	I like to stay here more than other place.
13.	This place makes me feel very comfortable.
14.	I will feel regret if I can't live here
15.	I feel that I am one of the place
16.	I strongly recognize everything of this place
17.	I felt knowing myself in this place
18.	This place provides deeper impression to me than any other place
19.	I am proud of this place
20.	I felt very proud of everything of the place
21.	I felt very proud of living in the place for a long time
22.	I have a special emotional feeling on this place
23.	I have a strong sense of belonging on this place
24.	I have a strong emotional attachment on this place
25.	I can find spirit bailment from this place
26.	If I would like to escape from real world, I will come to here
27.	Many of my friends like this place very much

Study Sites Selection

Because most of the culturally significant sites in Taiwan’s rural-urban fringe have faced a challenge of the necessity to continue the traditional lifestyle, land use and other cultural customs. Some of these places tried to maintain the cultural features by developing local tourism, some might try to cooperate with government for sustaining unique cultural treasures, and others may tend to alter their traditional land use and landscapes for the reason that they would like to catch up with the level of urban economic development. For obtaining as complete a presentation of Taiwan’s rural areas with magnificent cultural landscape as possible, four regions representing concrete examples of rural landscapes and culturally significant destinations in Taiwan were selected(Fig 1): The Erjie Canal community, Shengxing Station with the nearby market area and community, Lu-Kang historical area, and Neipu old street settlement. The criteria for the selection were indicators developed in this study, in addition to the following reasons:

- Sites which represent Taiwan’s cultural heritage in four very different cultural feature and ethnic settings: The Erjie Canal community is a Fujian ethnic settlement with historical irrigation system and its rural landscape. Shengxing Station with nearby market area is a Hakka hillside ethnic place with famous tourism attraction such as Hakka building and food. Lu-Kang historical area is a Fujian ethnic settlement with famous traditional settlement space and local food. Neipu old street settlement is a Hakka ethnicity settlement with traditional living style.
- Sites which represent Taiwan’s cultural heritages at different stages of development: Traditional agriculture still affords a little source of income in the Erjie Canal settlement and Neipu street settlement, whereas in Shengxing Station with nearby market area and Lu-Kang historical area they had lost this role and has become a pastime. Actually, many residents from these four sites do face the dilemma between conservation and development. Indeed, Shengxing Station with nearby market area and Lu-Kang historical area have already become famous cultural tourism destination where there are just little agricultural activity.

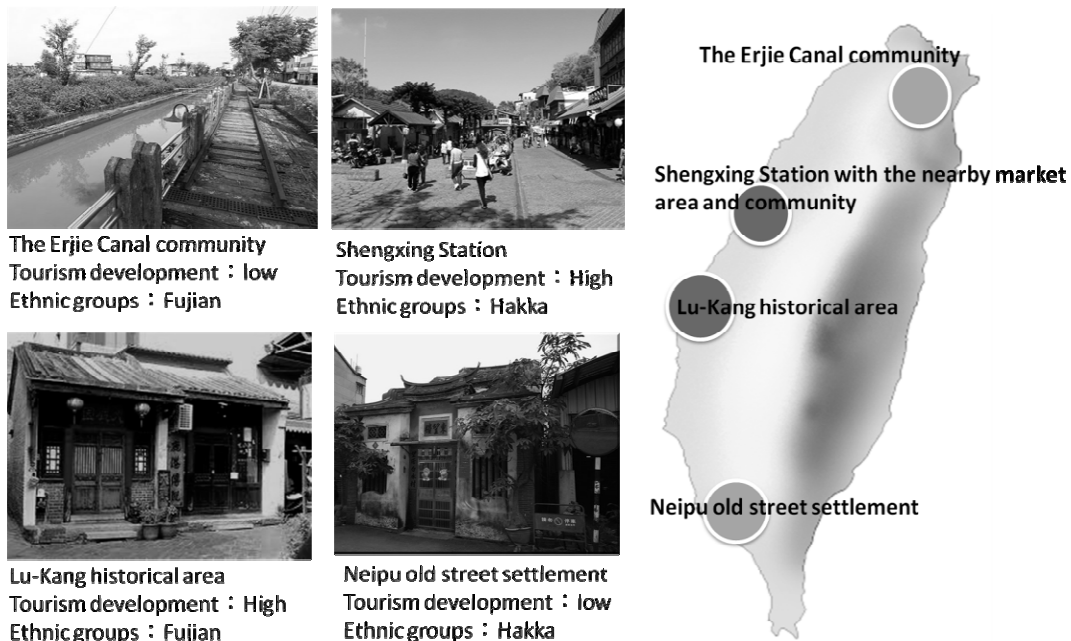


Figure 1: The Study sites

Survey Sample and Participants

The related work regarding sample size for factor analysis is that more participants led to better result. Gorsuch(1983) mentioned that the preferred sample size for factor analysis is at least 200 participants . Reviewed literature suggested SEM is a larger sample technique because small samples tend to yield unreliable results (Hoyle, 1995; Lei & Wu, 2007). Lei and Wu (2007) further suggested a sample size of preferably no less than 400 to obtain significant estimates. Another general rule of thumb of 5-20 participants per parameter estimated is commonly used to get trustworthy results in CFA (Kline, 2005; Lei & Wu, 2007).

There was not a complete sampling frame available to undertake a probability method of sampling for both residents and visitors. A convenient sampling method was there chosen. This study conducted a questionnaire survey in four sites from May to July, 2011. In total, 850 questionnaires were returned. Of the returned surveys, 42 questionnaires were eliminated for not replying to the questions of studying cultural landscape completely, and 808 cases were coded for data analysis, yielding an effective response rate 89.8% .Among these 808 responses, 393 were males (48.6%) and 415 were females (51.4%), reflecting similar gender proportions of the gender population in Taiwan reported in 2011.

Data Analysis

This study proposed that these concepts, abstracted from the opinions of interviewees, have extended some contents of theoretical construct in the past studies or theories, and these proposals still need to be proven by statistic evidence. As a result, this analysis focused on the development of measurement model and exploration of causality among these three dimensions in studying cultural landscape. For these reason, the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to identify the factors of every dimensions in cultural landscape, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to confirm the structure of the measurement model.

In this study, the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conduct to three dimensions (cultural feature, place meaning, and cultural process) of cultural landscape for evaluating the factor structure and primary measure instrument. The principal axis factor analysis was then used for identifying groupings or categories of every dimensions of cultural landscape within the data, as determined by factor loadings (>0.5). Scales of factors were constructed using these factor analysis results.. After conducting EFA, all sample analysis was used to carry out CFA for developing a measurement model. The SEM procedure was then to explore the causal relationship among the unobserved constructs in this study that were set up on the basis of prior research and theory. All Statistical analyses in this study were carried out using SPSS18.0 and SIMPLIS8.51.

Result

Analyzing the Cultural Feature Dimension of Cultural Landscape

First, an exploratory analysis was conducted with the 21 culture feature items to identify the underlying factors in the cultural feature dimension. Principal Axis Factor (PAF) was used for factor extraction, and the promax rotation with an oblique rotation was applied. Consequently, a cut-off point of factor loading was considered to be 0.50

or greater to select meaningful items (Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986). After this procedure, two items which are worship place (C5) and food (C15) were deleted for the reason of low factor loading score (<.5).

Three culture feature factors were identified in the ideal solution (KMO=.90; variance explained = 57.06%; Cronbach's α =.92). All items of cultural feature dimension were fit to three factors. The essential element factor (CF1) includes geographic feature, body of water, ethnic groups and habitat. (Cronbach's α =.78). The human evidence factor (CF2) consists of the following items: production place, public facility, transportation, monument, myth, history, land use rule, traditional agricultural skill, and traditional institution. (Cronbach's α =.88). The "traditional custom" factor (CF3) is formed by clothing, dialect, philosophy of life and value, aesthetic value, religion and drama. (Cronbach's α =.88).

Subsequently, a confirmatory factor analysis (SIMPLIS 8.52) suggested eliminating items due to low standardized coefficient and high modification indices with these three factors. The transportation (C7) and public facility item (C8) in factor two (CF2) were dropped for the reason of low standardized coefficient (<.5). After deleting the two items with low standardized coefficient, the test of goodness-of-fit showed that the measuring model wasn't still fit well ($X^2=753.22$, RMSEA= .097, CFI= .85, NNFI =.83, AGFI=.80, CN= 122.46). Thus the items with high value of modification index (>3.84) were then considered to be deleted (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2000), and the modification index (MI) provided by statistical software (SIMPLIS 8.52) indicated that some items could be deleted to fit the model well.

The existing literature also suggested that each high MI item could be deleted after every re-estimate of goodness-of-fit test. The traditional agricultural skill item (C13), the aesthetic value item (C19), the drama item (C21) the geographic feature item (C1), the habitat item (C4), the traditional land use skill item (C12), the monument item (C9), the cultural rules (C14), and the production place item (C6) were deleted due to the high MI value. The model was modified according to the MI, as Model CF (Fig. 2), and exhibited good fit ($\chi^2 = 52.87$, RMSEA=.070, CFI=.97, NNFI=.95, AGFI= .94, CN=262.99, Average Variance. Extracted >.45. Composite Reliability>0.6). The interval of discriminant validity in the cultural feature dimension range from 0.2224 to 0.8888, which was adequate for the criterion of the discriminant validity test.

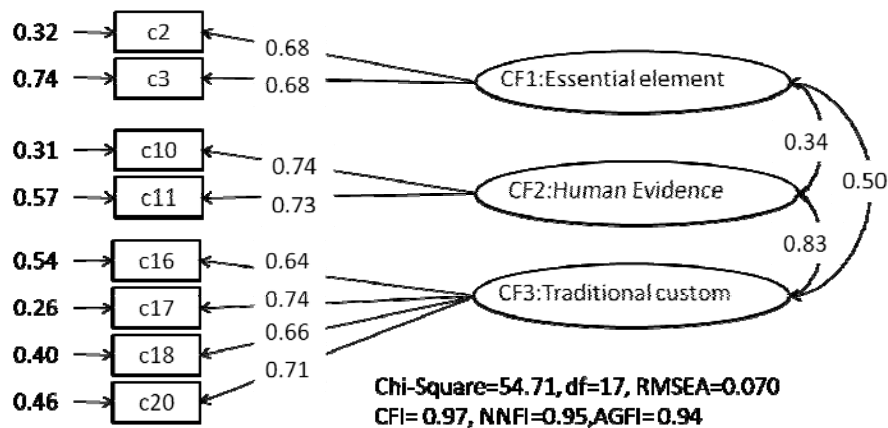


Figure 2: The model CF of cultural landscape

Analyzing the Place Meaning Dimension of Cultural Landscape

The same as the analyzing procedure of cultural feature dimension, an exploratory factor analysis was also conducted to identify the underlying factors in the place meaning dimension. A cut-off point of factor loading was considered to be 0.50 or greater to select meaningful items (Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986). After this procedure, one item (M13: *This place makes me feel very comfortable*) was deleted for the reason of low factor loading score ($<.5$).

Five “place meaning” factors were identified in the ideal solution (KMO=.93; variance explained = 65.81%; Cronbach’s $\alpha =.94$). The “affective identity” factor (PM1) includes 12 items which contain some concepts such as place identity, pride of place, affective attachment (Cronbach’s $\alpha =.94$). The “place value” factor (PM2) was consisting of 4 items which means the environmental value of place (Cronbach’s $\alpha =.71$). The “cultural atmosphere” factor (PM3) contains 5 items with the concept of cultural and historical value (Cronbach’s $\alpha =.80$). The “life dependence” factor (PM4) includes 3 items of the concept of place dependence (Cronbach’s $\alpha =.76$). The “place familiarity” factor (PM5) includes 2 items which mean the comprehensive familiarity of the history and position of place (Cronbach’s $\alpha =.72$).

After exploratory factor analysis, a confirmatory factor analysis (SIMPLIS 8.52) was performed to consider eliminating items with low standardized coefficient ($<.5$), and high standardized deviation ($>.6$) in these five factors. Four items in the “place value” factor (PM2) was dropped due to low standardized coefficient (M1: *This place is more beautiful than other place*, M4: *This place has great ecologic value*) and high standardized deviation (M26: *If I want to escape from real world, I would like visit here*, M27: *Many of my friends like this place very much*). Two items in the “place familiarity” factor (PM5) was eliminate for the reason of high Standardized deviation (M5: *I am very familiar with the history and culture of the place*, M6: *I can easily identify any location of the place*).

The test of goodness-of-fit showed that the measuring model wasn’t fit well ($\chi^2=754$, RMSEA= .097, CFI= .86, NNFI=.84, AGFI= .80, CN=114.54), thus several items with high modification indices (>3.84) was considered eliminating after checking the meaning of these items. Three items (M7: *this place makes me to remember the wonderful memory*, M8: *this place is full of historic meaning to me*, M9: *the resources provided from this place make me feel that it is the best place to me*) were deleted in the “cultural atmosphere” factor (PM3). Six items were eliminated in the “affective identity” factor. (M14: *I will feel regret if I can’t stay here*, M15: *I am part of the place*, M18: *This place provides deeper impression to me than any other place*, M19: *I am proud of this place*, M20: *I am very proud of everything of the place*, M22: *I have a special emotional feeling on this place*, M23: *I have a strong sense of belonging on this place*). The model was modified according to the MI, as Model PM (Fig. 3), and exhibited good fit ($\chi^2 =51.72$, RMSEA= .069, CFI= .97, NNFI=.95, AGFI=.94, CN= 264.19, Average Variance. Extracted $>.45$. Composite Reliability >0.6). The interval of discriminant validity in the place meaning dimension range from 0.3224 to 0.8588, which was adequate for the criterion of the discriminant validity test.

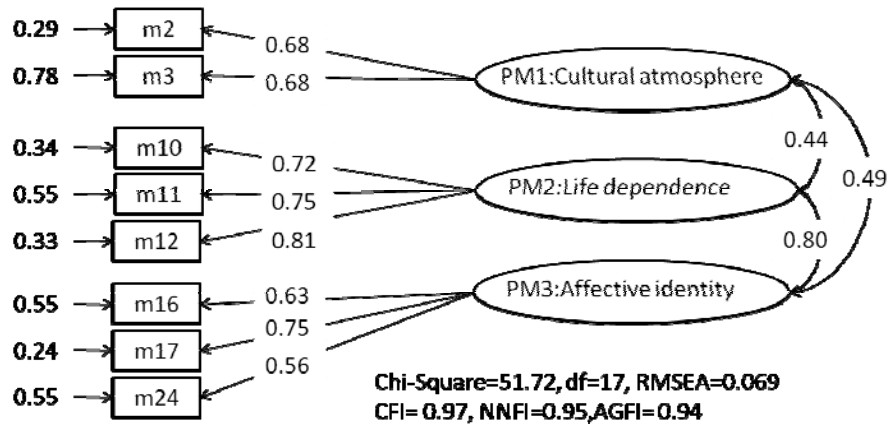


Figure 3: The model PM of cultural landscape

Discussion and Conclusion

The result of CFA revealed that the measurement model of cultural landscape responded from local participants was briefer than the proposal construct model of studying cultural landscape from interview data. The findings are also in agreement with the conceptual framework of cultural landscape as a multidimensional construct delineated by the related literatures (Eben Saleh, 2000; Schein, 2009; Solymosi, 2011; Tallbull et al., 1996; Terkenli, 2001).

The findings demonstrate that local people's opinions of the cultural feature were briefer than the opinion of experts. Related studies (Nüsser, 2001; Solymosi, 2011; Stewart, 2007; Taylor, 2009) argued that the components of cultural landscape may contain tangible and intangible properties. As a result, some environmental features such as natural resources or geographical characteristic and human creations such as settlement, building, public facility, transportation, farm, monument, even the skills were mentioned to be the important elements for conserving cultural landscape in the past studies. Nevertheless the statistical result of this study revealed that only a few environment characteristic (e.g. water feature and ethnic group characteristic, historic record (e.g. human's legend and myth), and traditional customs (e.g. clothing, traditional value, religious behavior and dialect) were thought to be the important factors of conserving cultural landscape by local people.

It is important to note that to conserve a cultural landscape owned by local people is very complex because of the number of groups involved in the process and affected by rural property development, such as local residents. The support of the local people is necessary for two reasons. First, most lands in cultural landscape sites were owned by local residents. Rather than conserve these cultural landscapes, they might sell their own lands to property developers to solve their economic difficulty. Second, the registration and maintenance of cultural landscape to specific places need the support of local residents. Therefore, identifying and understanding the factors that influence the willingness to participate in conservation for cultural landscape is very important for the Council of Cultural Affairs in Taiwan's government and for the success of any conservation strategy. Knowledge of what factors affect local residents' support for sustaining cultural landscapes and the interaction of these factors is important to the relevant unit before providing government resources such as technical, educational and financial assistance.

A critical finding revealed by this study is that the traditional customs considered as the key factors to conserve cultural landscape in landscape conservation

affairs. Because these four cultural significant sites are located in rural-urban interface, these areas are usually regarded as the suburbs which provided new opportunity for residential even industrial use. Local people might have the difficulty to resist the temptation of great economic benefit when they are persuaded to sell their lands by property development enterprise. Local people's choice of sustaining these lands with magnificent landscapes seemed to be the critical factors for successful conservation. As a result, the governments and conservationists need to consider the traditional custom as a key point to communicate with local residents while specific cultural landscapes owned by local residents are worthy of conservation.

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Enhancing The Tourism Industry In The Lenggong Valley Via A Mindfulness Approach

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Tourism destinations should be planned and designed to play a role in enhancing the state of mindfulness among visitors. Mindfulness refers to a state of mind of visitors who are actively engaged with the surroundings in processing information and is associated with greater learning and satisfaction. This paper will suggest how tourism destinations can be promoted and can enhance visitors' positive attitudes, appreciation and empathy towards the sites they visit. Ultimately, mindfulness can induce them to develop a sense of attachment and stewardship towards the conservation of the places they visit. Learning theories and communication factors will be used to formulate a strategic perspective for the mindfulness approach to result in creating tourists with more knowledge, satisfaction and a higher level of understanding and interpretation towards the Lenggong Valley. In the final analysis, this paper assesses the challenges and processes of how tourism products, as in the case of the Lenggong Valley archaeological sites, can be narrated, interpreted and presented in a manner which can inculcate mindful tourists and induce them, in turn, to assist in the promotion of sustainable tourism in the area.

