

Criteria and Indicators for Sustainable Community Based Rural Tourism (CBRT) Development: the case of East Coast Economic Region (ECER), Malaysia

Khairul Hisyam Kamarudin (2013)

<https://radar.brookes.ac.uk/radar/items/97c00be1-be30-4ddf-9f39-5cde0518a3e6/1/>

Note if anything has been removed from thesis.

Copyright © and Moral Rights for this thesis are retained by the author and/or other copyright owners. A copy can be downloaded for personal non-commercial research or study, without prior permission or charge. This thesis cannot be reproduced or quoted extensively from without first obtaining permission in writing from the copyright holder(s). The content must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holders.

When referring to this work, the full bibliographic details must be given as follows:

Kamarudin, K H (2013) *Criteria and Indicators for Sustainable Community Based Rural Tourism (CBRT) Development: the case of East Coast Economic Region (ECER), Malaysia* PhD, Oxford Brookes University

**CRITERIA AND INDICATORS FOR SUSTAINABLE
COMMUNITY BASED RURAL TOURISM (CBRT)
DEVELOPMENT: THE CASE OF EAST COAST ECONOMIC
REGION (ECER), MALAYSIA**

Khairul Hisyam Kamarudin

**This thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the award of
Doctor of Philosophy**

**Department of Planning
Faculty of Technology, Design and Environment
Oxford Brookes University**

August 2013

CONTENTS

<i>DETAILED CONTENTS</i>	ii
<i>ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS</i>	vii
<i>LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS</i>	ix
<i>ABSTRACT</i>	xiv
<i>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</i>	xvi
1 INTRODUCTION – SETTING THE CONTEXT	1
2 REVIEW OF THE CONCEPT OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM AND COMMUNITY-BASED RURAL TOURISM	15
3 REVIEW OF INDICATORS OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT	69
4 PLANNING OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN MALAYSIA AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY AREA	108
5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	155
6 ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS: DELPHI CONSENSUS	194
7 ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS: LOCAL STAKEHOLDERS SURVEY	229
8 SYNTHESIS AND EMERGING CONTEXT	290
9 FIELD TEST OF INDICATORS – ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS	
10 CONCLUSION	305
	329
<i>REFERENCES</i>	344
<i>APPENDICES</i>	358

DETAILED CONTENTS

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	vii
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS	ix
ABSTRACT	xiv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	xvi

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION – SETTING THE CONTEXT

1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Issues and Statement of Problem	5
1.2.1	Context	5
1.2.2	Issues of Criteria and Indicators of Sustainable Development	6
1.2.3	Issues of Implementation of Criteria and Indicators of Sustainable Community-Based Rural Tourism Development	7
1.3	Research Questions	8
1.4	Goal and Objectives of the Research	9
1.5	Scope of the Research	10
1.6	Planned Outcomes of the Research	12
1.7	Organisation of the Research	13

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE CONCEPT OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM AND COMMUNITY-BASED RURAL TOURISM

2.1	Introduction	15
2.2	Sustainable Tourism	16
2.2.1	The General Concept of Sustainable Development	16
2.2.2	Sustainable Development and Resource Management	19
2.2.3	Sustainable Tourism Development	21
2.2.3.1	The nature of sustainable tourism	22
2.2.3.2	Characteristics of Sustainable Tourism	27
2.2.3.3	The Principles of Sustainable Tourism	28
2.3	Defining Sustainable Community-Based Rural Tourism	30
2.3.1	The Community-Based Rural Tourism Concept in a Sustainable Tourism Paradigm	30
2.3.2	The Nature of Sustainable Community-Based Rural Tourism (SCBRT)	33
2.3.3	Sustainable Rural Tourism	33
2.3.4	Sustainable CBRT	36
2.3.4.1	Pro-Poor Tourism and Rural Livelihood	37
2.3.4.2	Community Based Rural Tourism	38
2.3.4.3	Main Components of Sustainable CBRT	39
2.3.4.4	Goals of Sustainable CBRT	41
2.3.5	Community and Stakeholders Participation in Sustainable CBRT	44
2.3.5.1	Motivation for taking part in sustainable CBRT	48
2.3.5.2	Barriers to sustainable CBRT participation	49