Key words: heritage tourism, mindfulness approach, learning theories, communication factors

Introduction

Tourism is often cited as the world's biggest industry. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), the combined direct and indirect economic contribution of tourism generates almost 11% of global GDP and employs over 200 million people (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2004). The World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) reports that tourism transports nearly 700 million international travellers per annum (United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2005a), and that figure is set to grow. In addition, this figure does not include the large number of domestic tourists in individual countries, particularly developed nations. With the development and growth of the industry comes a range of diverse and far reaching impacts and all these will, to some extent, have an effect on the places that they visit.

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The Malaysian government has decided to seek a declaration for the the Lenggong Valley in northern Perak to be a World Heritage Site (WHS). An application was made to the UNESCO for such declaration and subsequently on 30 June 2012 the declaration was made official.

Consequent to these activities and development, a pertinent question which has been raised here is whether the uniqueness of this area and the region is recognised by the community and the Malaysian population as a whole as something which they should be proud of and are willing to work together to protect and preserve? Other related questions which can be included here are: Can Lenggong be promoted as a tourism destination? If yes, what image and identity can it promote? How much knowledge and mindfulness can it provide to visitors?

The issue of community engagement with the heritage site is critical in the light of the region being declared a WHS. In most modern societies, heritage awareness has often been on the decline because of the rapid pace of life which provides a limited time for interest in heritage conservation and preservation. Since heritage awareness and interest as well as its maintenance are critical to the success of Lenggong, when bestowed with such a status, it is imperative that heritage awareness be maintained at the highest level possible and be made an issue in the daily lives of the people. Furthermore, people often associate the issue of heritage conservation and preservation as the purview and responsibility of the government because heritage is seen as a matter of public domain and its protection therefore should be handled by the appropriate authorities.

Research Objectives

The overall objective of this study is to explore the actions to be taken in order to promote the development of the Lenggong Valley World Archaeological Heritage Site as a premier sustainable tourist destination site amongst foreign and local tourists; this will not only turn it into an important tourist site in Malaysia but will also produce mindful tourists who are more educated, experienced, appreciative and who understand the local culture, customs and environment. And most importantly, the study aims to find out how a mindfulness approach could contribute in achieving these objectives. Specific objectives are as follows:

- a. To examine the existence and presence of the dichotomy of mindful and mindless visitors within the context of the Malaysian tourism industry.
- b. To help improve the usage of interpretation in the field of tourism so that tourists visiting the Lenggong Valley World Archaeological Heritage Site will become more educated and more appreciative of the need to support heritage conservation and behave in a responsible manner.
- c. To identify the types of communication factors which will enhance learning and appreciation of Malaysian heritage, culture and environment that can promote a cognitive state of the mindfulness amongst the tourists.
- d. To identify and recommend the types of exhibits and displays to be used in the Lenggong Valley World Archaeological Heritage Site which can improve and enhance learning and understanding associated with mindful tourism.
- e. To stimulate stewardship among Malaysians in promoting and preserving its archaeological heritage.

Research Questions

- RQ1: What mindful tourist activities can be created for the Lenggong Valley World Archaeological Heritage Site?
- RQ2: What are the characteristics and features of mindful and mindless tourists and how does one differentiate one from the other in order to introduce quality tourism trade in the Lenggong Valley World Archaeological Heritage Site?
- RQ3: What are the steps and measures to be taken by the archaeological area management in order to attract not only an increased number of tourist arrivals but also quality visitors?
- RQ4: What materials, information, data and resources available in the area can be used for the promotion of interpretation and sustainable tourism in the Lenggong Valley?
- RQ5: What communication tools and activities are more suitable to be used in order to improve the learning and experience of the visitors to the area?
- RQ6: What types of exhibits and displays related to the area can be put up to improve and enhance learning and understanding associated with mindful tourism?

Literature Review

Lenggong and Mindful Archaeological Tourism

Situated in Perak, the Lenggong Valley is regarded as one of the earliest sites of human civilisation in Southeast Asia. The Lenggong Valley was declared by UNESCO as a World Heritage Site on 30 June 2012. Following this declaration, Lenggong will be looked as a new tourist destination in Malaysia which has archaeological tourism value. This value ought to create tourists to return from Lenggong with some good facts and significant information and at the same time to attract different range of tourists.

To be sure, tourists are often more interested in hedonistic pleasures and conspicuous consumption than in education and cultural understanding (Crick, 1989). How then does one make archaeological sites, such as that located in the Lenggong Valley, attractive to a diverse range of tourists, such as the pure excitement seekers, education seekers and the leisure seekers, and at the same time, balance the goals of education, sustainability and conservation?

This research will investigate the ways to utilise the various settings of communication factors to result in a mindful experience. To this end, various analyses will be conducted to understand the setting factors that are specific to archaeological sites. The dearth of information on the needs and wants of archaeological site visitors also necessitates an array of analyses that will be used in developing market segmentations as an important step towards building the marketing and branding strategy for archaeological tourism in Malaysia.

Several problems related to mindfulness have been identified and will be addressed in this research. First and foremost, archaeological exhibitions and promotions are often presented based on the perspective of archaeologists rather than visitors. Professional interpretations from archaeologists are of course important and should be a prominent feature of archaeological exhibitions. However, the value and priorities of archaeologists may be different from those of visitors. For example, while archaeologists may be interested in the artefacts and architectural features of the

Lenggong archaeological site, visitors may be more interested in the social and cultural aspects of people who had lived in the area. In such an example, the stories of the people should be interwoven into the interpretation of the ancient site. An audience analysis, therefore, should be first conducted to determine the best strategies and techniques to be used in communicating information to the visitors that satisfies their needs without sacrificing the goal of educating them. A constructivist approach has been recommended in presenting archaeology to the public (Copeland, 2004). In this approach, visitors are encouraged to decipher the meaning of the archaeologists' interpretations in their own way based on their past experience, knowledge and motivations.

Secondly, the current promotion and presentation of archaeological sites in Malaysia mostly revolves around education, making them appealing to those who are genuinely interested in archaeology or history but not to those whose motivation is far from learning when they are on vacation. Typically, a visit to an archaeological site entails visiting the museum and viewing the artefacts found on the archaeological site with visitors moving from one exhibit to another, guided by either audio/visual presentations or a tourist guide. This approach, however, has low appeals to adventure, entertainment and leisure seekers who require experiences that are more involving. To cater to these groups, activities at the museum and the archaeological sites have to be highly interactive, such as getting visitors to get involved in stone tool-making activities to demonstrate the Archulean or Clovis technology, or experience first-hand (or with the help of simulators) the techniques used in archaeological excavations. Children can get involved in games or puzzles that relate to archaeology. The idea is for visitors to get actively involved to increase interest and avoid mental fatigue. In this research, various innovative ways in presenting archaeological heritage will be explored.

Thirdly, the traditional practice is to promote archaeological artefacts separate from the immediate environment. To turn an archaeological visit into a mindful experience to a wider range of tourists, activities involving the surrounding environment can be incorporated as part of the tourist experience. These activities may include social-cultural experiences (e.g., interacting with the locals and embarking on a food safari in Melaka to highlight the *peranakan* heritage) and eco-based activities (e.g., trekking, bird watching, kayaking in the Bukit Bunuh area to explore the meteorite crater that was central to the archaeological discoveries). Getting visitors to interact with the environment not only promises a mindful experience but also encourages them to interpret the archaeological heritage in connection with the environment. Visitors will learn that archaeological artefacts result from long-term and complex cultural interactions with the environment (Walker, 2005). Just as importantly, the environment-based activities will offer wide opportunities for locals to participate in small and medium businesses.

Mindfulness

Living mindfully can be applied to effective communication in our daily interactions with other people. The concept of mindfulness and mindlessness has been integrated into various aspects of human communication since a few decades ago. Research in the area of mindful versus mindless behaviour began in 1974 with most of the early work focusing on basic characteristics of mindfulness. Other studies that are relevant which have integrated this concept are health, business, work performance, leadership and education.

Mindfulness communication is a term that originates in Buddhist philosophy and became popular in the West due to the work of Dr. Jon Kabat-Zinn. Mindfulness communication means to listen and speak with compassion, kindness and awareness. This statement is similar to one put forward by Brown and Ryan (2003), reinforcing the view that the concept of mindfulness has roots in Buddhism and other contemplative traditions where conscious attention and awareness are actively cultivated. It is most commonly defined as the state of being attentive to, and aware of, what is taking place in the present.

Mindfulness has also been described as “bringing one’s complete attention to the present experience on a moment-to-moment basis.” (Marlatt and Kristeller, 1999) in Baer (2003). The concept of mindfulness has been introduced as a possible tool for destination providers to meet the needs of both visitors and natural, cultural, and historical resources. Some literature on heritage and sustainable recreation and tourism (Langer 1989; Langer and Moldoveanu, 2000 in (Frauman and Norman, 2004) has considered mindfulness to represent a state of mind expressed by “actively” processing new information within the surrounding environment.

According to Langer and Moldoveanu (2000), mindfulness is a concept that is not easy to define. Mindfulness can be described as the process of drawing novel distinctions. The importance of the information is not given emphasis as long as the information or item is new to the viewer. Actively drawing these distinctions keeps us situated in the present. It also makes the viewers more aware of the context and perspective of our actions than if we rely upon distinctions and categories drawn in the past. The process of drawing novel distinctions can lead to a number of diverse consequences, including (1) a greater sensitivity to one’s environment, (2) more openness to new information, (3) the creation of new categories for structuring perception, and (4) enhanced awareness of multiple perspectives in problem solving. Mindfulness is not a cold cognitive process. When one is actively drawing novel distinctions, the whole individual is involved. This is similar to the view of Woods and Moscardo (2003) that the conditions for mindful learning to occur are that the learner needs to be attentive to the environment, reacting to new information and creating new routines, behaviours and views of the world. Langer, Blank, and Chanowitz (1978) stated that mindfulness is not any harder work compared to mindlessness. It will certainly lead individuals to be more receptive to learning opportunities. Individuals who mindfully process information are able to independently and mindfully reconsider using it or applying it in the future. On the other hand, those who process information mindlessly will not likely be able to subject it to serious analysis in the future. This is because in the mindless mode, individuals rely on categories that have already been formed and distinctions that have already been drawn.

Mindfulness is suggested as a product of both intrapersonal and situational factors by Langer and Moldoveanu (2000) in (Frauman and Norman, 2004) after their 25 years of research history. Frauman 1999; Langer and Moldoveanu 2000; Moscardo 1999 mentioned that mindfulness might not only be influenced by personality traits and special interests towards a topic, it is likely to be induced when a setting: (1) is varied, interactive and involving; (2) facilitates perceptions of control; (3) appears relevant to one’s interests; and (4) is perceived as new, different, or unique.

Langer (1989) noted that mindfulness keeps us situated in the present. Hence, a mindful individual should be perceived as more genuine than a mindless individual, irrespective of whether he/she behaves in a gender-traditional or non-gender-traditional way. Langer further illustrated that while mindless responses can impart a

sense of stability and certainty, many studies have found that increasing mindful responses result in greater competence, health, positive effects, and creativity and reduces burnout. Van Winkle and Backman (2009) pointed out that mindfulness is both a method of responding and a basic state of mind. Therefore, this concept is a combination of situational and interpersonal factors. Using the new information that is obtained, the individual who is in a mindful state is able to create and distinguish multiple perspectives and is aware of different contexts to be adapted in a proper responsive method.

The research by Timmerman, (2010) concluded that media richness and social influence factors appear to be equally effective at determining which medium is used in a mindful state. This research indicates that participants at high levels of mindfulness may be those who are experiencing extreme novelty, requirements for additional effort, interference, changing rewards or costs and insufficient knowledge. Hence, distinguishing between mindless and mindful states may provide a means for reconciling some of the discrepant findings that exist among media selection studies. Besides, this research also indicates that this concept has emerged into the field of communications.

Mindful tourists are liable to be knowledgeable and have more understanding regarding a heritage site which may contribute readily to sustainable tourism. This statement can be related to one made by Moscardo (1999) that mindfulness is thought to be associated with greater learning, satisfaction and thinking about new ways to behave in recreation-based settings (in Frauman and Norman, 2004).

According to Moscardo (1996), Langer defined mindfulness as "... a state of mind that results from drawing novel distinctions, examining information from new perspectives, and being sensitive to context". When we are mindful, we recognise that there is not a single optimal perspective but many possible perspectives on the same situation.

Langer and Piper (1988) (in Moscardo, 1996) stated that information and the question of what is going on in a setting are actively processed by mindful people. Mindfulness allows individuals maximum control over their own behaviour and the situations they find themselves in. People are most likely to be mindful when they have an opportunity to control and influence a situation, when they believe that available information is relevant to them and/ or when variety, novelty or surprise arises in a situation.

Communication Factors

Woods and Moscardo (2003) stated that mindful people pay attention to the world, react to new information, and create new routines, behaviours and views of the world. Therefore, mindfulness is necessary (although not a completely sufficient condition) for learning to occur.

Mindfulness is experienced in every situation; it is about how individuals process information in their surroundings (Langer and Moldoveanu, 2000). According to Reid (2007), when tourists are at cultural sites, they are engaged in various activities and behaviours that have potential to both benefit the destinations and negatively impact the sites. In applying mindfulness to tourism, Moscardo used the mindfulness model for communicating with visitors to demonstrate how effective this communication can be. Through this model, we can delineate the communication factors that encourage a cognitive state of mindfulness or mindlessness.

As shown in Figure 1, Moscardo (1999) offered the model to encourage visitors to be mindful. She made the assertion that mindfulness is a necessary requirement for learning new information. In simple terminology, mindfulness is defined as paying attention to the world around us. Theoretically, it is defined as a mode of functioning through which the individual actively engages in reconstructing the environment via the creation of new categories or distinctions, thus directing attention to new contextual cues that may be consciously controlled.

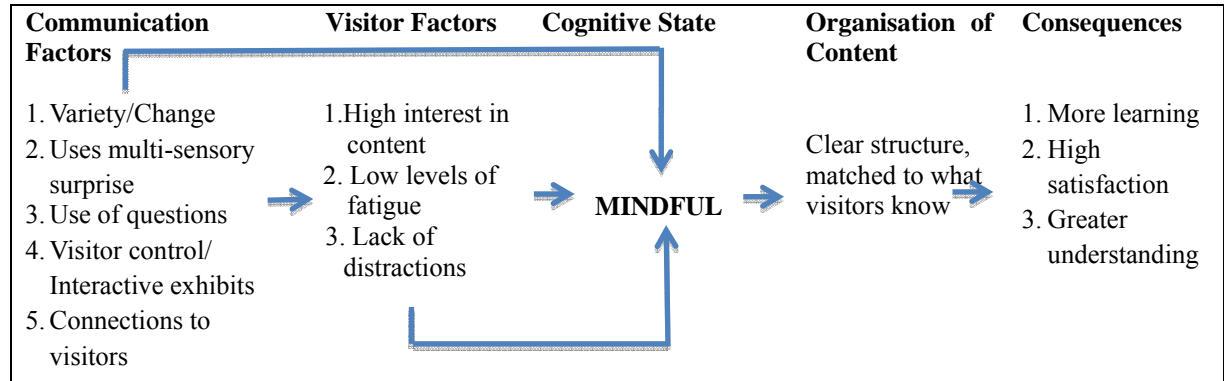


Figure 1: The mindfulness model for communicating with visitors
 Source: Woods and Moscardo (2003, p.99)

The above figure shows that communication factors include the use of variety and change, multi-sensory media, novelty, conflict and surprise, visitor control, connections to visitors and the use of questions. From these factors, the interpretive setting can be achieved through the design of the exhibit itself, the design and wording of texts or the design of presentations.

Based on the model, there are two sets of factors influencing visitors. The communication factors which are looked at in this study refer to the features of the interpretation. The model suggests that the application of the identified interpretation principles can stimulate interest and connections. According to Moscardo (1999), there are five principles that encourage mindful visitors and effective communication: (1) helping visitors to find their way around, (2) making connections with visitors and getting them involved, (3) providing variety, (4) telling a good story that makes sense, and (5) knowing and respecting visitors.

While communication factors consist of exhibits and displays, guided tours, signs, maps, guidebooks, brochures and walks, visitor factors consist of high interest in content, low levels of fatigue and lack of distraction. The combination of these two sets of factors will determine whether visitors are mindful or mindless. Mindful visitors will be more likely to enjoy their visits, express satisfaction with these visits, learn more from them and be interested in discovering more about a topic or specific place. Not only that, mindful visitors will also be more aware of the consequences of their behaviour and be more appreciative of the visited heritage sites.

Based on the model, repetitive and traditional exhibit/signage media and/or tour designs are deemed as communication factors that induce mindlessness. This is because repetition allows visitors to quickly develop and use a mindless script or routine. Moreover, exhibits or tour designs that have no space for the visitors to control the information they receive are considered as inanimate and/ or static exhibits. According to Moscardo (1996), this prediction seemed to be supported by several observational studies undertaken by Bitgood (1988b), Melton (1972), Serrell (1977), Falk, Koran, Dierking and Debrow (1985) and Weiss and Boutourline (1969).

The studies found and provided evidence that repetition consistently results in decreasing attention paid to exhibits.

On the other hand, mindfulness happens when there is variety of exhibits media including multisensory exhibits and exhibits that contain extreme physical properties. At this point, the content perceived by the visitors ought to be personally relevant, vivid or affectively charged and the interpretation content and/or the exhibit media should be novel, unexpected or surprising. Besides, the questions asked are used to create conflict or ambiguity and give the visitors the opportunity to control the information that they receive. Therefore, this part is considered as interactive/participatory exhibits or tours. Further explanation for this matter would be that visitors have more opportunity for direct contact with objects/ topics if the exhibits are dynamic or animate. This factor also has a structure underlying the organisation of the interpretive content.

Predictions are also included in this model about the influence of physical orientation systems (effective maps and signages). These predictions are actually derived from research in environment psychology indicating that people who have difficulty orienting themselves experience feelings of loss of control and anxiety (Pearce, 1988; Pearce and Black, 1984 in Moscardo, 1996). According to Moscardo, in the prediction that people may not be mindful about their orientation in a situation with poor orientations systems, this factor is viewed as interfering with the attention they pay to the exhibits. The prediction of the model is therefore that built heritage sites with poor physical orientation systems (ineffective maps and signages) will be more likely to induce mindlessness in their visitors than those with effective systems.

Besides the predictions to be noted, this model has also introduced the idea that mindfulness and subsequent learning would be induced by a structure underlying the content or organisation of the exhibits (known as the cognitive orientation system), combined with novelty, surprise or conflict. The act of observing new distinctions increases the positive effect and also increases interest in the event, object, behaviour or situation (Langer & Pietrasz, 1995). Actively noticing new things in the environment (or actively noticing new aspects of things previously taken for granted) is a hallmark of mindful thinking. As active mental exploration becomes a way of life, it becomes easier to explore those aspects of self that have previously been kept hidden or avoided.

At the same time, it also argued that mindfulness will not result in enhancing cognitive performance if there is too much of novelty, conflict or information in a setting, as extensive active information processing might turn into overloaded information. On the other hand, mindlessness is likely to be induced if there is too little information in the setting as well as visitors could easily create a routine to deal with the setting.

Apart from communication factors, several visitor factors that can determine the visitors' cognitive state have been included. When there is a high level of interest in the content area among the visitors and an absence of fatigue, they tend to be more mindful. Conversely, visitors are likely to be mindless if they are fatigued and/or have a low level of interest in the content area.

The model also proposes that a combination of these two factors in a number of ways could play a role in determining a visitor's cognitive state. For example, a visitor with a high level of interest in a topic may be mindful regardless of the communication factors whereas a visitor with no interest at all in a topic and/or is fatigued may be mindless regardless of these factors. This also indicates that a visitor with a low level of interest may become mindful in a setting where it is easy to find

one's way around, with a variety of media and the opportunity to interact with exhibits.

Based on the discussion and understanding, the authors are of the opinion that the communication factors and visitor factors consist of interpretation which has its own elements. Even the use of media can be linked to interpretation as tourists need media tools for interpretation about heritage sites. Indirect use of media is shown as helpful in constructing mindful tourists. The interpretation and understanding of the tourists at a specific heritage site may lead them to encounter different kinds of tourism experiences. According to Poria et. al., (2009), interpretation can be defined as the transmission of information from the presenter to the viewer in an attempt to educate the latter. Alternatively, Murray and Graham (1997) argued that the meaning assigned to a site (whether religious or secular) is related to an individual's visitation pattern. Ryan and Dewar (1995) noted that the objectives of interpretation are to gain the enjoyment of the visitor, orientation of the public to the facilities of the attractions, alerting visitors to the positive and negative effects of environmental modifications, obtaining public participation in protection and conservation and informing the public of the resource organisation activities as being appropriate. This is a view that many would still maintain.

The displays, exhibits or artefacts presented at heritage sites play a vital role in creating or leading tourists to be more mindful. Therefore, it is important that displays are placed appropriately at the heritage destinations.

Ryan and Dewar (1995) further reinforced the point of entertainment. It is the role played by interpreters which is seen as a means to educate the tourists. The educative component of the visitor's experience still represents a primary motivation for the interpreters as their work, and indeed, as mediators to spread the culture of the country. Moscardo (1986) (in R. Prentice, Guerin, et al., 1998) argued that certain settings are able to induce mindful tourists, namely, those that are interactive, multi-sensory or dynamic, those which include questions and those where physical orientation is present.

In general, where the interpretation in built heritage sites is concerned, the use of guides will assist mindful visitors. According to Pond (1993) in Reisinger & Steiner (2006), tour guides play a role in helping tourists to understand the places they visit. This can be supported by statements (Cohen, 1985; DeKadt, 1979; McKean, 1976; Nettekoven, 1979; Schuchat, 1983) in Reisinger & Steiner (2006) wherein tour guides are described as information givers, sources of knowledge, mentors, surrogate parents, pathfinders, leaders, mediators, culture brokers and entertainers. From this, we can infer that tour guides form part of the media in promoting heritage sites. Their job in leading a tour and the explanations they render can bring changes to the behaviour and thinking of visitors towards the sites. Indeed, according to the report of Wang et al. (2002), the presentation skills of a tour guide can make or break a tour.

There are other definitions for tour guides that can be used to justify their classification as a medium in promoting heritage sites. According to the International Association of Tour Managers (IATM) and European Federation of Tourist Guide Association (EFTGA, 1998), a tour guide is a person who interprets the cultural and natural heritage and environment in an inspiring and entertaining manner and in the language of the visitors' choice. He/she who leads groups while providing interpretations and commentaries is referred to as a tour guide by the Professional Tour Guide Association of San Antonio (1997).

The interpretive work of tour guides plays a vital role in enhancing visitors' experience and understanding of a destination and its culture (Ap and Wong (2001)

and Kimmel (undated) in Reisinger & Steiner (2006). Further, Ap and Wong (2001) shared the view that tour guides transform tourists' visits from tours into experiences through their communicative skills and their knowledge and understanding of a destination's attraction and culture.

Not only that, integrating new media or adapting the usage of media at the heritage sites further aids in enhancing successful and effective interpretation. Prentice, Guerin and Mc Gagan, (1998) postulated that in order to create mindful tourists, effective interpretation is essential, together with the appropriate characteristics and media. Lehn and Heath (2005) further asserted that the content provided by the media, such as information about exhibits or the process of their production, will secure the interest of the visitors. Besides, these new media are being deployed to further draw discussion and sharing of information among the tourists.

The authors believe that communication factors provided with adequate explanations certainly help in increasing mindfulness among tourists, resulting in the promotion of sustainable tourism. In addition, from the literature review, it can be seen that interpretation of the communication factors is also required in enhancing mindfulness.

Alderson and Low (1985) stated: "*How well the visitor can understand the important meanings and relationships of our site depends on the programme and activity that together make up the interpretation*" (p. 5). This is because at the heritage sites, visitors would be exposed to various activities. Integrating the concepts of mindfulness is important for the operators in terms of sustainability and identifying the interpretation of each event. Hence, it is important to emphasise the importance of the interpretation to the tourists at the heritage sites.

According to Alderson and Low (1985), interpretation is both a programme and an activity where the programme establishes a set of objectives for the things we want our visitors to understand and the activity focuses on the skills and techniques by which that understanding is created. As defined by the historic subcommittee of the American Association of Museums, interpretation is "a planned effort to create for the visitor an understanding of the history and significance of events, people, and objects with which the site is associated" (as cited in Alderson and Low, 1985). It is also defined as "an educational activity which aims to reveal meanings and relationships through the use of original objects, by first-hand experience, and by illustrative media, rather than simply to communicate factual information" by Freeman J. Tilden, the pioneering author of *Interpreting Our Heritage* (as cited in Alderson and Low, 1985).

The two definitions mentioned above are clearly not contradictory. Both authors have stressed that the occurrence of understanding will only happen if meanings and relationships have been revealed. The *planned effort* and *an activity* is the only difference found in the definitions, one being a programme and the other a process by which the programme is carried out.

The activity of revealing meanings and relationships is essential to understanding; yet without a programme, an activity lacks direction. Hence, both are necessary to heritage site interpretation. This is because interpreters could waste time in creating a visitor's complete understanding of secondary or minor details if there is no planning.

Effective interpretation can play a central and significant role in sustainable tourism in general and more specifically in the effective management of visitors to built heritage sites. This statement is derived from the earlier study done on creating mindful visitors for sustainable tourism. The study's finding indicates that interpretation plays a critical role in sustainable tourism by educating tourists about

the nature of the host region and culture, informing them of the consequences of their actions, enhancing their experience and encouraging them to engage in sustainable behaviours.

Besides, interpretation is an important factor in creating mindful tourists and enhancing the quality of heritage conservation. Tilden (1977) in Moscardo (1996) described interpretation as “an educational activity which aims to reveal meanings and relationships”, as “an art” and as “revelation based upon information”. It is also suggested that its aim is “not instruction but provocation”. Tilden (1977) also made the assertion that interpretation should connect a topic or place “to something within the personality or experience of the visitors”.

As for the area of heritage management, Hall and McArthur (1993:13) in Moscardo (1996) stated “that the visitor experience should be placed at the centre of any heritage management process” and that traditional management that has focused on the heritage resource is “deficient because it generally takes inadequate account of the human element in heritage management and especially the significance of visitors”. The two core goals of interpretation offered by these authors in support of their argument are (1) to enhance the visitor experience and consequently ensure public support for heritage conservation, and (2) through education, to encourage visitors to behave in appropriate ways.

The above suggests that spoken, written and audio visual forms of communication are not only received from the interpretation staff but also some sensory and intellectual perceptions gleaned through the quality of restoration, authenticity of furnishings and effectiveness of exhibits. There may be a variety of reasons for a visitor to go to a heritage site but the significant part is that the goal is achieved when the visitor gains an understanding of the reasons why the heritage site is important to the community, state, nation, world and most of all, to the individual visitor himself/herself.

Heritage Tourism

Heritage tourism is a broad field of specialty travel, based on nostalgia for the past and the desire to experience diverse cultural landscapes and forms. It includes travel to festivals and other cultural events, visits to sites and monuments, travel to study nature, folklore or art or pilgrimages (Zeppel and Hall, 1992).

The word “heritage” in its broader meaning is generally associated with the word “inheritance” that is, something transferred from one generation to another. Owing to its role as carrier of historical values from the past, heritage is viewed as part of the cultural tradition of a society. The concept of “tourism” on the other hand, is really a modern form of consciousness (Nuryanti, 1996)

At the community level, heritage tourism is defined as the process of enhancing a community for the residents as well as for the tourists. It includes local handicrafts, language, gastronomy, art and music, architecture, sense of place, historic sites, festivals and events, heritage resources, the nature of work environment and technology, religion, education and dress.

Heritage tourism connects authenticity, promotion, site development, interpretation, visitors services, and economic development where related professionals and the private owners work together to develop the industry.

World Heritage Sites

Throughout the world, there are cultural and natural heritage sites that are considered to have special importance to humankind. Among these sites, some are considered to be of outstanding value to humanity. A site becomes a World Heritage Site when it is inscribed on the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization's (UNESCO) World Heritage List for its outstanding universal value.

According to the *Operational Guidelines for the Implementation of the World Heritage Convention*, "Outstanding universal value means boundaries and to be of common importance for present and future generations of all humanity". World Heritage Sites are the testimony to the natural wealth of the earth and the cultural excellence of humankind. They represent the best and most important examples of our cultural and natural heritage. By focusing on World Heritage Sites, we are protecting our most valuable heritage.

Method

This study has used both quantitative and qualitative instruments for the purpose of preliminary data collection. Construction of a structured interview schedule was designed fundamentally to obtain data pertaining to tourists who visit major tour destinations. The data to be collected through this instrument include: (I) Who are the tourists, (ii) Their expectations when they visit a site and whether these expectations are met, (iii) The education and experience they obtain from the visits, (iv) Their opinion about the exhibits and displays they see during the visit and what they prefer to see as an alternative, (v) Their understanding and appreciation of Malaysian people, culture and its environment, (vi) Whether their experience make them return. These will be used to collect materials, information and data to lend support to the interpretation of all artefacts/exhibits/venues which are identified as tourist attractions in the Lenggong Valley. Other than that, case studies have been done in this preliminary research to obtain data to delineate the communication tools and activities which can promote the interactive learning and experience of the visitors. Hence, to facilitate such studies, visits to renowned sites which currently are able to attract tourists in great numbers were made. Some preliminary observations were made on the Sangiran Archaeological Heritage Site in Solo Indonesia to examine the possibility of benchmarking Sangiran as a model to be used for the development of a similar site located in Perak Malaysia, which is our Lenggong Archaeological Heritage Site

Results

Limited preliminary fieldwork has been carried out to see how a mindfulness approach could contribute towards creating more knowledgeable, satisfied and understanding tourists. Fundamentally, Sangiran and Lenggong have several similarities, including the existence of artefacts that have been excavated as well as the absence of heritage monuments to eventually attract the tourists. In the absence of monumental structures like Angkor (Cambodia), Borobodur and Prambanan (Indonesia), these two sites have an interesting challenge of drawing visitors simply based on the existence of archaeological artefacts and historical value.

Within the context of promoting mindful tourism, we made a thorough observation inside and outside the Sangiran Museum in order to understand what it

offers to visitors. As a communication factor, information provided by the museum to visitors is critical to ensure understanding of the human evolution and the contribution of Sangiran to human evolution. Where first-time visitors are concerned, it is critical for the museum to create the highest level of understanding so that the sojourners will make a return visit or at the very least, tell their friends what they learned. Concomitantly, the information provided should be bold, adequate, meaningful, interesting and easily understood.

In our observation, we found the museum offers facets that are required to create intelligent visitors. Based on the numerous interviews conducted with the visitors, there appears some level of satisfaction at what they observed. Most expressed satisfaction with the given information which had made them more knowledgeable and mindful on the contribution of Sangiran to the evolution of man. This applied to all types of visitors we met, including students, academicians, researchers and the general public. Repetitive information could affect and sustain attention and interest (Moscardo, 1996) and this is provided by the museum. Most of the visitors said that the information provided was short and precise, prompting them to keep seeking for more information and not be tired of reading the signages on display.

At this point, it can be said that the way the information provided for every display in the museum managed to deliver its own message and can easily be understood by the visitors especially the first timers. Visitors felt that they gained knowledge of the place; thus the history through the effective information provided can raise the level of mindfulness of the visitors.

One drawback of the museum, however, is the language used for the displays. While attempts have been made to present the exhibits in dual languages (Indonesian and English), there are instances when only Bahasa Indonesia is provided due to limited space. Thus, a lesson learned here is that language is important in ensuring that the message is delivered widely and adequately to everyone. It is relevant nevertheless to note that most visitors to the Sangiran Museum are Indonesians; the Indonesian language has accordingly been given priority.

At the same time, the visitor factor should also be taken into consideration. According to Moscardo's Model of Communicating with Visitors (in Woods and Moscardo, 2003), a lack of attempt in communicating with visitors would cause decreased interest and also distraction which will lead to mindlessness. In order to avoid mindlessness, it is suggested that visitors' need are taken care of in certain matters. For example, information in multiple languages should be provided for the convenience of the tourists from different countries. Despite the limited information space for the displays, brochures or pamphlets in multiple languages containing similar information could be distributed. At the same time, wordings that have been used in any display or exhibit should also be clear, simple and attractive to increase legibility and readability.

Beside adequate information and well-written wordings, there are also other communication factors that have been observed in the museum. According to Frauman and Norman (2004), a mindful tourist is induced if the setting is varied, interactive and involving. The Sangiran Museum has elicited 100% of satisfaction from the visitors based on how the artefacts and fossils are displayed. Displays and presentations are provided in an interactive way via multi-sensory and interactive media. For example, some significant artefacts displayed in 3Ds and 2Ds are very interesting.

Additionally, interactive media such as computerised information tools or digital computer based tools are also provided to enable visitors to find information about various artefacts □ they can browse through the pages and websites provided on the screen. Most are made convenient via touch-screen tools. Another interesting and appreciated step taken by the Sangiran management is educating the visitors via audio-visual information about the history and contents of the museum. Visitors are given a chance to watch interesting videos that narrate the story of Sangiran. The videos presented are easily understood by all. Again, the messages seem to be legible and readable and visitors say that they have gained more knowledge and experience; they have also become more mindful since they are aware of what is happening around them and they know the kind of information they are seeking in that particular surrounding.

Besides the interactive media, the mannequins displayed for each story are carved as real as possible to transmit a positive interpretation and impression to viewers. They are creatively positioned to portray actual situations in the narrations on the display boards; this enhances the interest level of the viewers. Indeed, the management spared no expense to make them look almost human; for this purpose, Elisabeth Baynes, a leading expert in the process of hominid reconstruction, was hired to bring the historic ancestors “back to life”.

This is a good lesson to be learned from the Sangiran Museum as it has fulfilled certain communication factors that could induce mindfulness. This observation is supported by our discussion with the visitors. They have expressed their overall satisfaction with how the artefacts and fossils have been displayed. In essence, this factor is one of the main reasons which may have encouraged visitors to return. Most of them feel that all the displays have novelty and value. Displays of new-found artefacts and fossils are always highlighted. This makes the community and local visitors proud of their culture and history. In a nutshell, the design and structure of the museum can be seen to have relevance for the preservation and sustainability of the heritage and could eventually induce mindfulness among visitors since they are aware of the place and value their surroundings.

Moreover, inducing mindfulness through communication factors includes having well- designed signages, good brochures, maps, pamphlets and other types of printed materials. These materials are used as communication tools to connect with tourists in a way. Many tourists prefer to find their own way without the help of tour guides. In order to assist them and make their expedition stress-free yet interesting, well-designed and strategically located signages should be showcased. The tourists can then find their own way easily with the aid of the strategically placed signs. The Sangiran Museum has fulfilled these criteria as well □ many respondents had no difficulty finding their own way inside and outside the museum. On the other hand, our observations through the interviews also showed that a few visitors to the museum feel that the management should provide them with printed materials such as maps, flyers and brochures to assist them even further.

The Sangiran Museum also projects good physical orientation through the capabilities of its tour guides. They are well trained and informed, readily interpreting the history of Sangiran to the visitors who use their services. Sound interpretation and explanation from tour guides create ready understanding among the visitors towards the places they visit. Such understanding will culminate in the appreciation of the destinations which leads to the enhancement of awareness as well as the promotion of sustainable tourism.

The Hindu temple of Prambanan draws many foreign tourists. When interviewed to gauge their points of view regarding certain facilities that have been provided at the heritage site, similar answers were received. The foreign tourists are mainly Germans and Japanese.

Tourists from Germany seem to be visiting Prambanan with interest as their main purpose. Many of them travel readily in the absence of jobs. Desiring to learn more about the Hindu temple entices them to the heritage site where they hope to learn more from the site management. Many expressed disappointment regarding the inadequate provision of information. Their decision in not hiring a tour guide could be one of the reasons.

Not being provided with adequate information appears to be their main dissatisfaction despite their excitement in viewing the uniqueness of the temple's architecture. Displays accompanied by clear explanations are expected to create better understanding and interpretation among foreign tourists. The availability of information provided in different languages is another main concern of the tourists as pictorial maps in themselves are not adequate for the dissemination of required information and satisfactory interpretation. The intention to learn more about the background and history that lie beneath the beautiful and unique temple makes information seeking their main concern. Despite the dissatisfaction, their mindful behaviour creates the desire to visit Prambanan again in future hoping that information provision would be improved. This is an important factor for tourists who wish to be more mindful and knowledgeable about the places they visit besides deriving satisfaction from available conveniences.