2.4	Sustainable CBRT Development: the benefits and costs	54
2.4.1	The Economic Benefits and Costs	55
2.4.2	The Environmental Benefits and costs	57
2.4.3	The Socio-Cultural Benefits and Costs	58
2.5	Issues and Challenges in Sustainable CBRT	60
2.5.1	The Economic Issues	60
2.5.2	The Environmental Issues	62
2.5.3	The Socio-Cultural Dimension	63
2.5.4	Challenges in Sustainable CBRT Programme	64
2.6	Conclusion	67

CHAPTER 3: REVIEW OF INDICATORS OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

3.1	Introduction	69
3.2	Indicators of Sustainable Development	70
3.2.1	The Nature of Indicators	70
3.2.2	The Basis and Need for Indicators	73
3.3	Development of Indicators Framework	76
3.3.1	Context	76
3.3.2	Criteria for Indicators Selection	77
3.3.3	Indicators and the Causality Chain	85
3.4	Sustainable Development Indicators in the Field of Rural Tourism	89
3.4.1	Context	89
3.4.2	Interest in Developing Indicators for Sustainable Rural Tourism	91
3.4.3	Examples of Sustainability Indicators in Field of Rural Tourism	93
3.5	Key Challenges in the Development and Use of Indicators	104
3.6	Conclusion	106

CHAPTER 4: PLANNING OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN MALAYSIA AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY AREA

4.1	Introduction	108
4.2	Tourism in Malaysia	109
4.2.1	Tourist Arrivals to Malaysia	110
4.2.2	Tourist Receipts	112
4.2.3	Tourism Organisation	113
4.2.3.1	National tourism organisation	115
4.2.3.2	State tourism organisation	116
4.2.3.3	Local tourism organisation	117
4.2.4	Tourism Policy Planning	118
4.3	Regional Economic Corridor in Malaysia and Background of ECER	121
4.3.1	Context	121
4.3.2	The Background of East Coast Economic Region (ECER)	124
4.3.3	Sustainable Community Based Rural Tourism in ECER	127
4.4	Background of the Study Area	129
4.4.1	Kuala Medang Village, Pahang State	131
4.4.2	Teluk Ketapang Village, Terengganu State	139
4.4.3	Seterpa Village, Kelantan State	145
4.4.4	Brief Comparison of Three Sites	151
4.5	Conclusion	153

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1	Introduction	155
5.2	Approach in Identifying the List of Criteria and Indicators for Sustainable Community-Based Rural Tourism (CBRT)	156
5.3	Research Tools	162
5.3.1	The Use of Case Study	162
	5.3.1.1 Multiple-case design	162
5.3.2	Delphi Application	163
	5.3.2.1 Selection of expert panel	166
	5.3.2.2 Format of Delphi round	167
5.3.3	Fieldwork: Survey of Local Stakeholders	170
	5.3.3.1 Sampling method	172
5.3.4	The Design of Questionnaire	175
5.3.5	The Roles of the Research Assistant (RA)	179
5.3.6	Limited Participant Observation	181
5.3.7	The Use of Photography	183
5.4	Procedures for Conducting the Main Study	183
5.5	Techniques in Data Analysis	188
5.6	Barriers in Data Collection Process	189
	5.7.1 Barriers at Stages of Data Collection	190
	5.7.2 Overcoming the Barriers	191
5.8	Conclusion	193

CHAPTER 6: ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS: DELPHI CONSENSUS

6.1	Introduction	194
6.2	Procedure in Conducting Delphi Exercise	195
	6.2.1 Selection of Experts' Panel	195
	6.2.2 Questionnaire Distribution	196
	6.2.3 Developing and Validating the Agreed Set of Indicators	196
	6.2.4 Ranking the Agreed Set of Indicators	197
6.3	General Description of Experts' Panel	199
	6.3.1 Institutional Categories and Gender of Respondents	199
	6.3.2 Age of Respondents	200
	6.3.3 Respondents' Working Experience	200
6.4	Discussion of the Results	201
	6.4.1 Selecting the Sustainable CBRT Indicators	201
	6.4.1.1 Stage One: Round 1	201
	6.4.2.2 Stage One: Round 2	205
	6.4.2 Stage Two: Ranking the Sustainable CBRT Indicators	212
6.5	Reflection and Conclusion	226

CHAPTER 7: ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS: SURVEY OF LOCAL STAKEHOLDERS