In a similar vein, the tourists from Japan mentioned that knowledge gained from studies about Prambanan during their school days was only basic. Hence, their interest to learn more has led to a visit. As they could not understand nor interpret the information displayed adequately, they stated that the services of tour guides could help in overcoming this problem. Clearer messages can be conveyed in two-way communication between tour guides and tourists with questions being posed and answered more clearly, achieving better understanding and satisfaction regarding an issue. Suggestions were also given, one being that the number of Japanese tour guides could be increased. More attractions and activities should be held at the heritage sites and wider promotions provided.

As for the communication tools, maps and brochures appear to be useful when the visitors wish to find their own way around the heritage site without the help of tour guides. This is because the information provided in the brochures is clear and easily understood by tourists. Tourists' interest and determination in gaining knowledge will increase their mindfulness through communication factors such as good information provision, existence of tour guides, communication tools provision (maps, brochures, flyers, etc.), and interaction during information sharing, usage of interactive media, etc.

On the other hand, the local tourists from Central Jawa (Jawa Tengah) have shown a mindless act. It was extremely disappointing to learn that they have not heard about Prambanan and the reason for them to visit the monuments is just a way to spend their leisure time. They have no desire to seek out any stories about Prambanan.

The same applied regarding the tourists in Borobudur. The data show that most of the foreign and local tourists are motivated to visit the Buddhist temple only because of its physical beauty and Yogyakarta is always branded with the name of Borobudur. The foreign tourists consist of Germans and Thais.

Some Thai tourists showed mindfulness when they expressed their sadness that some rocks and statues have been vandalised. These feelings show that they are aware of, and they do care about, the value of the heritage legacy. Suggestions have been made that the authority or management should take action against defaulters who might ruin the beauty of the temple. As for branding and publicity, Borobudur is renowned. The Thai tourists also said that Borobudur's history was taught during their school days and it is also well publicised via television programmes in Thailand. This is the background as to how tourists from Thailand know about Borobudur. Their education and media have played a significant role in promoting Borobudur. However, it was told that the information provided is not adequate as there are limited brochures distributed. Detailed information and explanations are accordingly expected by these tourists to enable them to learn more about Borobudur. However, not everyone can afford to pay the service charges for tour guides. Hence, heritage sites should consider placing information outlets to ensure easy information accessibility by the tourists. For example, the provision of information at heritage places in Thailand and Kyoto is given as comparison to Borobudur, the information provided there being of a higher quality and creating satisfaction in them as tourists.

The tourists from Germany came to know about Borobudur from their Indonesian friends and colleagues. Information on Borobudur is found in websites which everyone can access to search for information. Some do not feel it necessary to hire a tour guide during their visit to the heritage site as they have been well informed or have adequate explanations provided by their Indonesian friends or colleagues. Besides, the information gained through the brochures at information counters is considered adequate according to them. The information is found to be clear, straight forward and easily understood.

On the other hand, feedback from the locals about Borobudur still shows that they are less mindful. Most of them have heard about Borobudur from community leaders. They state that their motivation to visit Borobudur, however, is primarily for leisure purposes and to look at the physical beauty of the ancient monument. They do not have interest in learning about its history although they have no knowledge on it at all. So, they are not concerned about the information provision nor the communication tools provided. They have no complaints and prefer things to remain as they are.

From the findings, it can be said that foreign tourists ought to be more mindful; to encourage the creation of more mindful tourists, factors that lead to mindfulness should be taken into consideration by the site management. The preferences, needs and expectations of the tourists should be studied in order to make improvements; this will go a long way to ensure the sustainability of the heritage site. Tourism, consisting of mindful tourists, is sustainable tourism. This will also ensure the learning of different cultures which will lead to knowledge enhancement; at the same time, appreciation towards heritage legacy could be instilled among tourists. This will also indirectly contribute to the development of heritage tourism.

Another preliminary research which was deployed was to review the relationship between the tour guide's interpretation and the tourist's level of mindfulness. The data indicated that the level of mindfulness did affect tourist learning ($p < .000$) and explained 38.5% of the variance in learning. The level of mindfulness also affected tourist understanding ($p < .000$) and explained 51.7% of the variance in understanding. Lastly, the level of mindfulness affected tourist satisfaction ($p < .000$) and explained 52.9% of the variance in satisfaction.

The deployment of tour guides is one of the characteristics of communication factors. Hence, the data proved that the availability of tour guides, which is a communication factor, contributes towards increasing the level of mindfulness. Tourists who strive to gain more knowledge, satisfaction and understanding meet the requirements of people who wish to be mindful. From this data, we can say that communication factors do contribute to mindfulness.

Conclusion

This paper attempts to explore how a mindfulness approach can be developed in the tourism industry of the Lenggong Valley, creating significant value by promoting tourists who are more knowledgeable, satisfied and understanding. The exploration will eventually bring us to understand and know in detail what is sought and required by tourists when they visit heritage places. The matters addressed are factors that will encourage visitors to be mindful which results in their getting satisfaction, finding out new information and achieving a higher level of understanding. Tourists will then appreciate the surroundings and efforts undertaken to preserve the heritage sites and also to be part of the preservation. At the same time, the findings are expected to provide guidance to the proper authority of heritage sites to consider and emphasise the issues necessary for the improvement of the communication factors and other settings provided at their heritage sites in accordance with the needs and expectations of tourists.

For example, in the absence of a monument or a structure to attract tourists, Lenggong can learn from Sangiran by erecting a similar museum to exhibit and display the findings: the stone tools dating as far back as 1.83 million years. If this is accepted, the museum must be positioned as an important archaeological museum which caters for research and promotes knowledge and understanding on the history of human evolution and the contribution of Lenggong to the evolution. In order to create learning and mindfulness, the exhibits must be presented legibly, clearly and coherently via multi-sensory, interactive and verity media. To improve on what have been seen in the Sangiran Museum, the Lenggong counterpart should be equipped with modern computer-based media including tablets, 3D/4D presentations and other gadgets commensurate with current up-to-date multi-media facilities. Learning from Sangiran, every effort should be made to present these exhibits in as many languages as possible to ensure learning by visitors of different nationalities.

This is to assure that our heritage sites are capable in attracting more tourists and creating mindful tourists which is integral to, and enhances, learning and educating every citizen and visitor alike on the importance of our heritage sites.

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The Effectiveness Of Tour Guide's Interpretation In Creating Mindful Tourists: A Study On The Penang World Heritage Sites

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The number of tourists to heritage sites has increased tremendously in recent years and has contributed to the growth of the nation's economy since heritage tourism has become the central focus of Malaysia's attraction to outsiders especially after the declaration of Malacca and Penang as world heritage sites by UNESCO in 2008. When planned and managed effectively heritage tourism can realize positive impacts but when poorly managed heritage tourism can be devastating and causing damage to resources from inappropriate treatments and uncontrolled visitation. Therefore, this study intends to analyse how can effective interpretation provide by tour guide can create mindful tourists which is tourist who has greater learning, high satisfaction and more understanding in order to give positive impact to the heritage tourism. With the greater learning experience and knowledge gain by the tourist from the interpretation by the tour guide, they are able to understand the place more and tend to appreciate the place better as they are able to distinguish their actions that may have impact at the heritage sites hence the heritage can be conserved.

Key words: heritage tourism, tour guide, interpretation, mindfulness

Introduction

Tourism is one of the largest industries that developed rapidly in Malaysia. According to Chui et al., (2011), tourism industry has become the second highest contribution to Malaysia's economic growth. What is surprisingly, heritage tourism become more and more popular nowadays and has been identified as one of the fastest growing tourism segments. Museums, National Park and historic places have generally noted an increase in visitor numbers, and feature strongly in any list of a country's most visited locations (Ryan & Dewar, 1995). Based on Hargrove (2002), families, seniors, groups, and even international visitors choose to frequent heritage attractions when on vocation.

With an urban history of more than 200 years, Georgetown, the capital city of Penang is well known for its heritage building. These buildings are mainly low-rise two or three-storey buildings in which the residents used to work downstairs typically

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in their family businesses and live upstairs (NorAini, Mui, Meng & Fern, 2007). According to Khoo (1994), almost 10% of the pre-war houses in Georgetown were from the 1850s, around the 30% from the 1850s to 1900s, with the remaining 60% were built between 1900 and 1930. Although with the population growth and development pressure, the real properties in the inner city of Georgetown have remained essentially unchanged since they were built in the late 1800s and early 1900s.

When we talk about heritage tourism, the fundamental components involved are Interpretation and education with appropriate planning and management. These two components represent effective long term and comprehensive solutions to combating destruction and vandalism of archaeological and historical sites. Besides that, they can be used to promote environmental awareness and stewardship as well as cultural awareness and sensitivity and to establish a framework for understanding multicultural perspectives (Pinter, 2005).

Interpretation based on The Society for Interpreting Britain's Heritage can be define as the process of communicating to people the significance of a place or object so that they enjoy it more, understand their heritage and environment better and develop a positive attitude toward conservation (Reisinger and Steiner, 2006).

According to Ooi (2002), tourists nowadays tend to interpret everything they experience in their own way, influence both by initially formed ideas and expectations or upon regarding the concrete tour beneficial to them. Thus, Cohen in Rabotic (2010) sees this function of guides in International Transcultural Tourism is oriented at interpretation. Tour guides use interpretation to convey tourist intellectually speaking, from the sphere of unknown into the sphere of well known. In the other hand, tour guides also are in a potentially influential position to modify and correct visitor behaviour to ensure that it is environmentally responsible and contributes to environmentally sensitive attitudes (Armstrong & Weiler, 2002)

In the heritage tourism, Interpretation is trying to produce mindful visitors, visitors who are active, questioning and capable of reassessing the way they view the world (Moscardo, 1996). Langer and Moldoveanu (2000) identify several advantage of mindfulness. People who are mindful have greater sensitivity to the environment, more openness to new information, and creation of new categories for structuring perception and enhance awareness of multiple perspectives in problem solving.

The Problem

According to Salma and Halim (2009), for decades, George Town's heritage was missed by tourist heading for the beaches and still, ignored and neglected by the locals. This phenomena start to change when in July 2008, George Town were jointed inscribed on the World Heritage List by the UNESCO. Starting from that time, many tourist either local or foreign start to attract to the heritage sites in Penang as their tour destination.

Thus, there must be a balance in sustainability and tourist development to ensure that consequences by tourist actors lead to responsible behaviour. Responsible behaviour by the tourist can avoid vandalism to occur at the heritage sites. This is important because according to Moscardo (1996), one of the dangers to built heritage sites arguably results from the inappropriate behaviour of visitors such as touching delicate surfaces, littering and vandalism. Therefore, the lack of responsibility and careless packaging of tourism destinations as mass tourism can be damaging to the tourism industry in the long run (Chui et al., 2011).

Based on Al-hagla, (2010) sustainability of tourism development in historic areas depends on the communications among all of the visitors, the host place, the locals and the key players in cultural tourism. Hence, by providing tourist with information on where to go, how to behave, and highlighting the consequences of behaviour that creates a negative impact on environment are important because heritage sites are non-renewable resources that are fascinating links to a diverse past.

Thus, without suitable presentation and appreciation of what is being conserved, heritage sites potentially become meaningless and understanding of human history is lost and some people do not recognize or respect the heritage values of the site as perceived by the majority of the community. They see it more as a place for basic human needs (Grimwade & Carter, 2000).

In the other hand, according to Schouten (1995), visitor does not come to the museums, visitor centre and heritage sites to learn something although they still insist on saying so in all the visitor survey. Visitors behaviour at the heritage sites is more akin to window-shopping than to the intelligently acquisition of new knowledge. Thus, many tourists seem to need a guide since such visitors frequently break social rules and intrude upon others privacy (McDonnell, 2001).

Therefore, according to Ap and Wong (2001), tour guides are one of the key front-player in the tourism industry, hence, through their knowledge and interpretation of a destination's attractions and culture, and their communication and serve skills, they have the ability to transform the tourists visit from a tour into an experience. Besides that, tour guides play an important role in producing mindful visitor who have greater learning, satisfaction and thinking about new approach to behave in recreation-based settings (Frauman & Norman, 2004) from their effective interpretation.

Research Objectives and Research Questions

The overall objective of this study is to analyse the effectiveness of tour guides interpretation of the heritage sites in creating mindful tourist amongst the local and foreign tourists.

Specifically the objectives of the research are as follows:

- To examine the level of tourists mindfulness with the presence of tour guide as interpreter at the heritage site
- To examine the most effective interpretation by tour guides in creating mindful tourists.
- To examine the effects of mindfulness towards the tourists satisfaction at the heritage sites
- To examine the effects of mindfulness towards the tourists learning experience at the heritage sites
- To examine the effects of mindfulness towards the tourists understanding of the heritage sites.

Based on these directions, the research questions can be formulated as follows:

RQ1: What is the state of tourist mindfulness at the heritage sites after the tour with tour guides as interpreter?

RQ2: What is the most effective tour guide's interpretation in creating mindful tourist at the heritage sites?

RQ3: What are the effects of mindfulness towards the tourist's satisfaction at the heritage sites?

RQ4: What are the effects of mindfulness towards the tourist's learning experience at the heritage sites?

RQ5: What are the effects of mindfulness towards the tourist understands of the heritage sites?

Literature Review

Penang as Heritage Tourism

According to Zeppal and Hall in Chhabra (2010), heritage tourism can be define as a special interest travel whose aspects range from the examination of physical remains of the past and natural landscapes to the experience of local cultural traditions. Besides that, heritage tourism has also seen as travel that provides an authentic experience and communicates the lives, events or accomplishments of past people (Pinter, 2005). The same definition was given by The National Trust for Historic Preservation in Hargrove (2002) with Pinter, heritage tourism is travelling to experience the places, artefacts and activities that authentically represent the stories and people of the past and present.

Thus, Poria, Reichel and Biran (2006) identified two approaches that can be answered the question of what heritage tourism is. The first approach was by Garrod and Fyall. They emphasize on the presence of the individual in spaces exhibiting historic artefacts or at locations classified as heritage spaces. The next approach is by Poria, Butler and Airey. They in the other hand were emphasizing on the link between the individual and the heritage presented; this is the perception of the site in relation to the individual's own heritage. For Bonn et al (2007), heritage tourism, whether defined as visits to cultural settings or visits to spaces considered by the visitors as relevant to their own heritage, is one of the fastest growing tourism sectors.

Penang is one of the top destinations tourism in Malaysia that receives over 3 million tourists that come from both domestic and international. With an urban history of more than 200 years, Georgetown, the capital city of Penang is well known for its heritage building. These buildings are mainly low-rise two or three-storey buildings in which the residents used to work downstairs typically in their family businesses and live upstairs (NorAini, Mui, Meng & Fern, 2007). According to Khoo (1994), almost 10% of the pre-war houses in Georgetown were from the 1850s, around the 30% from the 1850s to 1900s, with the remaining 60% were built between 1900 and 1930. Although with the population growth and development pressure, the real properties in the inner city of Georgetown have remained essentially unchanged since they were built in the late 1800s and early 1900s.

George Town, the historic capital of Penang was inscribed as the UNESCO World Heritage Site alongside with Malacca on 7 July 2008. It is officially recognized as having a unique architectural and cultural townscape without parallel anywhere in the East and Southeast Asia region. Penang Cultural Traits and Heritage represents a mature. Starting from that time, many tourist either local or foreign start to attract more to the heritage sites in Penang as their tour destination.

When planned and managed effectively heritage tourism can realize positive impacts that include building community pride, enhancing a community's sense of identity, contributing to community stability, providing employment opportunities, and ensuring that cultural and historic sites are preserved and maintained. When poorly managed heritage tourism can be devastating, leading to culture commoditization, encouraging gentrification that displaces long-established residents

and undermines local traditions and ways of life and causing damage to resources from inappropriate treatments and uncontrolled visitation (Pinter, 2005).

Interpretation at the Heritage Sites

For the heritage sites, interpretation in Grimwade and Carter (2000) is primarily about explaining significance and meaning. It requires research, planning and strategic consideration of what are the best media forms to use and the principle messages to be conveyed to targeted audiences. It must present the meaning behind the artefact, or site which crates value and significance.

Moscardo in Rabotic (2008), all similar definition of interpretation have in common three features. Firstly, interpretation is more often viewed as a form of communication whose aim is to stimulate with the public an interest in self learning and the ability of observation. Secondly, helping people to understand a place or culture, interpretation generates support for the preservation of the place and culture. Thirdly, interpretation can be seen as a management strategy of tourism, recreation, natural and cultural resources.

Along the process of interpretation, it involves two components, both a programme and an activity (Alderson and Low, 1987). The programme establishes a set of objectives for the things that we want our tourist to understand. The activity has to do with the skills and techniques by which that understanding is created. Therefore, in order to monitor continually the effectiveness of interpretation programmes, it would be helpful if it can measure the tourist retention of knowledge. Within the interpretation environment, the two keys of variables are the tangible physical components of setting and the intangible service component of the presenter who seeks to make sense or interpret the setting for the audience (Ryan and Dewar, 1995).

Thus, Knudson, Cable and Beck in Wearing, Archer, Moscardo and Schweinbergh (2007) listed six objectives for interpretation indicating the wide scope of activity inherent in the concept. They are 1) To increase the visitors understanding, awareness and appreciation of nature of heritage and of site resource. 2) To communicate messages relating to nature and culture, including cultural and historical processes, ecological relationships and human roles in the environment. 3) To involve people in nature and history through first hand (personal) experience with the natural and cultural environment. 4) To affect the behaviour and attitudes of the public concerning the wise use of natural resources, the preservation of cultural and natural heritage, and the respect and concern for the natural and cultural environment. 5) To provide enjoyable and meaningful experience and 6) To increase the public understanding and support for an agency's roles.

In the other hand Putney and Wagar in Ryan & Dewar (1995) cited that the objectives of interpretation are enhancing visitor enjoyment, orientation of the public to the facilities of attraction of the areas, alerting visitors to the positive and negative effects of environmental modification, obtaining public involvement in protection and conservation and informing the public of the resource management activities as being appropriate a view that many would maintain.

Interpretation typically can be divided into verbal and non verbal interpretation, or a combination of both. According to Zeppel and Muloin in (Lo & Hallo, 2011), Non-verbal interpretation can be seen in printed material of tourist attractions and physical settings at the site. Brochures and onsite interpretive signs and displays are very common in both indoor and outdoor attractions, such as

museums and theme parks. Non-verbal interpretation can influence visitors' understanding and emotional experience of the visited attraction.

Verbal interpretation in the other hand is mostly provided by tour guides or on-site interpreters. Good verbal interpretation should meet some requirements, such as using specific terms in order to widen visitors' awareness of the history of the site and to help to give a sense of place to visitors and presenting the site and its culture through acquired knowledge and personal experience in order to enhance the level of authenticity. Although non-verbal interpretation plays an important role in educating visitors about the attraction, verbal interpretation seems more direct and important in not only providing visitors with information, but also improving their experience and meeting management objectives in terms of tourist behaviour and tourist respect toward the site

Kong (2010) in contrast highlights interpretation into factual style and interpretive style. Factual style is just like giving factual information to recipients without further explanation about the object being discussed. This type of knowledge transfer tends to be one-way communication and makes the tourists feel bored during the tour. Interpretive style on the other hand, reveals an interesting form of narration and conveys meaningful message to the recipients compared to the factual style which simply telling factual information (Nurbaidura, Abdul Ghapar, Badaruddin & Hairul Nizam, 2012)

Some scholars claim interpretation as an important educational tool for providing visitors with sufficient information in environmental or nature based tourism (Moscardo et al., 2004). Interpretation provides quality information on the natural environment for tourists, while programmers help in developing informative trails, information packs, brochures, signs and all sorts of materials about the local environment and nature. In educative component of the visitor experience still represents a primary motivation for their work as interpreters and indeed as custodians of a county's culture. If therefore, interpreters play roles in order to entertain, it is because it is seen as a means to educate (Ryan & Dewar, 1995).

Reisinger and Steiner, (2006) suggest that interpretation is an educational activity which aims to reveal meanings and relationships to people about the places they visit and the things they see 'through the use of original objects, by firsthand experience, and by illustrative media, rather than simply to communicate factual information. Tourists that are able to understand the place, tend to appreciate the place better as they are able to distinguish their actions that may have impact at the heritage site

Tour Guide as Interpreter

Tourists nowadays tend to interpret everything they experience in their own way, influence both by initially formed ideas and expectations or upon regarding the concrete tour beneficial to themselves (Ooi, 2002). Thus, Cohen in Rabotic (2010) sees this function of guides in International Transcultural Tourism is oriented at interpretation. Tour guides use interpretation to convey tourist intellectually speaking, from the sphere of unknown into the sphere of well known. In the other hand, tour guides also guide is in a potentially influential position to modify and correct visitor behaviour to ensure that it is environmentally responsible and contributes to environmentally sensitive attitudes (Armstrong & Weiler, 2002)

Not only that, The guides tour is a powerful tool in ensuring that visitors adhere to the designated paths and walkways, and the communication skill of the

interpreters are important in retaining the interest of visitors and reinforcing predispositions not to stray from marked paths(Ryan & Dewar, 1995).

Therefore, tour guides seems to play a role as a heritage interpreter which is an individual who interacts with participants to provide interest, to promote understanding, and to encourage a positive experience of a natural, historical, or cultural theme. The interpreter presents information by relating the subject to the participant s frame of reference, through, for example, culture, ethnicity, or language. Interpreters can work at, but are not limited to, parks, museums, aquariums, historic sites, art galleries, zoos, industrial sites, interpretive centres, botanical gardens, cultural centres, adventure travel sites, nature sanctuaries, and tour companies. (Heritage Interpreter (HEI) 2.0, May 2007).

Reisinger and Steiner (2006) in the other hand argued that guide tours could be effective instruments used by governments to control tourists and their contacts with a host society and to disseminate images and information preferred by the authorities. Not only that, Some scholars point out that tour guides may have their own agendas based on their country's social cultural, historical political and economic contexts or on their employment situation(Ap & Wong, 2001). Their interpretation may be self-serving or conformist narratives but Lo and Hallo (2011) identify because of the insufficient information is provided at the heritage site, tourists are likely to turn to tour guides for more information. Thus, tour guides become important for educating tourists about the significance of the heritage sites.

According to Poria, Reichel and Biran (2006), tourists seek the different interpretation for the different experience. Therefore, tourists who went to the historic settings are a heterogeneous segment and as such, they need a various interpretation in order to meet their expectation more successfully.

Therefore, According to Reisinger and Steiner (2006), by using clear, simple explanations to reduce the gap between the information and visitor's current knowledge also humour, analogies, metaphor, opportunities to ask questions, provision of variety and structuring logically presented information help to build links between the interpretative content and the everyday experience visitor can provide a good interpretation to the tourists. Besides that, a knowledgeable, well structured commentary delivered in an interesting manner is an essential ingredient of coach tourist satisfaction. The respondents are more than happy with the cultural interpretive information given by the guide (McDonnell, 2001).

Moscardo (1996) in the other hand, identifies three main ways in which interpretation can contribute to the quality of visitor's experience. These are: 1) providing information on the available options so tourists can make the best choice what they do and where to go. 2) Providing information to encourage safety and comfort so tourists know how to cope with and better manage encountered difficulties and understand message given by the warning sign. 3) Creating the actual experience so tourists can participate in activities such as guide walks, eco tours, visit art galleries, fauna sanctuaries or zoos and learn in areas of educational interest, therefore, several principles for designing more effective interpretation can be derived. They are variety, personal connection, participation, clear content and accommodating to tourist's characteristics (Moscardo, 1998).

Research from Nurbaidura, Abdul Ghapar, Badaruddin and Hairul Nizam(2012) on Heritage awareness among tour operator in heritage sites : A case study of rickshaw pullers in Melaka identify attributes that indirectly will influence the interpretation or storytelling and the quality of tourists' experience while visiting the heritage city of Melaka. There are six characteristics identified by the

researchers: 1) Two-way communications 2) Respond to audience need 3) Speak more than two languages 4) Friendly 5) Good listener 6) Happy to take questions. In this study it proves that interpreters are able to increase the quality of tourists' experience through their good interpretations.

In the addition, among different forms of interpretation, tours by heritage guide have the most influence on the visitors' experience, understanding and enjoyment of heritage. Good interpretation will not only improve tourists' experience but also encourage repeat visitation by the tourists as it will generate sustainable economy to the local community. (Nurbaidura, Abdul Ghapar, Badaruddin & Hairul Nizam, 2012).

A good interpretation by tour guides as interpreters are important for the visitor at the heritage sites since it will help them discover and understand the meanings of these sites. For those visitors who already relate to the site, interpreters offers opportunities to discover a broader understanding, to see the sites with new eyes (Larsen et al., 2007). Other than that, study by Wearing and Archer (2002) in "The Case of Adventure Tour Guiding" show that the interpretive space and the experience becomes a place for interaction and learning and the participant does not damage or destroy the space but can expand self to allow nature to become part of self. Hence interaction between the visitors and tour guide forms an exchange of influence that creates a social value of the site for the participant involved that effects a change in self and identity.

Rabotic (2008) in the other hand found out those tourists from other countries frequently quitting tours before the end because it was difficult and not interesting enough to listen the commentary with no elementary knowledge of local history even when the guides had an excellent command of a foreign language in order to translate the interpretation.

Moscardo (1996), identifies that interpretation is trying to produce mindful visitors, visitors who are active, questioning and capable of reassessing the way they view the world. McArthur and Hall as cited in Moscardo (1996) state that interpretation can help control the access of sites to tourists and control how tourists move through sites. This can help preserve sites by ensuring that the sites' respective carrying capacities are not exceeded. They found that tourists who had mindful predispositions were more likely to be influenced by 'nature orientated activities' and 'mindful' information services. They also found that mindful tourists desired experiences that encouraged learning, spending time with family, excitement, and escape.

Mindfulness

Mindfulness is an ancient concept (Dane, 2011) which is originated in Buddhist philosophy (Thomas, 2006). It is an English translation of the Pali word; "*sati*" connotes awareness, attention and remembering (Siegel, Germer and Olendzki, 2008). The roots of mindfulness lies in various lines of thought extending back over two millennia (Brow et al, 2007). Mindfulness in Buddhist tradition occupies a central role in a system that was developed as a path leading to the cessation of personal suffering (Silananda, 1990).

According to Siegel, Germer and Olendzki, (2008), the definition of mindfulness has been somewhat modified for its use in psychotherapy and it now encompasses a broad range of ideas and practices. In the Buddhism definition of mindfulness, the whole idea is about awareness, attention and remembering. Dane

(2007) has pointed out that awareness, attention and remembering are present when a sniper with malice in his heart, aims at the innocent victim. From Siegel, Germer and Olendzki (2008) point of view, they see that awareness is inherently powerful and attention which is focused, awareness is still powerful. Just by becoming aware of what is occurring within and around us, we can begin to untangle ourselves from mental pre-occupations and difficult emotion.

In contrast, Germer et al (2005) suggest that to define mindfulness, the important elements that we need to mention are 1) awareness, 2) of present experience and 3) with acceptance. Hence, the definition given by Kabat-Zinn (2005) is consist the elements that suggested which is mindfulness as an open hearted, moment to moment, non-judgmental awareness or the maintenance of awareness on the present moment with the quality of that awareness being one of acceptance and compassion.

Other than that, mindfulness also can be defined as a state of consciousness in which attention is focused on present moment phenomena occurring both external and internally (Dane, 2011). Mindfulness entails attending to external and internal phenomena because they are both part of the present moment (Brown & Ryan, 2004). According to Ansburgh and Hill (2003), in a state of mindfulness, individuals are attend to a relatively large number of external and internal phenomena which suggest that with regard to its intentional breadth on the number and range of stimuli attended during a given period of time. In contrast, Bishop et al. (2004) argue that mindfulness mainly has relevance to situation in which there are no external demand to negotiate

To be mindful, Boyatzis and McKee (2005) suggest that we must first wake up to our inner experience and attend consciously to these insights. But it doesn't stop there; mindfulness includes paying attention to what happening around us that is being acutely aware and seeking deep understanding of people, our surrounding, the natural world and events. Then we must do something with our perceptions, feelings and thoughts. Langer and Moldoveanu (2000) identify several advantage of mindfulness. People who are mindful have greater sensitivity to the environment, more openness to new information, and creation of new categories for structuring perception and enhance awareness of multiple perspectives in problem solving.

In the heritage tourism, Interpretation is trying to produce mindful visitors, visitors who are active, questioning and capable of reassessing the way they view the world (Moscardo, 1996). Moscardo, in the journal *Mindful visitor: Heritage and tourism* (1996) proposed mindfulness model of visitor behaviour and cognition at built heritage site (Figure 1)

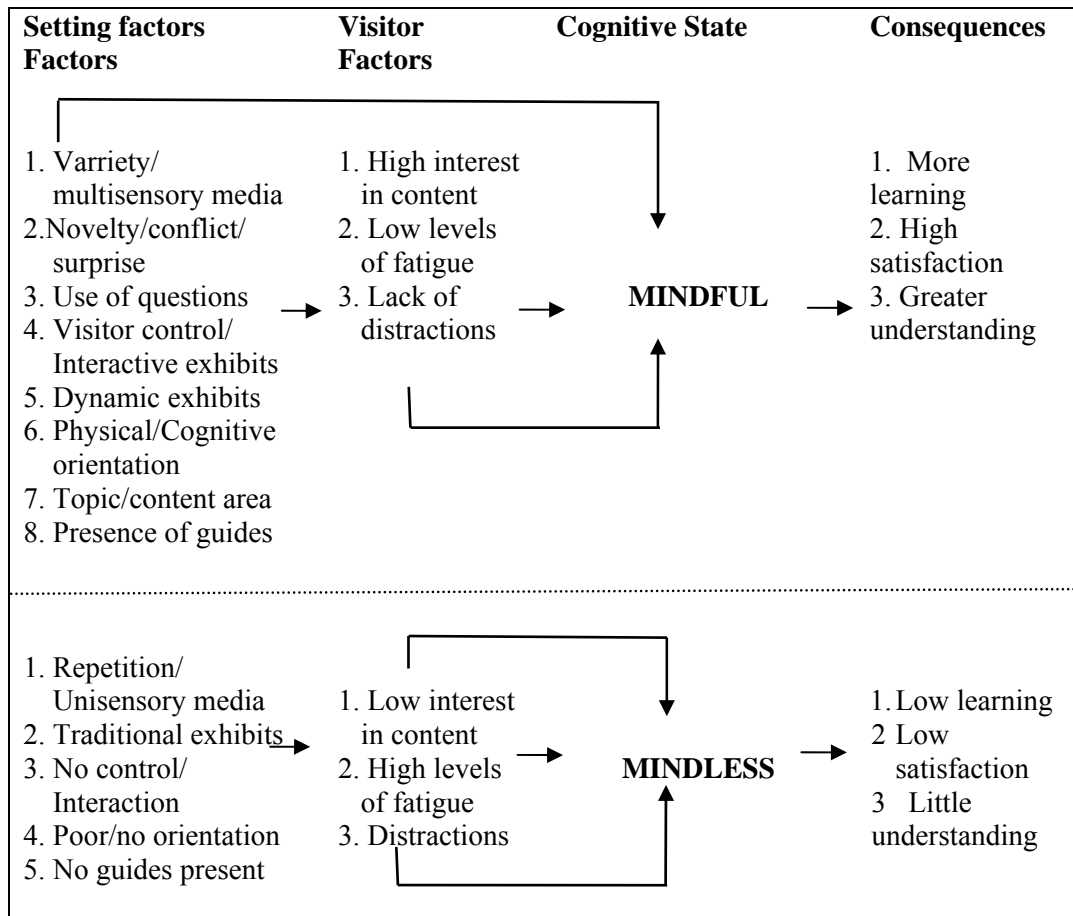


Figure 1: Mindfulness model (Moscardo, 1996)

Theoretically, interpretations are closely related to mindfulness (Moscardo & Pearce, 1986). McArthur and Hall (1993), as cited in Moscardo, (1996) state that interpretation can help control the access of sites to tourists and control how tourists move through sites. This can help preserve sites by ensuring that the sites' respective carrying capacities are not exceeded. They found that tourists who had mindful predispositions were more likely to be influenced by 'nature orientated activities' and 'mindful' information services. They also found that mindful tourists desired experiences that encouraged learning, spending time with family, excitement, and escape.

Method

The method use in this study is quantitative method utilising a survey of tourists at the heritage sites in Penang. The main rationale for selecting this method is the use of numbers and statistics. The quantifying abstract concepts provide a way to isolate variable and gain knowledge about concepts that would otherwise remain hidden. This study took place over 3 week period in October 2012 at the Penang World Heritage Sites. Two hundred tourists who tour with tour guide were chosen as the respondents for this study. Self – administered surveys were distributed to the tourists after they tour with their tour guide. The survey consists of 2 section where the section A involved demographic questions and for the section B tourists were ask to

indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 from strongly disagree to strongly agree about the tour guide's interpretation developed by Moscardo (1998) that consist five factor of effective interpretation. The factors are variety, personal connection, participation, clear content and accommodating to tourist characteristics. The mindfulness scale developed by Moscardo (1992) and used by Frauman and Norman (2003,2004) was also included in the questionnaire. The questions asked the tourist "when tour with the tour guide i....." and followed by seven items intended to measure mindfulness. (Had my interest captured, searched for answers to questions i may have, had my curiosity aroused, inquired further about things, felt involved in what was going around me and felt in control of what was going on around me). Last but not least, tourists were asked about their learning experience, level of understanding and level of satisfaction. These are all the sequences of the mindful tourist.

Results

The majority of respondents were female (59%), between age 16-25 (48.5%), and finished their secondary and high school (45.5%). Most of them are Malaysian (59%) and had 1 time experienced (47%) visited Penang World Heritage Sites.

To see the relationship between tour guide's interpretation and tourist's level of mindfulness, regression analysis was carried out. The dependent variable under examination was the mindfulness factor and the dependent variable included were variety, personal connection, participation, clear content and accommodating to tourist characteristics. All the independent variables have relationship with the dependent variable with the correlation value above .3. For the correlation between each of the independent variable, all the value of bivariate correlation for each independent variable is less than .7; therefore all variable will be retained in the model. The R square value was .460 means that the overall model explained 46% of the variance in Mindfulness and the Sig value was .000 where $p < .0005$, thus the model in this research had the statistical significance.

In the other hand, the data also shows that the variable that made the strongest unique contribution to explain the Mindfulness were clear content followed by participation, personal connection, variety and last but not least was accommodating to tourist characteristics.

The relationship between level of mindfulness and learning, level of mindfulness and understanding, and level of mindfulness and satisfaction were analyzed by conducting regression analysis on one by one where learning, understanding, and satisfaction were the dependent variable and mindfulness scale was the independent variables. Result indicated that level of mindfulness did effect tourist learning ($p < .000$) and explained 38.5% of the variance in learning, level of mindfulness also did effect tourist understanding ($p < .000$) and explained 51.7% of the variance in understanding and lastly for the satisfaction, level of mindfulness also did effect tourist satisfaction ($p < .000$) and explained 52.9% of the variance in satisfaction.

Conclusion

These present study provides some support for the mindfulness model presented by Moscardo (1996). Tour guide's interpretation as one of the setting factor in Moscardo model (1996) did affect the level of tourist's mindfulness, which in turn affects the tourist's learning, understanding and satisfaction. The result of this study shows that

there was a significant relationship between tour guide's interpretation and creating mindful tourist, and their learning, understanding and satisfaction. Moscardo (1998) suggested that 5 principles for designing effective interpretation and it is supported by present study where the most effective tour guide's interpretation preferred by the tourist's in order for them to be mindful are clear content followed by participation, personal connection, variety and last but not least was accommodating to tourist characteristics. Effective interpretation prepare by tour guide is very important since it will develop a rich and meaningful appreciation for a place even when they have only been at the destination for a very short time (Stewart et al., 1998) and it is also can create tourist who not only appreciate the site but who have some understanding of the region or nation that the site is a part of and can make a substantial contribution to the sustainability of tourism in general (Moscardo, 1996).