7.1	Introduction	229
7.2	Procedures in Conducting Survey of Local Stakeholders	230
	7.2.1 Selection of Study Cases and Respondents	230
	7.2.2 Questionnaire Distribution	231

	7.2.3 Stakeholders Ranking of the Sustainable CBRT Indicators	231
7.3	Background of the Respondents	232
	7.3.1 Gender and Age Structure	233
	7.3.2 Level of Education	234
	7.3.3 Occupation and Income	235
7.4	Stakeholders Perception of Local Tourism Activities	239
	7.4.1 Principal Reasons for Participating in Tourism Activities	239
	7.4.2 Principal Reasons for Not Participating in Tourism Activities	243
	7.4.3 Enablers for Tourism Activities	245
	7.4.4 Barriers to Tourism Activities	247
	7.4.5 Assessment of Likelihood to be Included in Decision-Making Process	250
	7.4.6 Assessment of Local Resource Exploitation and Conservation	251
	7.4.7 Expectation on the Future Needs for Tourist	253
7.5	Community Perception of the Concept of Sustainable CBRT	255
	7.5.1 Definition of Sustainable CBRT	256
	7.5.2 The Goals of Sustainable CBRT	256
	7.5.3 Incorporating the Sustainability into CBRT	258
	7.5.4 Enablers of Sustainable CBRT	258
	7.5.5 Barriers to Sustainable CBRT	260
	7.5.6 Indicators of Sustainable CBRT	262
	7.5.7 Selection of Major Agencies to Implement Sustainable CBRT Indicators	265
7.6	Community Evaluation and Ranking of Sustainable CBRT Indicators	267
7.7	Discussions and Conclusion	286

CHAPTER 8: FINDINGS AND SYNTHESIS

8.1	Introduction	290
8.2	The Production of a Final Set of Indicators	291
8.3	SWOT Analysis and Discussions	293
8.4	Conclusion	303

CHAPTER 9: FIELD TEST OF INDICATORS - ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

9.1	Introduction	305
9.2	Field Test Procedure	306
9.3	Analysis and Presentation of Result	307
9.4	Uptake of Sustainable Economic Practices	307
9.5	Uptake of Sustainable Socio-Cultural Practices	312
9.6	Uptake of Sustainable Environment Practices	318
9.7	Uptake of Sustainable Institution Practices	322
9.8	Discussions and Conclusion	326

CHAPTER 10: CONCLUSION

10.1	Introduction	329
10.2	Meeting the Aim and Objectives of the Research	329

10.3	The Contribution of the Research	337
	10.3.1 Academic Relevance	337
	10.3.2 Relevance of the Research for Practice	338
10.4	The Research Challenges	340
10.5	Recommendations for Future Research	341
10.6	Conclusion	343
	<i>REFERENCES</i>	344
	<i>APPENDICES</i>	358

Abbreviations and Acronyms

ADB	Asia Development Bank
ADC	African Development Corporation
ASEAN	Association of South East Asian Nations
CBRT	Community-based Rural Tourism
CIFOR	Centre for International Forestry Research
C&I	Criteria and Indicators
CSD	Commission for Sustainable Development
ECER	East Coast Economic Region
ECERDC	East Coast Economic Region Development Council
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
EPU	Economic Planning Unit
FDTCP	Federal Department of Town and Country Planning
FELCRA	Federal Land Consolidation and Rehabilitation Authority
FHI	Family Health International
GBP	Great Britain Pound
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GDW	Village Visionary Movement
GOM	Government of Malaysia
HMSO	Her Majesty's Stationery Office
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IM	Iskandar Malaysia
INFRA	Institute for Rural Advancement
ITTO	International Tropical Timber Organization
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
JKKK	Village Development and Security Committee
KEMAS	Welfare Department
KM	Kuala Medang
KPI	Key Performance Indicator
KRST	Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust
KTM	Malaysia Rail
LC	Local Champion
LYA	Local Youth Association
MOCAT	Ministry of Culture, Art and Tourism (was set up in 1987, later was known as Ministry of Tourism, MOTOUR as from April 2004)
MoF	Ministry of Finance
MOTOUR	Ministry of Tourism Malaysia
MP	Malaysia Plan
MRRD	Ministry of Rural and Regional Development
MTPB	Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board
NCER	Northern Corridor Economic Region
NEP	New Economic Policy
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NIAMS	National Institute of Arthritis and Musculoskeletal and Skin Diseases
NPP	National Physical Plan
NST	News Strait Times
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PMO	Prime Minister Office
PPT	Pro-Poor Tourism
PSIR	Pressure-State-Impact-Response
PSR	Pressure-State-Response
RA	Research Assistant
RAND	Research And Development
REC	Rural Economic Clusters
REST	Responsible Ecological Social Tours
RIC	Rural Internet Centre
RISDA	Rubber Industry Smallholders Development Authority
RM	Ringgit Malaysia
ROI	Return of Investment
RSF	Regional Sustainability Framework
RTMP	Rural Tourism Master Plan