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Knowledge On Lenggong Place Attractions: Perspectives From Local Communities

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Level of knowledge on place attractions by local community is crucial in transforming and promoting a destination as tourist attractions. The purpose of this study is to find out the level of knowledge and perceptions on Lenggong Valleys' place attributes and attractions from local communities. Lenggong Valley which has unique and outstanding archeogeological and heritage products, has been declared as a world heritage site on 30th June 2012 by UNESCO, a worldwide organization for educational, scientific, and culture. Unfortunately, the finding of a survey on 500 residences in Lenggong Valley area shows that, the knowledge of the locals on Lenggong place attractions is low. About 67.8% did not know the Toba volcanic ash in Bukit Sapi and 65.6% never knew the existing of Bukit Bunuh, an area with exposed impactites since Middle-Early Pleistocene. Since their understanding is less inclusive, this paper will suggest several activities such as heritage fair, site tour and mobile exhibition for further actions by destination manager. It is the intention of this paper to bring to discussion these issues as part of strategies to develop and improve Lenggong's competitive advantages as one of the world's popular tourism destinations in the future.

Key words: local community, place attraction, place attribute, competitive advantages

Introduction

Knowledge plays an important role in all spheres of human life and activity. According to Oxford Dictionary, knowledge can be thought of as the use of skills and experience to add intelligence to information in order to make decisions or provide reliable grounds for action. It is stated that the use of knowledge is central to informed decisions and policymaking in a post-industrial society (Xiao and Smith, 2007) and as an essential component of community capacity building (Bopp et al., 2002). So, the level of knowledge plays an important role in the progress of human activities and development. Thus, the role of knowledge is also crucial for the development in tourism sector.

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Knowledge has influencing local community responses to tourism thus become an important source and is regarded as a tool to assist in tourism development in local communities (Aref and Ma'rof, 2008; Aref et al. 2009). This is because knowledge is needed to effectively implement the community development process in tourism destination such as in context of awareness and understanding of key topics relevant to the tourism development issue, in getting organized for or involved in tourism activity and in obtaining and the information that is available on policy, government programs and services tourism related issues. Thus, having inadequate knowledge negatively impacts a community's ability to effectively influence and develop tourism policy (Atkisson, et al., 2003). According to Moscardo (2008), the lack of tourism knowledge is a critical barrier that not only directly limits the ability of local people to participate in tourism development but also contribute to the lack of local tourism leadership.

Finding of several studies such as by Hunt (2005) McGinty (2003), Taylor (2003) Cronin (2003) and Hunt (2005) also referred to lack of knowledge in addition to lack of skill as main barriers in local communities for development and community capacity building in tourism. Limited in knowledge also has been used in many developing countries to justify the exclusion of local residents and other community stakeholders from involvement in marketing decisions in tourism markets (Moscardo, 2008). Accordingly Hall, et al. (2005), added that limited skill and knowledge of tourism can contribute to false expectations about the benefits of tourism and a lack of preparedness for the change associated with tourism, and limits opportunities for locals to benefits from tourism business opportunities.

Thus, synthesis from the above discussion show that lack of knowledge especially among the local community can lead to negatives outcomes to tourism development planning in their area. There should be a high correlation between the lack of knowledge and the negative outcomes of tourism development in the local community perspectives. It is imperatives to note that level of knowledge is central to the development of tourism industry, not only because tourism has a close connection with the local communities, particularly as hosts and guides, but also because it contributes to sense of place and to increase competitive advantages of a place and in transforming and promoting a destination as tourist attractions. Cole (2006) agreed with remarks because any different layers and sources of knowledge relating to tourism may serve to stimulate individual and group attitudes regarding tourism, thus influencing local community responses and involvement in tourism activities that leads to getting local community support for the industry and also acts as a crucial component to achieving sustainable development of the industry.

Based on the issues that have been discussed above, it is crucial to know the level of tourism knowledge among the local community when developing tourism destination products such as in Lenggong Valley. Lenggong Valley is located in Hulu Perak district, about 50 km north of Kuala Kangsar and 90km from Ipoh and 52 km from Gerik . Lenggong Valley, has been declared as the world heritage site on 30th June 2012 by UNESCO, a specialized agency in United Nations (UN) that promote the exchange of culture, ideas, and information. The award is timely because Lenggong Valley is a famous centre for the development of human civilization since the Paleolithic time.

According to Archeological Heritage of the Lenggong Valley (AHLV) Nomination Dossier (Department of National Heritage, 2011), there are four outstanding universal values which made Lenggong Valley a Unesco heritage site. The first reason is because Lenggong Valley has one of the Longest Culture Sequence

in a Single Locality in the World. Evidence for continued hominid presence in Lenggong Valley is found in a long chronological series of in-situ open-air stone tool workshop sites extending from Bukit Jawa (200,000 - 100,000 years), to Kota Tampan (70,000 years), and to a later Bukit Bunuh BBH 2001 (40,000 years). The second reason is because of the numerous undisturbed *In-Situ* stone tool workshops found in Lenggong Valley. In other words, the evidence in the area is still authentic because it is in permanent place of origin, on-site open and undisturbed by interference and modernizing current time. Thirdly, the discovery of Perak Man, a unique Palaeolithic Skeleton with *Brachymesophalangia* type A2 at Gua Gunung Runtuh is the most complete skeletons found in Southeast Asia that represent life 10,000 years ago. Finally, the fourth reason, all of the archeological resources derived from indirect evidence such as the preserved Palaeolithic stone tools i.e. hand axe, the chopper and the flake tools in the melted suevite formed by the meteorite impact at Bukit Bunuh which strike 1.83 million years ago proved the very early hominid presence outside Africa (Department of National Heritage, 2011).

Based on the strength of the place, Lenggong Valley yearning to become a major tourist destination should be materializing easily. Hence the importance of local community knowledge towards tourism should be researched more widely, so that the significance of the knowledge and its benefit to the local community is understandable. This issue is also in line with the government's objective to make the local communities in the Lenggong Valley having some awareness, sensitivity and participation in any development especially tourism development in the area. For the State of Perak, this is a valuable destination to attract more visitors to Perak this year, in conjunction with the Visit Perak Year 2012 and many years ahead.

Research Objective

It can be seen that, knowledge is needed to effectively implement the community development process in tourism destination. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to find out the level of knowledge and perceptions on Lenggong Valleys' place attributes and attractions from local communities perspectives. The objective of this study is to examine and explore the local respondents' knowledge of unique attractions in Lenggong Valley. Subsequently we will know the profile of local respondents in Lenggong Valley. Lastly the study will suggest several activities as part of strategies to improve the local tourism knowledge so that it will help to develop and improve Lenggong's competitive advantages as one of the world's popular tourism destinations in the future.

Research Method

For this study, a total of 500 residents were selected from a total of 18,990 local populations through a simple random sampling method. Lenggong Municipal District consists of three sub-districts. Sub-district Lenggong consist of 9 villages, sub-district Durian Pipit has 5 villages and sub-district Temelong consists of 5 villages. Therefore, about 30 respondents were selected randomly from each of these villages in the district. Survey questions are used as research instrument that has been established based on preliminary observations and research needs. Question of the survey consists of 4 parts as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Division of Survey Questions

Part	Content	Total Questions
Part A	Respondent Background	12
Part B	Destination Branding	30
Part C	Knowledge on Destination Attraction	24

The selected respondents were visited by a research assistant to answer the survey questions between March and April 2012, about 3 months before the heritage site declaration was announced. The researcher read each question to the respondents and they are given enough time to choose an answer. In average about 25 minutes was consumed by each respondent to answer all questionnaires. Of the 500 people contacted, only 489 respondents were able to answer fully all questions asked. For incomplete and those not fully answered it was filled with '999' and is referred as missing value.

The data obtained were analyzed by using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 20. Part A, B, and C were using descriptive statistics where frequency distribution and percentage is used to determine the profile of the respondents. In addition, reliability test of the instruments used is tested by Cronbach Alpha procedure. Results of the analysis are shown in Table 2. All parts of the question are classified according to their characteristic. For example the characteristic of the Lenggong branding is classified into the environmental, historical, cultural, industrial village and world heritage status. Fortunately, all of these elements got alpha value of more than 0.9. However, the knowledge on Lenggong attraction is divided into places of interest and historical values with alpha value of 0.8 and 0.6 respectively. According to Mohd Salleh and Zaidatun (2001) and Mohd Najib (2003), if the value of reliability (Cronbach Alpha) is less than 0.6, then the instruments used in the study are considered to have low reliability status, while the reliability value of more than 0.8, shows that the item is acceptable and reliable.

Table 2: Cronbach Alpha Value Test

Elements	Total Items	Alpha Value
Lenggong Branding	14	0.97
Environmental,	3	0.95
Historical,	3	0.96
Cultural,	3	0.93
Industrial Village	3	0.97
World Heritage Status	2	0.95
Knowledge on Lenggong attraction	10	0.83
Place of interest	7	0.81
Historical values	3	0.56
Total	24	0.89

Results And Discussion

Respondent Background

Table 3 show the complete profile of the respondents of this study. Of the 500 respondents, 47.8% (239) are male and 52.2% (261) are female. Majority of the

respondents are self-employed (54.8%) and only 16.2% are with government sector. A total of 47.0% of the population has a regular job status and respondents mostly (49.0%) had one year until 5 years of working experience. About 59.4% of the respondents are married, and the Malay ethnic is the majority in the Lenggong area with 59.4% compared to the Chinese (24.4%), India (16.0%) and other races (0.2%). Almost all of the respondents (90.4%) are the origin population of Lenggong with majority of them are antecedent of Pattani people from Thailand. However, only 3.4% of respondents have at least bachelor's degree and about 34.4% of the respondents have completed their SPM level. It is interesting to note that almost 52.2% of the respondents have their monthly household income of less than RM1000. Only 2.8% of respondents earning is more than RM3001. This statistic indicates that majority of local residents are in lower income category and surely their economic status has some significant effect on the finding of this study.

Table 3: Profile of Respondent

Profile	Classification (n = 500)	Frequency (f)	Percentages (%)
Sex	Male	239	47.8
	Female	261	52.2
Age	<19	74	14.8
	20-29	88	17.6
	30-39	86	17.2
	40-49	68	13.6
	50-59	90	18.0
	>60	94	18.8
Employment Sector	Government Sector	81	16.2
	Private Sector	145	29.0
	Self-employment	274	54.8
Employment Status	Permanent job	235	47.0
	Part time job	112	22.4
	Without job	153	30.6
Employment Experience	1-5 years	245	49.0
	6-10 years	114	22.8
	11-15 years	72	14.4
	16-20 years	24	4.8
	>21 years	45	9.0
Marriage Status	Married	297	59.4
	Single	162	32.4
	Divorcees	39	7.8
	999	2	0.4
Ethnic Group	Malay	297	59.4
	Chinese	122	24.4
	Indian	80	16.0
	Others	1	0.2
Local Origin	Yes	452	90.4
	No	48	9.6
Education level	Primary School	164	32.8
	Secondary School SPM	108	21.6
	Certificate	172	34.4
	Diploma	39	7.8
	Degree/Master/ PhD	17	3.4

Monthly Household Income	<RM1000	261	52.2
	RM1001-RM2000	185	37.0
	RM2001-RM3000	40	8.0
	>RM3001	14	2.8

Knowledge on Lenggong Attractions

Lenggong Valley has its own attraction especially as archeotourism attractions. The six most important archeological sites are Bukit Bunuh, Bukit Jawa, Kota Tampan, Gua Gunung Runtuh, Gua Teluk Kelawar dan Gua Harimau. Bukit Bunuh covers about more than 4 square km of palm oil areas located at the longitude of 10° 058.5 East and latitude of 5° 4.5 North. Bukit Bunuh is also declared as one of the National Archaeological Heritage 2012 (Buku Perisytiharan Warisan Kebangsaan (2012). However, when the local respondents were ask about this National Heritage, the finding was astonishing. The result shows that about 65.6% of respondents do not know about Bukit Bunuh. While only 21.0% of respondent knew and 11.2% of respondents could not care less about the existent of Bukit Bunuh.

In addition to Bukit Bunuh, the presence of ash from the last catastrophic Toba volcanic eruption in Sumatera Indonesia around 74,000 to 70,000 years ago in the area, particularly Bukit Sapi, also contributes to comprehensive anecdote of Lenggong Valley. In Bukit Sapi, a small area with the ash along the main road has been designated as tourist attraction. The result of the study indicates that about 67.8% of respondents do not know about the ash in Bukit Sapi. Only 19.4% of respondent knew and 11.2% of respondents could not care less about the significant of the Toba ash in the area.

Table 4 shows the other place attractions available in Lenggong Valley area with percentage of respondent acknowledgement of their existent. The findings show that 51.2% (256) of respondents knew that Lenggong Valley has more than 13 famous, unique and significant caves scattered in the northern part of the area. However, when asked to name the most popular cave, the answer list is embarrassing. The most mentioned cave is Gua Puteri (106 respondents), followed by Gua Kelawar (78 respondents) and the third on the list is Gua Harimau which was mentioned by 40 respondents. Unfortunately, Gua Gunung Runtuh, in Bukit Kepala Gajah, the famous cave where Perak Man was found is only mentioned by 34 respondents.

On the other hand, it was found that, the knowledge of respondent on place element which relate to their immediate, surrounding and daily activities were relatively high. About 67.8% of respondents acknowledged the existing of Orang Asli, 81.4% identify the “Teh Lenggong” brand and 68.2% established that deer are bred in Lenggong area. The finding also show that, 63.6% of them noticed that Lenggong Valley area are regularly used as a background scenery for films, popular advertisements and drama series. They are confident in mentioning the film titles such Sifu and Tonga, Anna and The King, Sesudah Subuh and Penanggal and also the popular Petronas Raya Advertisement which was filmed at Pengkalan Jeti Kampung Beng, near Tasik Raban few year back.

Based on the findings, we can argue that only a small number of respondents had some knowledge about Bukit Bunuh, Bukit Sapi and Gua Gunung Runtuh. Majority or most of them do not know and do not care about the existence of such sites. The result indicated that the local people do not have knowledge or couldn't care less to find out about interesting places in their area which could be tourist attractions. There are various factors that lead to their limited knowledge. After some

basic analysis and observation, we can argue that the limited knowledge of the respondents on place attraction could be the effect of three major reasons. The first reason is related to the popularity of the site with the prehistoric periods, open air sites and artefactual evidence that need scientific explanation and higher level of education to grasp the beneficial and to become the pride of their local heritage. Since they don't understand the fact the places become unpopular to them. The second reason is because of their daily routine, lifestyles and economic activities that are occupying the majority of their time and restricted them from being involved in surrounding issues and matters. In other words, majority of them were in lower income categories, hence they have to work hard for their monthly earning and don't have enough time to be involved in other unimportant matters. The final reason of their limited knowledge is due to the fact that they do not get enough exposure to information and do not get the right information from the local leaders' or the authorities. In other words, the publicity or the marketing of the place is very low. However, the reasoning is not concrete because it is known that there is a monthly meeting by all local community leaders at Majlis Daerah Lenggong to discuss these matters and several programmes being implemented such as Road to World Heritage Carnival in May 2011 to increase public awareness on the importance of these matters.

Table 4: Knowledge of Respondents on Lenggong Attraction

Place Elements	Local Knowledge on Lenggong Attractions (%)				
	Yes	No	Don't care	999	Total
Did you know that Lenggong has more than 13 caves as tourist attraction?	51.2	34.6	12.6	1.6	100
Did you know that Bukit Bunuh is a national treasure?	21.0	65.6	11.2	2.2	100
Did you know that Bukit Sapi has Volcanic Toba ash?	19.4	67.8	11.2	1.6	100
Did you know that Lenggong once owned tea plantations with the brand 'Lenggong Tea'?	81.4	16.0	1.2	1.4	100
Did you know that deer are bred in Lenggong area?	68.2	26.2	4.0	1.6	100
Did you know that Lenggong is also inhabited by the indigenous people?	67.8	25.0	5.6	1.6	100
Did you know that Lenggong has a communist memorial monument?	17.2	75.0	6.2	1.6	100
Did you know that Lenggong has several historical tombs?	30.6	59.8	8.0	1.6	100
Did you know that Lenggong was used to be the location of some adventure movies / dramas / advertisements?	63.6	28.2	6.8	1.4	100
Did you know that Lenggong is surrounded by highlands?	25.2	64.8	8.4	1.6	100

Recommendation And Conclusion

The finding of a survey on 500 residences in Lenggong Valley area shows that, the knowledge in local communities on Lenggong place attractions is low. Since the study was done before the declaration date announced by UNESCO on 30th June 2012, hopefully the level of knowledge among the locals is getting better. It is very detrimental to the development of local tourism if the problem continues. Since knowledge is a significant and critical tool to assist in tourism development in local communities, the lack of it will be a great barrier. As discussed before, limited knowledge would restrict the locals from acquiring information, awareness that is available on tourism related issues and thus could not effectively involve in the tourism development process. This result would surely affect the community capacity building in general. Furthermore, it could be apprehensive when used by certain parties as a reason to exclude the locals from involvement in decisions in tourism development. Thus, it would also limit opportunities for locals to benefit from tourism business activities and opportunities.

Since the understanding of the locals toward place attraction in Lenggong is less inclusive, several actions or activities must be planned and executed immediately. Hopefully such actions will enhance their knowledge and understanding on the matters. As recommendations, two major agendas are suggested. The first is to prepare special and resource for distribution among the locals and visitors of Lenggong Valley. Such resources could comprise of reading materials such as pamphlets, brochures, flyers, local bulletins, regional newspapers, local magazines or books. Additional materials could include short documentaries in CD forms, posters, banners and other promotional material that could be used to raise awareness, knowledge and appreciation of local communities toward their local valueless heritage. The second recommendation is to organize several heritage fairs in selected villages, organizing site tours and implementing mobile exhibitions for the locals and tourists by any destination manager either Majlis Daerah Lenggong or Jabatan Warisan Negara. Activities such as exhibitions, storytellings, drawing competitions, poem readings or treasures hunting could indirectly lead to additional knowledge among the locals. These recommendations are not exclusive, thus additional suggestions are most welcome as the intention of this paper is to bring to discussion these issues as part of strategies to develop and improve Lenggong's image as established tourism destination.