SARS	Severe acute respiratory syndrome
SATC	South Australia Tourism Commission
SCORE	Sarawak Corridor of Renewable Energy
SDC	Sabah Development Corridor
SDIs	Sustainable Development Indicators
SEERA	South East England Regional Assembly
SEPU	State Economic Planning Unit
SMART	Simple-Measurable-Accessible-Relevant-Timely
SME	Small and Medium Enterprise
SMS	Short Messaging System
SPICe	Scottish Parliament the Information Centre
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SRT	Sustainable Rural Tourism
ST	Setepa
STAC	State Tourism Action Council
STD	Sustainable Tourism Development
TBA	Taxis and Buses Association
TIC	Tourist Information Centre
TK	Teluk Ketapang
TMI	The Mountain Institute
TOMM	Tourism Optimisation Management Model
TPDAF	Taiwan Provincial Department of Agriculture and Forestry
TPRG	Tourism Planning Research Group
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UK	United Kingdom
UMNO	United Malays National Organisation
UN	United Nations
UNCED	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UNCSD	United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNED	United Nations Environment and Development
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Funds
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
UPM	Universiti Putra Malaysia
URPD	Urban and Regional Planning Department
USAID	U.S. Agency for International Development
USEPA	United States Environmental Protection Agency
UTM	Universiti Teknologi Malaysia
VTY	Visit Terengganu Year
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development
WCS	World Conservation Strategy
WTO	World Tourism Organisation
WWF	World Wildlife Fund

List of Illustrations

Figures

- Figure 1.1: The East Coast Corridors and its division of sectors
Figure 1.2: Outline of ECER Master Plan
Figure 1.3: The structure of the research.
- Figure 2.1: Demands on the rural resource.
Figure 2.2: Tourism relationships
Figure 2.3: A conceptual model of sustainable CBRT
Figure 2.4: Strengths of community participation
Figure 2.5: Motivations, barriers and overcoming challenges in local participation and stakeholder's involvement
- Figure 3.1: The information pyramid
Figure 3.2: Early OECD indicator framework
Figure 3.3: OECD Pressure – State – Response (PSR) model
Figure 3.4: The Pressure – State – Impact – Response (PSIR) model
Figure 3.5: Justifications for tourism sector to adopt sustainability principles
- Figure 4.1: Tourist arrivals and receipt to Malaysia (1998 – 2010)
Figure 4.2: Three-tier form of government in tourism policy planning
Figure 4.3: Malaysia's economic corridors
Figure 4.4: The main corridors of the East Coast Economic Region (ECER)
Figure 4.5: Five key economic drivers of the ECER – the importance of tourism
Figure 4.6: Local corridors in ECER
Figure 4.7: The three villages or CBRT sites selected for the study
Figure 4.8: Location of Kuala Medang village
Figure 4.9: Sustainable CBRT committee of Kuala Medang
Figure 4.10: Tourist arrivals to Kuala Medang, 2002 – 2009
Figure 4.11: Number of tourist arrivals in Kuala Medang in 2009
Figure 4.12: Tourist receipts for Kuala Medang, 2002 – 2008
Figure 4.13: Location of Teluk Ketapang village
Figure 4.14: Sustainable CBRT committee of Teluk Ketapang
Figure 4.15: Tourist arrivals to Teluk Ketapang, 2007 – 2009
Figure 4.16: Tourist receipts for Teluk Ketapang, 2007 – 2010
Figure 4.17: Location of Seterpa village
Figure 4.18: Sustainable CBRT committee of Seterpa
Figure 4.19: Tourist arrivals to Seterpa, 2008 – 2010
Figure 4.20: Tourist receipts for Seterpa, 2008 – 2010
- Figure 5.1: Application of multiple-case designs by this research
Figure 5.2: A schematic representation of the Delphi process adopted for this research
Figure 5.3: Villages selected for local stakeholder's survey
Figure 5.4: Fieldwork procedure
- Figure 6.1: Towards achieving research objectives 4 and 5
Figure 6.2: Respondents' age distribution (n=20)
Figure 6.3: Respondents' working experience (n=20)
- Figure 7.1: Towards achieving research objectives 4 and 5.
Figure 7.2: Age distribution of respondents (n = 85).
Figure 7.3: Respondents' level of education (n = 85).
Figure 7.4: Respondents' level of education by villages (n = 85).