As a conclusion, the above discussion shows that lack of knowledge especially among the local communities can lead to negatives outcomes to tourism development planning in their area. Hopefully the finding indicates by this study will make the Lenggong Valley destination manager and local community leaders be alert and prepare some strategies to tackle these issues. Knowledge of local communities on Lenggong Valley place attractions is certainly crucial. Without knowledge of tourism, they will consider the insignificant of tourism relevance within their daily lives or their communities. It is most disadvantageous when limited knowledge lead to a negative perception from the local residents that tourism could not deliver benefits such as jobs or the opportunities for entrepreneur developments. In additional to economic benefits, tourism development could also contribute to sense of place and increase public pride in this local heritage. As a result it could also increased competitive advantages of a place, especially for Lenggong Valley competitive advantages. Lenggong Valley could be one of the world's popular tourism destinations in the future because Lenggong is a fascinating place with tremendous

archaeological, prehistorical, historical and cultural heritage that is yet to be discovered.

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The Diversity Of Medicinal Plant Resources In Kampung Batu Ring-Kampung Beng: A Case Study Of Lenggong Valley, World Heritage Site

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This ethnomedical survey was conducted in Kampung Batu Ring, part of the small villages included in Kampung Beng, a village commercialized and well known as one of the Homestay villages established in Lenggong District, Hulu Perak. The documentation focuses on the diversity of medicinal plants, its use and dependency of people in Kampung Batu Ring on herbal remedies. The richness of the biodiversity and cultural heritage of Kampung Batu Ring makes it more attractive as a potential traditional village to be commercialized in the tourism aspect. Geographically, it is located in the Piah Reserve Forest valley and mountains in the mid of Banjaran Titiwangsa. Data was obtained from the villagers of fifty most common wild plant species used in daily life in terms of cooking and healthcare. Most of the herbs used are harvested from the forests and being planted around their homeland. The remedies are used internally and externally for treating various ailments from common stomach ache to severe high blood pressure and diabetes. There are several species being consumed as salads especially those which are renown for anti-aging purposes. The practices on the utilization and consumption of these plants in the daily life of the villagers are traditionally transmitted from their great ancestors. Thus, these plant benefits are found to be well known amongst the elderly.

Key words: medicinal plants, remedies, consumption, villagers, Kampung Batu Ring

Introduction

Malaysia has been classified as one of the 12 mega diversity countries of the world. Thus, this signifies for the richness in diversity of wild natural resources in Malaysia's tropical rainforest and useful to be consumed by humankind. The application of wild plants as natural remedies was also practiced since time immemorial. However, the availability and benefit obtained from the wild natural resources are vast amongst the people living in rural areas as compared to the urban people that prefer to live in cities complete with various facilities (Samuel et al., 2010). It has been stated that the dependency of human on biodiversity is for their livelihood, nutrition and health

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(Payyapallimana, 2009), and being influenced by the economical, availability, facilities and geographical facet (Kumari et al., 2011).

Lenggong Valley is located in Hulu Perak district, about 50km north of Kuala Kangsar, the royal town of Perak. A place well known amongst locals as an archaeological site, Lenggong Valley has been declared as a world heritage site on 30th June 2012 by UNESCO, a worldwide organization for educational, scientific and culture. Besides the archeological popularity, Lenggong Valley is also known as a lush landscape profuse with rare and exotic flora diversity.

Geographically, Kampung Batu Ring is one of the sub villages making up the traditional village of Kampung Beng, and being isolated from other villages by Sungai Perak (Figure 1). Readily available and culturally important natural resources are an important source of livelihood for the rural population. The treasure trove inhabiting Kampung Batu Ring especially medicinal plant resources is still little known.

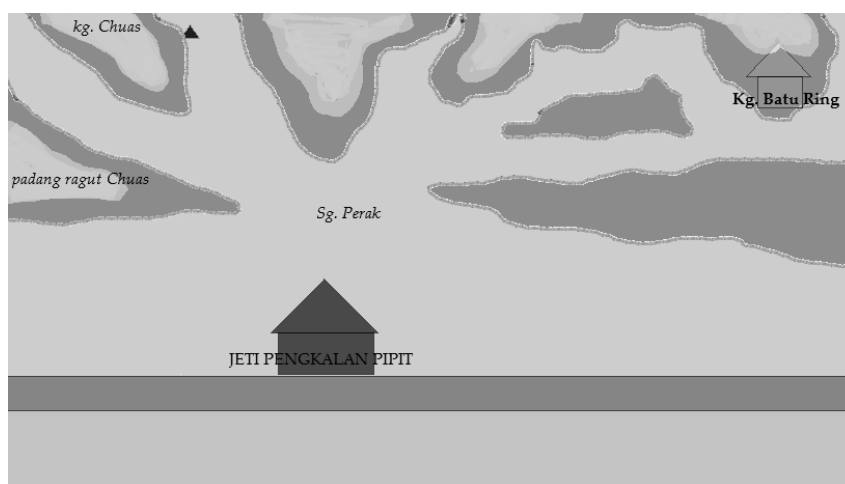


Figure 1: Geographic location of Kampung Batu Ring-Kampung Bang

Medicinal Plants

Medicinal plants form an important component of the rainforest biodiversity. They are the major component of traditional and herbal medicines and are more recently known as medicinal products. Medicinal plants are therapeutic resources much used by the traditional population of the world specifically for the health care. The plants are indeed used by many groups, mainly pharmaceutical and food industries, traditional or alternatives practitioners, folk or household users, and cosmetic and flavour industries (Rates, 2001). These plants are exploited traditionally, for remedy purposes alternatively for human healings and modernly, known as pharmaceuticals (Vandebroek et al., 2004) for resources of new drugs.

Traditional medicine defined as sum of remedy theories in old folk's practices, knowledge and skills, is based on experiences and beliefs diversified according to cultures, religions and philosophies for health maintenance, disease prevention and healing purposes (WHO, 2003). Traditional medicinal practices are common amongst all ethnics in Malaysia including Malays, Chinese, Indians and aborigines; and it is particularly hoped that the knowledge is passed down through many generations. In modern medicine or pharmaceutical formulation, the phytochemical and allopathic constituents derived from the plants are processed industrially and commercially

(Raskin et al., 2002). WHO has also emphasized and provided guidelines to ensure the quality control of medicinal plant products using modern methods.

Generally, medicinal plants are from herbs and woody plants. A report by Khatijah (2006) recorded that there are 1200 plants found in Malaysia that carries the medicinal or pharmaceuticals values. According to Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) statistics, Malaysia has a total of 15,500 plants in nature rich of medicinal properties and yet, only 7.7 % of the plants are exploited worldwide. All parts of the plants have own benefits for treating various ailments based on their percentage of phytochemical and allopathic constituents (Fasihuddin & Ghazali, 2003).

Medicinal plants can be used in two different forms. Firstly, as raw materials for extraction of active compounds or for extraction of abundant but inactive constituents which can be transformed by partial synthesis into active compounds. Secondly, as extracts or as traditional preparations. Plants produce chemical compounds naturally as part of their metabolic reaction. These chemical compounds are divided into primary metabolites such as fats and sugars, and secondary metabolites such as toxins, allelochemicals, phytoalexins, pheromones and many more. The most common phytochemicals used for human remedy are from the secondary metabolites of the plants which may be used directly, extracted or as agents for the synthesis of drugs.

Medicinal plants and their products have taken on increasing medicinal and economic importance. Lack of knowledge in medicinal plants has caused several losses economically and environmentally as reported in Klias Peat Swamp Forest in Sabah, Malaysia by Mojiol et al. (2010). For this reason, this preliminary study aims to record the medicinal plant resources at Kampung Batu Ring-Kampung Beng, especially those species used as traditional remedies. Information gathered will be reviewed and conserved for the coming generations of the community and tourists of Lenggong Valley alike.

Methodology

The easiest way of getting to the strategic location of Kampung Batu Ring-Kampung Beng in Lenggong Valley is by crossing Sungai Perak. It took approximately 20 calm minutes by punting (boating in a punt or *sampan*) from Pangkalan Pipit Jetty to berth by the jetty at Kampung Batu Ring-Kampung Beng. The study was conducted via interactive, spontaneous communication and also formal interviews with twenty five villagers of Kampung Batu Ring-Kampung Beng. Respondents from all walks of life, ranging from 15 to 80 years of age were randomly approached. Most of the common medicinal herbs were easily commented upon by the older generation. The diversification of the plant resources was observed and recorded by touring around the village and surrounded forests.

Result And Discussion

The demographic data of the twenty five respondents from Kampung Batu Ring-Kampung Beng is shown in Tables 1a-e based on gender, marital status, age, education level and occupation respectively. Most respondents have gone through primary and secondary education with majority occupation as a rubber tapper.

Table 1a: Respondents based on gender

Gender	No. of respondents
Male	9
Female	16
Total	25

Table 1b: Respondents based on marital status

Status	No. of respondents
Married	6
Single	17
Total	25

Table 1c: Respondents based on age

Age Range	No. of respondents
< 20	2
20-29	4
30-39	4
40-49	1
50-59	9
>59	5
Total	25

Table 1d: Respondents based on education level

Level of Study	No. of Respondent
Primary school	10
Secondary school	12
Higher education	2
No education	1
Total	25

Table 1e: Respondents based on occupation

Field of Work	No. of respondents
Rubber tapper	13
Cleaner	2
Housewife	7
Student	2
Private sector	1
Total	25

In the study conducted, we have successfully categorized the common 50 species known to possess medicinal properties (information from respondents) into 32 families (Table 2). Most of the plants were observed spreading naturally along the house compounds as tall trees, herbs or shrubs, or growing wildly in surrounding forests (Figure 2).

All the plants recorded are utilized by the locals. Parts of the plants that will be harvested are normally the shoot, flower, leaf, bark, rhizome or the whole plant. These plants are mostly consumed in their daily life as salad followed by as spices and improving healthcare. The villagers use the plants to cure several ailments encountered such as fever, wounds, aches, diarrhea, measles, high blood pressure,

diabetes, gallstone, anti-aging and maternity healing. Parts of shoots and leaves are commonly taken orally to curb diabetes, high blood pressure, gallstones and many more through decoction of the plant parts. The plant parts are also applied externally especially for external injuries or to stop bleeding caused by wounds.

The knowledge on the medicinal properties of these plant parts in treating various ailments was much grasped from the elders especially those who are the village descendants, as opposed to the youngsters. The reasons for the knowledge differences between the older and younger generations may be due to issues of migration, modernization, technology development and lifestyle. The young generations nowadays are mostly not knowledgeable on traditional plant remedies as they are more contented with modern facilities especially in terms of healthcare (Ong et al., 2011). Practices on application of traditional remedies for healthcare, as observed from the study area, are more preferred and appreciated by the older community. This precious knowledge arguably will become a waste, fade and forgotten as time goes by because eventually, the old generation dies without having the opportunity to pass on to non-existent interested parties.

Table 2: Herbal plants used by the villagers of Kampung Batu Ring-Kampung Beng

No	Local name	Scientific name	Family	Part used	Medicinal practices
1	Ara	<i>Ficus sp</i>	Moraceae	Fruit	Bait, Salad
2	Asam gelugor	<i>Garcinia cambogia</i>	Clusiaceae	Fruit	Spices, Ulcer, Maternity
3	Bambu	<i>Azadirachta indica</i>	Meliaceae	Leaf	High Fever, Measles
4	Batu jin	<i>Strobilanthes crispera</i>	Acanthaceae	Leaf	Gallstone, Diabetes
5	Beka / Berelai	<i>Oroxylum indicum</i>	Bignoniaceae	Leaf Fruit Bark	Fever, Gastric, Ulcer <i>*potential anti-cancer</i>
6	Capa	<i>Blumea balsamifera</i>	Asteraceae	Leaf	Fever, Stomach ache, Head ache, Gallstone, High blood pressure, Gout, Maternity
7	Cekur manis	<i>Sauropus androgynus</i>	Phyllanthaceae	Leaf	Fever, Ulcer
8	Duit-duit	<i>Pyrrosia piloselloides</i>	Polypodiaceae	Leaf	Gallstone <i>(thoroughly used with Batu Jin leaves)</i>
9	Halia	<i>Zingiber officinale</i>	Zingiberaceae	Rhizome	Spices, Bloating, Maternity
10	Jambu batu	<i>Psidium guajava</i>	Myrtaceae	Leaf	Diarrhea, Rashness, Diabetes, Lowering cholesterol level, Maternity
11	Jarum tujuh	<i>Pereskia sacharosa/sae cnarosa</i>	Cactaceae	Leaf	High blood pressure, Diabetes

12	Jenjuang	<i>Cordyline terminalis</i>	Agavaceae	Whole plant	Fever, Stomach ache, Head ache, Gout, Urine difficulty
13	Kacip fatimah	<i>Labisa pumila</i>	Myrsinaceae	Root	Energy booster
14	Kaduk	<i>Piper sarmentosum</i>	Piperaceae	Leaf	Salad, Bloating, Maternity
15	Kantan	<i>Etingera eliator</i>	Zingiberaceae	Leaf Flower Stem	Spices, Maternity <i>*antioxidant</i>
16	Kapal terbang / Malialam	<i>Eupatorium odoratum / Chromolaena odorata</i>	Asteraceae	Leaf	Wound, Bloating, Diarrhea (baby) <i>*poisonous when used excessively</i>
17	Kari	<i>Murraya koenigii</i>	Rutaceae	Shoot Leaf	Salad, Spices, Diabetes, Stomach ache
18	Keladi kemahang	<i>Colocasia sp</i>	Araceae	Rhizome	Cooking
19	Kelompok telur	<i>Agave angustifolia</i>	Agavaceae	Leaf	Tooth ache
20	Kesum	<i>Polygonum minus</i>	Polygonaceae	Fruit	Salad, Maternity
21	Kunyit hidup	<i>Curcuma longa</i>	Zingiberaceae	Leaf Rhizome	Spices, Skin, Maternity <i>*antioxidant anticancer</i>
22	Kunyit terus	<i>Zingiber ottensii valetto</i>	Zingiberaceae	Rhizome	Wounds, Maternity
23	Lempoyang	<i>Zingiber aromaticum</i>	Zingiberaceae	Rhizome	Maternity
24	Lengkuas hutan	<i>Alpinia sp</i>	Zingiberaceae	Leaf Rhizome	Spices, Stomach ache, Maternity
25	Letup-letup	<i>Physalis minima</i>	Solanaceae	Fruit	Salad, Head ache, Waist ache, Sore throat
26	Lidah buaya	<i>Aloe vera</i>	Asphodelaceae	Leaf	Wound
27	Limau kasturi	<i>Citrus microcarpa</i>	Rutaceae	Fruit	Head ache, Cooler, Maternity
28	Limau telur buaya	<i>Citrus sp</i>	Rutaceae	Fruit	Juice, Maternity
29	Limau nipis	<i>Citrus aurantifolia</i>	Rutaceae	Fruit	Scalp care, Spices, Maternity
30	Limau purut	<i>Citrus hystrix</i>	Rutaceae	Leaf Fruit	Hair care
31	Mas cotek	<i>Ficus deltoidea</i>	Moraceae	Leaf	High blood pressure, Diabetes, Maternity
32	Mengkudu	<i>Morinda citrifolia</i>	Rubiaceae	Leaf Fruit	Salad, Diabetes, High blood pressure, Stomach ache, Head ache,

					Gout, Maternity
33	Mertajam	<i>Erioglossum rubiginosum</i>	Sapindaceae	Leaf	Wound, Deworming, Cooler
34	Pandan wangi	<i>Pandanus amaryllifolius</i>	Pandanaceae	Leaf	Measles, Maternity
35	Pegaga	<i>Centella asiatica</i>	Mackinlayaceae	Leaf	Salad, Gallstone, Polycystic kidney disease, Ulcer, High blood pressure <i>*anticancer</i>
36	Putat laut	<i>Barringtonia asiatica</i>	Lecythidaceae	Shoot Leaf Fruit Bark	Salad, Skin diseases, Cooler, Sinus, Blood circulation
37	Ros hutan	<i>Rosa canina</i>	Rosaceae	Shoot	Salad
38	Rosel	<i>Hibiscus sabdariffa</i>	Malvaceae	Leaf Flower	Salad, Drinks
39	Samak serai	<i>Eugenia polyantha</i>	Myrtaceae	Shoot Leaf	Salad, High blood pressure, Diabetes <i>*antioxidant</i> <i>Anti-tumor</i>
40	Selaput tunggul / Ulan gila	<i>Mikania micrantha</i>	Asteraceae	Leaf	Wound, Stomach ache, Insect bites
41	Senduduk	<i>Melastoma sp</i>	Melastomataceae	Leaf	High blood pressure, Diabetes
42	Senia	<i>Ficus hispida</i>	Moraceae	Leaf	Salad, Decoction of fish
43	Sentang	<i>Azadirachta excelsa</i>	Meliaceae	Shoot Leaf	Diabetes
44	Serai wangi	<i>Cymbopogon nardus</i>	Poaceae	Leaf	Spices, Head ache, Bloating, Maternity
45	Seringai	<i>Flemingia strobilifera</i>	Fabaceae	Leaf	Maternity, Stomach ache (baby)
46	Setawar	<i>Kalanchoe pinnata</i>	Crassulaceae	Leaf	Fever, Maternity
47	Sirih	<i>Piper betle</i>	Piperaceae	Leaf	Diarrhea, Blood clotting, Maternity
48	Temu	<i>Curcuma sp</i>	Zingiberaceae	Rhizome	Maternity
49	Tepos gajah	<i>Beaucarnea recurvata</i>	Asparagaceae	Leaf	Maternity
50	Tongkat ali	<i>Eurycoma longifolia</i>	Simaroubaceae	Root	Energy booster

Generally, however the community in this rural area was aware on the diversity of the medicinal plants specifically traditional herbs which are found in abundance. The reason is probably due to lack of modern medical support. Thus, in this unfavorable condition the people will tend to use natural medicinal plants as an alternative source of therapeutic for their primary healthcare (Kumari et al., 2011). According to the villagers, there are several plant species deteriorating in numbers because of continuous harvesting by traditional healers. Over exploitation of the

medicinal plants will sooner or later cause an extinction of the species and plant genetic resources. Obviously without practicing the sustainable way of harvesting, the existence of plant species may severely be affected (Sharif et al., 2007). The dependency on these natural resources as medicines should be more diverse and not depending on the same particular plants. Thus, preservation of the plant species is a crucial measure to conserve and protect the plant from extinct (Kulip et al., 2010).

Priority on conserving the nature to prevent extensive destruction of the habitats, species extinction and also continuation of knowledge and information regarding the natural resources of Kampung Batu Ring was in turn advised to the community.

Conclusion

Great dependency of the humankind on biodiversity of the forests signifies that Kampung Batu Ring-Kampung Beng at Lenggong Valley is suitable as the site for plant diversification research. In addition, Lenggong Valley was one of the places considered as a disturbed forest. Gobilik (2008) related this kind of place with high diversity of plants specifically traditional medicinal species.

The survey has revealed a rich diversity of ethno-medicinal practices by the villagers of their natural flora in and around the Kampung Batu Ring. The plants were easily harvested as they diversely available throughout the village land. Thus, knowledge on conserving the plants was informed to the villagers as crucial. This is to sustain the wild species present in the area because overharvesting will make the species becoming extinct or rarely to be found in the future.

The study also showed that the practices on application of the medicinal plants in their daily life as remedies were generally dominated by the elderly. This vast knowledge on ethno-medicinal plants will be a waste if it is not being practiced by the younger community. The uses as remedies should be known as one of Lenggong Valley's ultimate heritage and tradition that need to be passed from ancestor to future generation, to be preserved and remain eternal.

As a conclusion, the findings of this study have revealed a respect to the rights, traditions and practices on the medicinal plant resources amongst the local community of Kampung Batu Ring-Kampung Beng at Lenggong Valley, World Heritage Site.



(a) Senia



(b) Batu Jin



(c) Setawar



(d) Capa



(e) Kunyit Terus



(f) Limau Telur Buaya



(g) Tepos Gajah



(h) Jenjuang

Figure 2: Some of the medicinal plants found in the village of Kampung Batu Ring-Kampung Beng

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Fresh Water Fish Intake And Dishes Preferences Among Local Community: A Preliminary Study Of Tourists Attraction In Traditional Dishes For Homestay Kampung Batu Ring, Beng, Lenggong, Perak

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*Local foods is a vital element that helping and creating a sense of 'place' and heighten destination appeal. Local foods produce adds authenticity to the tourists for sharing experience and attract them to come to those place. Traditional food or local food is a parts of variety culture in Malaysia. It shows that the local community has its own uniqueness. Therefore it should be opened and sharing together either between the local community from other states or from the tourist views for attractions the places. An objective of the study were ; (1) To identify the type of freshwater fish intake, (2) To determine dishes preference using freshwater fish among villagers at Homestay Kampung Batu Ring, Beng, Lenggong. The study was conducted through questionnaires to 25 respondents in the village. The result showed that common freshwater fish consumed are Tengalan (*Puntius wool*), Loma (*Thynnichthys thynnoides*), Terbol (*Osteochilus hasselti*) and others fish such as Catfish, Tilapia, Kalo, Baung and Patin. The most popular fresh water fish is responds for Tengalan fish. This fish when cooked with coconut gravy (masak lemak) is the most preference dishes indicated by respondents. Therefore, fresh water fish and traditional dishes that already exist there and has been a natural culture among villagers shall point out for promoting Lenggong city for tourism such as homestay program. These finding is important in branding Lenggong as a World Heritage Site.*

Key words: homestay, freshwater fish, local dish and local community

Introduction

Food is one of the principal factors that have been neglected in the most of the studies. Every tourist that going for travelling to any destination will look for food in order to survived. This requirement is holds true for all the tourism destinations and

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situations in the world. Moreover, food impresses other aspects such as travel agencies' culinary program, the final price of hotels, culture assimilation and many other components. One of the main implicit factors that tourists consider in choosing the destination is food served. As Lacy and Douglass (2002) mentioned "every tourist is a voyeuring gourmand".

In recent years, food has been recognize by the governments, business, and academics as an integral part of the tourism product, and also means of differentiation for destinations. There are many benefits to be had in linking food and tourism for all stakeholders concerned (Hall and Mitchell, 2006). Local food is a vital element that can help create a sense of 'place' and heighten destination appeal (Haven-Tang and Jones, 2006). Local food produce adds authenticity to the tourist experience and provides motivation for them to come to a location (Sims, 2009). Tourists may even be tempted to stay longer in one place because of the availability of food products and related activities (Hall and Mitchell, 2006).

Food also holds the fourth position in perceiving a destination as an attractive place (Hu and Ritchie, 1993). Similar reported by Yuksel (2001) in tourists' reference to Turkey case where food was identified as the fourth factor of tourists' satisfaction in term of feeling and their prime reference motive. Others study conducted by Enright and Newton (2005) also stated that food is found as the second attraction in Hong Kong, the fourth in Bangkok and the fifth in Singapore.

Almost all the studies indicated that food attraction can affected to the tourism program. By the same token, food is important to the same extent regarding other facets. While traveling, it can be considered as a necessity, a vital prerequisite for other tourists' activities and as a reason for their satisfaction. Even the tourists are not satisfied with the visiting place and the food is not familiar to them, it will not be possible for them to eating or drinking (Cohen and Avieli, 2004).

Food and dishes are clearly an integral part of culture of the communities where the destinations that tourists want to get experience on it and they want to 'taste' the region they are visiting (Wolf, 2002). The reality happened where most tourists experience the dishes of 'others' at some time, intentional or not. Hall and Mitchell (2006) recognise that in fact "there are only a small number of tourists who will travel just for reasons of food."

Another criterias that attract tourists to a place is accomodation. The best accomodation is referring to hotels, renting house and etc. Nowadays, people are travelling together with their families. This will resulted in spending a lot of money for accomodation purpose. Malaysia has already introduced an accomodation which call Homestay house or room. The homestay in Malaysia bears many similarities with the *farmstay* concept practiced in Germany and New Zealand (Oppermann, 1997) and vocation farms in Canada (Weaver and Fennell, 1977). He term of homestay is a generic term used to describe a form a holiday that involved staying with the host's family. This contrast with the definition of homestay in Indonesia, which is budget accommodation constructed within villages or small towns and operated by local people; another term for these is *losmen*.

Kampung Batu Ring, Beng is one of the villages in Lenggong city that have the Homestay Program. The programmed was running under tourism sector in Lenggong, Perak Malaysia. This program can be possibility to gain an attraction to tourists over the world for visit Lenggong Valley. In order to reach to the *Kampung Batu Ring*, Beng, tourists must go through Pengkalan Pipit and departure from there using boat. It will take about 20-30 minutes to arrive at Homestays *Kampung Batu Ring*, Beng. As Lenggong city is one of the World Heritage Site, this village must

have the commercial values and sharing experience in order to attract tourists to come to the city. This including the food and dishes serves during their homestay period. Base on previous study, there is only four types of traditional dishes using fresh water fish were served to the tourists during tour packages at Homestay Kg Beng, Lenggong (Farhana et al., 2012). Therefore the objectives of this study were; (1) To identify the type of freshwater fish intake, and (2) To determine dishes preference using freshwater fish among villagers. The expectation in the study is; several of dishes based on fresh water fish can be introduce to the tourists in the Homestay program *Kampung Batu Ring*, Beng, Lenggong.

Methodology

This research has been conducted through twenty five numbers of villagers at *Kampung Batu Ring*, Beng, Lenggong city Perak. This selected respondent is a part of 10% from the overall of the population. Respondents were randomly selected among the villagers. A set of questionnaire is developed using Bahasa Malaysia language in order for villagers to get more understanding and easily during answer the questions. The questionnaire was divided into two parts; the first part consists of demographic and second part is about the freshwater fish intake and dishes preferences. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), a statistic software version 15.0 (2009) was use to analyze all the collection data.

Results And Discussions

Base on demographic data, nine male (36%) and sixteen female (64%) has been evaluated during the study period. The respondent age range from 50-59 years old is 36.0%, followed by age more than 59 years old (20.0%), ages between 20-29 years old and 30-39 years old are 16.0% and 16.0%, age less than twenty years old (8.0%) and lastly age between 40-49 years old (4.0%). For education level, a half of the respondents almost has education until secondary school (48.0%) and completed the PMR and SPM examinations. Only one respondent do not have any education (4.0%). More than half of respondents work as a rubber tappers (52.0%). Another 28.0% acting as a housewife and 8.0% work as a sweeper and also student (8.0%). Only one respondent (4.0%) work at private sector. For the status of the respondent, 68.0% are already married, 24.0% still not married yet and 8.0% are windowed.

Table 1 showed the species of freshwater fish that commonly consumed by the respondents. Tengalan (*Puntius Feather*) consumed more higher from others with 80.0%, followed by Terbol (*Osteochilus hasseltii*), 4.0% and Loma (*Thynnichthys Thynnoides*), 4.0%. Others freshwater fish (Catfish, Tilapia, Kaloi, Baung and Patin) is consumed about 12.0%.

Table 1: Regularly freshwater fish consume by respondents

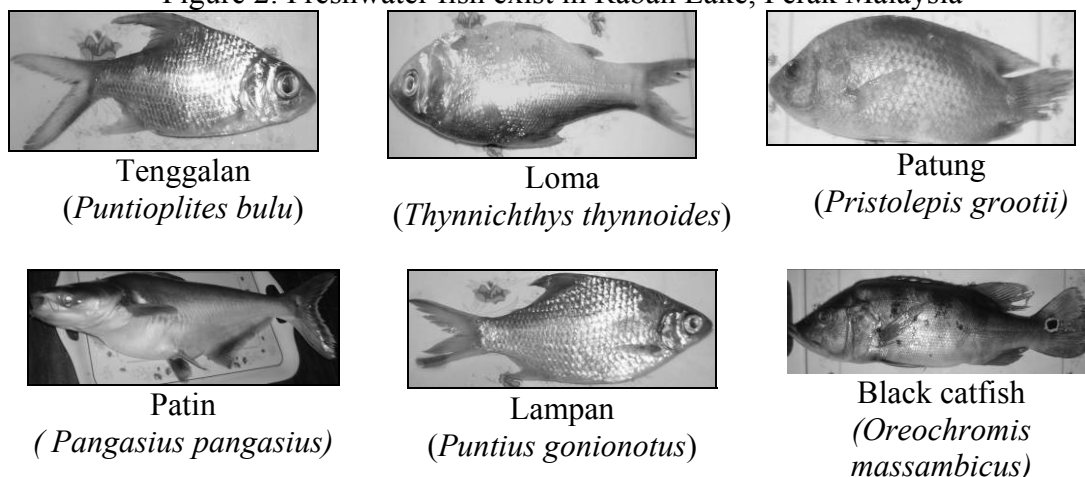
Fish types	Frequency (n=25)	Percentages (%)
Tengalan (<i>Puntius Bulu</i>)	20	80.0
Terbol (<i>Osteochilus hasseltii</i>)	1	4.0
Loma (<i>Thynnichthys Thynnoides</i>)	1	4.0
Others (Catfish, Tilapia, Kaloi, Baung and Patin)	3	12.0

The question asked respondents to indicate what type of fresh water fish easy to be found. The result showed that Tengalan is the highest (88.0%) and followed with Terbol (48.0%), Loma (20.0%), Siar/sia (16%), Kawan (8%) and others (20%), as indicated in Table 2. Whereas, in Figure 2, shows the picture of freshwater fish that exist and captured in the Raban Lake.

Table 2: Type of fresh water fish that easy found

Fish types	Frequency (n=25)	Percentage (%)
Tengalan (<i>Puntius bulu</i>)	22	88.0
Terbol (<i>Osteochilus hasseltii</i>)	12	48.0
Loma (<i>Thynnichthys thynnoides</i>)	5	20.0
Kawan (<i>Labiobarbus festiva</i>)	2	8.0
Siar/sia (<i>Mystacoleucus Marginatus</i>)	4	16.0
Other (Lampam, Patin, Catfish)	5	20.0

Figure 2: Freshwater fish exist in Raban Lake, Perak Malaysia



Another question asked respondents which of freshwater fish is the most preference. Table 3 showed the result, where Tengalan is the most preference (68.0%), followed by Loma (12.0%), Terbol (4.0%) and others (16%).

Table 3: The most preferences fresh water fish

Fish types	Frequency (n=25)	Percentages (%)
Tengalan (<i>Puntius bulu</i>)	17	68.0
Terbol (<i>Osteochilus hasseltii</i>)	1	4.0
Loma (<i>Thynichthys hnynnoides</i>)	3	12.0
Others (Patin, Catfish, dan tilapia)	4	16.0

Table 4 shows the respondents favorite traditional dishes using freshwater fish indicated by the respondents. It was clearly stated that almost half of respondents (48.0%) selected freshwater fish with coconut gravy for the most favorite dishes compared to others recipes such as freshwater fish with tempoyak (16.0%), Freshwater fish with sour gravy (12%) and Grille fresh water fish with kerabu gravy (8%). Meanwhile, for the others dishes categories such as curry, fried, ripe red and fish balls were indicated only 16.0% of the preferred dishes. Figure 3 showed the dishes that already cooked with selected recipes. This included coconut gravy (yellow

color), sour gravy (light yellow), spicy gravy, grille with kerabu gravy and tempoyak gravy.

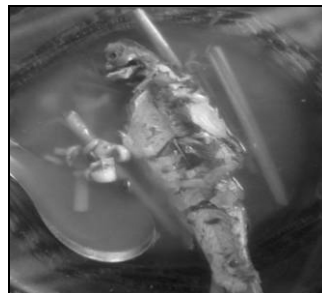
Table 4: Most preferred fresh water fish dishes indicated by respondents

Fish types	Frequency (n=25)	Percentages (%)
Freshwater fish with coconut gravy	12	48.0
Freshwater fish with sour gravy	3	12.0
Fresh water fish with tempoyak	4	16.0
Grilled fresh water fish with kerabu gravy	2	8.0
Others (curry, fried, ripe red chilli and fish ball)	4	16.0

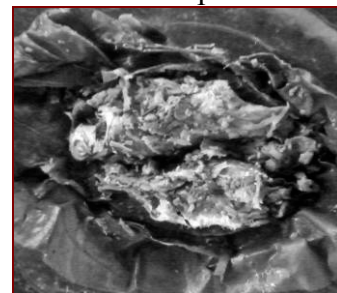
Figure 3: Various fresh water fish cooked base on selected recipes



Fresh water fish with coconut gravy



Fresh water fish with sour gravy



Fresh water fish with spicy gravy



Grille fresh water fish with kerabu gravy



Fresh water fish with tempoyak gravy

The survey also asked respondent opinions regarding what dishes are the most suitable and attracting for fresh water fish. These refer to Tengalan and Terbol fish which are already stated by respondents in Table 3 as above. Result shows that 40.0% of respondents felt that Tengalan is most suitable and attracting when cooked with coconut gravy. Other suitable and attracting recipes for Tengalan is when cooked with tempoyak gravy (28.0%), grille with kerabu gravy (16.0%), cooked with sour gravy and curry (8.0%). For Terbol, most respondents stated that these fish is suitable and attracted when use fried cooking (36.0%), cooked with coconut gravy (28.0%), cooked with spicy gravy (16.0%), fried pekasam (12.0%), cooked with sour gravy and tempoyak gravy (4.0%).

Sequently, question was asked about the source to get the fresh water fish. Almost two thirds of respondents (72.0%) get fresh water fish through caught by their ownself. These respondents used trawl fishing or withstand trawl when catching the fresh water fish during the evening time. In the morning, they worked as rubber tappers. Meanwhile, one third of respondents (28.0%) purchased fresh water fish at

nearby shops. The reason they purchased is due to don't have a time and not interested in fishing or trawling. From the findings, the villagers can additional program package in *Kampung Ring, Beng* homestay such as seine fishing to tourists. Through these activities, tourist can feel the first hand experience of trawling or fishing during staying at Homestay *Kampung Batu Ring, Beng, Lenggong* city Perak

The next question asked about how respondents get the traditional fresh water fish recipes. The survey result indicated that 88.0% of them took the recipes from their mother or grandmother. Others respondents (8.0%) mention that they used their own creativity to developed new recipes for those dishes. Only 4.0% of respondents were collected the recipes through friends. This finding shows that most of the villagers were familiars in such traditional recipes. Thus, these traditional recipes can be introduced to tourists as one of the attracting values that have in the Homestay of *Kampung Batu Ring, Beng*. This condition also will be maintained the traditional dishes for the next generation near future.

However, only four types of traditional freshwater fish often served to tourists during tour in packages at Homestay *Kampung Beng*. The four dishes are spicy gravy, tempoyak gravy, grille with kerabu gravy and also sour gravy and curry (Farhana et al, 2012). Instead of four dishes, fresh water fish cooked with coconut gravy is less served to the tourists. This condition happened may be related to villager perceptions. Their mindset may be thinking that coconut gravy dishes is already exist in such places, so these condition will create less attracting if used the same or similar cooking concept. Eventhough coconut gravy dishes can be found in such places, it is totally differents between each others in such ingredients, condition and cooking methods. For example, in Selangor also have the coconut gravy dishes. It used basic ingredients such as coconut milk, chillies, turmeric, tamarind, lemon grass and green pepper but not included bamboo fruit. This condition is different with Lenggong cooking method where bamboo fruit is the basic ingredients for coconut gravy dishes. In addition, Selangor cooking method also put in tempeh as an accessory for attracting the coconut gravy dishes (Sa'adiyah M, 2007). As stated in previous report where only four dishes that frequent served, others potential dishes for fresh water fish must also be introduced. The existing valuable traditional dishes in Lenggong such as fried cooked, fried pekasam, soups and curries must be serving and highlight in order to give more choise and value added for tourism purpose.

Conclusion

A various types of freshwater fish dishes can be introduced to tourism industry especially in the Homestay program at *Kampung Ring, Beng, Lenggong*. Tengalan is the most favourite and popular fish due to easily to found by villagers. Others fresh water fish that also been highlighted are Lomer, Terbul, Siar/sia, Kawan, Lampam, Patin and Catfish. Fresh water fish with coconut gravy is the most popular dishes when compared to others. However, in the existing homestay package, coconut gravy is less served instead of spicy gravy, tempoyak gravy, grille with kerabu gravy and also sour gravy and curry. The strong fact has been responds by the villagers for coconut gravy where this dish is potential to be served together with fresh water fish in various types and size. Therefore, it is reasonable when coconut gravy is included as one of the special dishes in the Homestay pakage program. For overall conclusion, every fresh water fish and traditional dishes that already exist there and has been a natural culture among villagers shall point out for promoting Lenggong city. These

finding is important in branding Lenggong as a World Heritage Site for the tourism attracting view in near future.

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