- Figure 7.5: Gross monthly income of respondents (RM*).
- Figure 7.6: Full-time occupation of respondents (by villages).
- Figure 7.7: Respondents' types of full time occupation and gross monthly income (in RM).
- Figure 7.8: Respondent's part-time occupation (by village).
- Figure 7.9: Respondents perceptions of likelihood of being included in decision-making process (n=85) (by village).
- Figure 7.10: Respondents perceptions of current situation on local resource exploitation and conservation (by village).
- Figure 7.11: The *Kelah* fish sanctuary in Kuala Medang village.
- Figure 7.12: Cattle grazing activities and manure supply for farming activities in Seterpa village.
- Figure 7.13: Respondents expectations on the future need for tourists (n=85).
- Figure 7.14: Definitions of "sustainable" and "an indicator" in the survey form.
- Figure 7.15: Respondents perceptions of the importance of indicators in sustainable CBRT programmes (n = 85).
- Figure 7.16: Respondents perceptions of the importance of local stakeholders' involvement in designing sustainable CBRT indicators (n = 85).
- Figure 7.17: Respondents perceptions of which parties or agencies are most able to carry out sustainable CBRT programmes (n = 85).
- Figure 8.1: Positive qualities of a local champion of sustainable CBRT
- Figure 8.2: The community organisation for sustainable CBRT in three villages.
- Figure 8.3: Integration between tourism and other economic activities.
- Figure 9.1: Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of economic measures in CBRT program (by village).
- Figure 9.2: Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of socio-cultural measures in CBRT program (by village).
- Figure 9.3: Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of environment measures in CBRT program (by village).
- Figure 9.4: Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of institution measures in CBRT program (by village).
- Figure 9.5: Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of all categories of CBRT program (all villages).
- Figure 10.1: The research map – meeting the objectives

Tables

- Table 2.1: Principles for sustainable development
- Table 2.2: Definitions of sustainable tourism
- Table 2.3: Common criteria's used in formulating sustainable tourism definitions
- Table 2.4: Sustainable versus non-sustainable tourism development
- Table 2.5: Four Pillars of Sustainable Tourism
- Table 2.6: Key elements of rural tourism
- Table 2.7: Comparison between sustainable CBRT and other form of tourism in rural area.
- Table 2.8: How local communities benefit from sustainable CBRT
- Table 2.9: Goals of sustainable CBRT
- Table 2.10: Types of community participation in tourism development
- Table 2.11: Summary of the economic benefits and costs of sustainable CBRT projects

Table 2.12:	Summary of the environmental benefits and costs of sustainable CBRT projects
Table 2.13:	Summary of the socio-cultural benefits and costs of sustainable CBRT projects
Table 3.1:	Criteria for indicator selection
Table 3.2:	Indicator and Data selection criteria
Table 3.3:	Criteria for ideal indicator
Table 3.4:	The Bellagio principles highlighted the use of sustainability indicators
Table 3.5:	Characteristics of effective indicators
Table 3.6:	Suggested criteria for good indicators
Table 3.7:	Examples of application of PSR framework
Table 3.8:	Baseline issues and baseline indicators suggested by WTO
Table 3.9:	Examples of tourism indicators prepared for Stakeholder Forum's Towards Earth Summit 2002
Table 3.10:	A set of potential indicators suggested for CBT development of Central Java, Indonesia
Table 3.11:	A set of potential indicators suggested for CBT development of Luang Prabang Province, Laos
Table 3.12:	A set of potential indicators suggested for CBT development of Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand
Table 3.13:	List of CBT indicators in Malaysia proposed by TPRG
Table 4.1:	Tourist arrivals to Malaysia, 2008 – 2009
Table 4.2:	Malaysia tourist receipts (1998 – 2010)
Table 4.3:	The Federal government agencies that are involved directly in tourism development
Table 4.4:	Malaysia's development plans and policies related to tourism
Table 4.5:	The old and the new paradigms of rural development in Malaysia
Table 4.6:	Criteria used to select cases
Table 4.7:	CBRT sites selection sheet
Table 4.8:	Inventory of infrastructures and public amenities of Kuala Medang village
Table 4.9:	The CBRT packages of Kuala Medang village
Table 4.10:	Inventory of CBRT resources and attractions of Kuala Medang village
Table 4.11:	Inventory of infrastructures and public amenities of Teluk Ketapang village
Table 4.12:	The CBRT packages of Teluk Ketapang
Table 4.13:	Inventory of CBRT resources and attractions of Teluk Ketapang village
Table 4.14:	Inventory of infrastructures and public amenities of Seterpa village
Table 4.15:	The CBRT packages of Seterpa village
Table 4.16:	Inventory of CBRT resources and attractions of Seterpa village
Table 4.17:	Summary of assessment of three villages
Table 5.1:	Organisation of criteria and indicators of CBRT into the four main elements of sustainability
Table 5.2:	Summary of literature reviews on indicators to evaluate sustainable CBRT
Table 5.3:	Characteristics of case study research
Table 5.4:	Characteristics of the Delphi method
Table 5.5:	Advantages and disadvantages of the Delphi survey method
Table 5.6:	Distribution of respondents by settlement
Table 5.7:	The distribution of respondents between the three settlements
Table 6.1:	Distribution of experts by institutional categories and gender (n=20)
Table 6.2:	Assessment of indicators (list of criteria and indicators obtained from the literature review in Table 5.1) (n = 20)
Table 6.3:	Assessment of indicators (based on results obtained from Round 2 of the Stage One of the Delphi exercise, n = 20)

Table 6.4:	Summary of the list of important indicators from Stage One: round 2
Table 6.5:	Description of the <i>Likert scale</i> range and score value
Table 6.6:	Index analysis of environment indicators calculated from responses by experts in stage two (n = 11)
Table 6.7:	Analysis of environment indicators
Table 6.8:	Index analysis of socio-cultural indicators calculated from responses by experts in stage two (n = 11)
Table 6.9:	Analysis of socio-cultural indicators
Table 6.10:	Analysis of socio-cultural indicators
Table 6.11:	Index analysis of economic indicators calculated from responses by experts in stage two (n = 11)
Table 6.12:	Analysis of economy indicators
Table 6.13:	Analysis of economy indicators
Table 6.14:	Index analysis of institution indicators calculated from responses by experts in stage two (n = 11)
Table 6.15:	Analysis of institution indicators
Table 6.16:	Analysis of institution indicators
Table 7.1:	Gross monthly income of respondents (RM*)
Table 7.2:	Respondent's full-time occupation (all villages) (N = 85)
Table 7.3:	Respondents principal reasons for participating in tourism activities; all villages (n = 58)
Table 7.4:	Respondents principal reasons for not participating in tourism activities; all villages (n = 27)
Table 7.5:	Respondents perceptions of factors supporting tourism activities (n=85)
Table 7.6:	Respondents perceptions of disadvantages of village in supporting local tourism activities (n=85)
Table 7.7:	Respondents perceptions of definition of sustainable CBRT (n = 85)
Table 7.8:	Respondents perceptions of the best goal and structure of sustainable CBRT (n = 85)
Table 7.9:	Respondents perceptions of the importance of incorporating sustainability needs into CBRT (n = 85)
Table 7.10:	Respondents perceptions of the main supporting factors necessary to carry out sustainable CBRT programmes (n = 85)
Table 7.11:	Respondents perception of the main constraint in implementing sustainable CBRT (n = 85)
Table 7.12:	Description of the <i>Likert scale</i> range and score value
Table 7.13:	Index analysis of environment indicators
Table 7.14:	Analysis of environment indicators
Table 7.15:	Analysis of environment indicators
Table 7.16:	Index analysis of social indicators
Table 7.17:	Analysis of social indicators
Table 7.18:	Analysis of social indicators
Table 7.19:	Index analysis of economy indicators
Table 7.20:	Analysis of economy indicators
Table 7.21:	Analysis of economy indicators
Table 7.22:	Index analysis of institution indicators
Table 7.23:	Analysis of institution indicators
Table 7.24:	Analysis of institution criteria
Table 8.1a:	A final set of indicators agreed by the experts and the local stakeholders
Table 8.1b:	The list of priority indicators with split opinions between the experts and local stakeholders
Table 8.2:	SWOT analysis of sustainable CBRT development of the three study cases
Table 8.3:	Award recognitions recently obtained

Table 9.1:	Economic indicators – criteria and index values
Table 9.2:	Villagers’ evaluation of successful uptake of economic measures in CBRT program (all villages)
Table 9.3:	Respondents comments on uptake of CBRT economic practices
Table 9.4:	Socio-Cultural indicators – criteria and index values
Table 9.5:	Villagers’ evaluation of successful uptake of socio-cultural measures in CBRT program (all villages)
Table 9.6:	Respondents comments on uptake of CBRT socio-cultural practices
Table 9.7:	Environment indicators – criteria and index values
Table 9.8:	Villagers’ evaluation of successful uptake of environment measures in CBRT program (all villages)
Table 9.9:	Respondents comments on uptake of CBRT environment practices
Table 9.10:	Institution indicators – criteria and index values
Table 9.11:	Villagers’ evaluation of successful uptake of institution measures in CBRT program (all villages)
Table 9.12:	Respondents comments on uptake of CBRT institution practices

Photos

Photo 5.1:	Use of visual presentation in data collection process
Photo 8.1:	CBRT product development in the study areas.
Photo 8.2:	Utilisation of ICT as a promotional and marketing tool.
Photo 8.3:	Local enterprises related with sustainable CBRT
Photo 9.1:	The role of local leader is important to inspire local communities to participate in the monitoring process
Photo 9.2:	Host communities’ involvement plays a vital role in the CBRT monitoring process

ABSTRACT

The launch of sustainable community based rural tourism (CBRT) programs in 1996 by the Ministry of Tourism of Malaysia (MOTOUR) indicated the government's commitment to incorporate sustainable development principles into the national tourism planning and development framework. Since then, the programs have been widely promoted by the government through various agencies and strongly embraced by the rural communities. Although the programs promise much potential such as job creations, provide an alternative of income for the rural household while promoting culture preservation and environment protection, recent studies showed that there was an issue of lack of monitoring of performance and progress of the programs due to the absence of criteria and indicators. From this research point of view, the absence of monitoring tools such as indicators could create obstacles and challenges, especially for the government and other donor agencies, in assessing the return on their investment in the programs and other impacts on the communities involved.

Through extensive review of literature, a sufficient number of a preliminary list of criteria and indicators were identified. Each criteria and indicators were assigned into different category of sustainable CBRT namely economic, socio-cultural, environment and institutional. 64 preliminary indicators covered by eight criteria were identified by brought forward for the next stage: formulation of survey questionnaire. The identification and selection of a set of indicators using questionnaire survey was carried out using a Delphi exercise with experts and survey of local stakeholders. For the Delphi exercise, 20 experts were identified (academics, government officials, NGOs and tourism consultants) and consulted during the Stage One of Delphi consultation (selection of important indicators). However, due to the unavoidable issue of experts' dropout, a smaller number of 11 experts were maintained for Stage Two (ranking of indicators). The surveys of local stakeholders were carried out during the Stage Two involving 85 respondents from three selected villages as case studies (i.e. Kuala Medang, Teluk Ketapang and Seterpa) located in the East Coast Economic Region (ECER).

As a result, out of 64 indicators initially listed in the survey questionnaire, 47 indicators were selected both by the experts and by local stakeholders and included in the final list of indicators. The fieldwork results indicate that both the experts and local stakeholders are interested to support the idea of indicators formulation for monitoring the CBRT progress.

At the final stage of the research, the proposed list of 47 indicators was put to test to assess the applicability and measurability of indicators for monitoring CBRT performances in the three villages i.e. Kuala Medang, Teluk Ketapang and Seterpa where 50 respondents participated in the survey. The field test intended to measure the uptake of sustainable economic, socio-cultural, environment and institution practices of CBRT program in all three villages. The outcomes for the analysis on uptake of CBRT economic and institution practices has shown a moderate success level with both 54% and 76% of an overall achievement while the analysis on uptake of CBRT socio-cultural and environment practices has shown a high success level with both 72% and 52% of an overall achievement. The field test revealed that the proposed indicators have been shown to be useful for measuring CBRT performance in the three case study villages. Furthermore, the achievement of CBRT practices could be determined as either low, or moderate or highly sustainable using index score approach. The results from quantitative and qualitative data collection processes could provide vital information to researchers, local hosts and other stakeholders about the current performance in the CBRT program from all major categories of indicators: economic, social-cultural, and environment and institution. In conclusion, the results from field test of indicators could inform decision makers and the CBRT participants in general about “where they are”, i.e. based on the current level of sustainability practices, and “where they want to go”, i.e. the local hosts’ goal or target setting for development of CBRT program. More importantly, indicators could also reveal to local hosts and other stakeholders “how far they are from achieving their goal/target”.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In many ways, this research is an outcome of efforts and thoughts which were contributed by many people and they deserve my deepest thanks and appreciation. First and foremost, I wish to express my sincere appreciation and gratitude to my supervisors, Professor John Glasson and Dr. Jake Piper for their advice, guidance, supportive ideas, comments and invaluable encouragement in all the stages of conducting this research. I owe inestimable debt to them for guiding me to understand my research areas and tolerate my limitations, especially my poor language, with utmost patience.

In the field, many people were of great help and they deserve my appreciation. Therefore, I would like to thank all respondents, especially the experts, local CBRT coordinators and people of Kuala Medang, Teluk Ketapang and Seterpa villages for their valuable time, energy and ideas. I also thank my colleagues in University Teknologi Malaysia, particularly Professor Amran and Dr. Ibrahim for their inputs and interest to support my research. I would not have been able to complete the research without their continuous support and cooperation.

I would like to thank all my colleagues whom I met here in Oxford Brookes University for making my stay here in Oxford a very memorable one. I also wish to thank the Department of Planning at the University especially the research tutor for monitoring the progress of my study and a special thanks to Dr Roy Preece for his time and dedication in proof reading most of my works.

Not to forget, my deepest gratitude to my sponsors, the Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia and the Universiti Teknologi Malaysia for the scholarship which made my research possible.

Last but not least, I reserve my greatest thanks to those closest to my heart: my wife, Siti Nurhuda and daughters Mawaddah and Laila, and my families who have been with me for the entire journey. Thank you for your love, patience and prayers.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION – SETTING THE CONTEXT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In recent years, there has been renewed interest in developing Malaysia's rural areas. The reasons for this interest lie in the profound changes that are affecting Malaysian countryside and rural societies. As in many developing countries, migration to the cities has, as Bramwell (1994) suggests, eroded the vitality of rural communities. Traditional economic systems especially in farming and forest-related activities, are falling into disuse, the quality of the environment is deteriorating, and the income and employment opportunities in rural communities are decreasing (Ngah, 2009; Verbole, 1997).

Therefore, in the mid-1990s (during the Second Phase of Rural Transformation, 1991 – 2020) (Ngah *et al.*, 2010; Mohd Balwi, 2005; FDTCP, 2005), federal government agencies began to seek out alternatives in developing countryside and rural communities with more profitable economic activities, as it became obvious that the agricultural sector alone did not hold the key to rural development. One of the main strategies of this search was to identify ways of encouraging the diversification of rural economic activities (Ngah *et al.*, 2010; Ngah, 2009; Liu, 2006). Rural economic diversification brought with it an interest in tourism as a tool to revitalize the countryside and rural communities in sustainable ways (Tourism Planning Research Group, TPRG, 2009; Kayat and Mohd Nor, 2006).

To reinforce its commitment in developing countryside and rural communities in peninsular Malaysia, the Federal Department of Town and Country Planning in the

National Physical Plan (NPP) 2005 and NPP review plan 2007 (FDTCP, 2007) established the Rural Economic Clusters (REC's) "as rural growth and resource conservation centres" (FDTCP, 2007: 5-31). This policy was then further elaborated on how to capitalise the potential of the rural landscape and the human and cultural capital for sustainable tourism activities and rural communities' development.

Since the REC's strategy is more focused on the national scale (which covers the whole of peninsular areas), less focus has been given to enhancing desirable benefits of tourism in rural areas. Therefore, in October 2007, the federal government launched the East Coast Economic Region (ECER) development plan, specifically for three less developed states in peninsular Malaysia that are; Kelantan, Terengganu and Pahang states (ECERDC, 2008) (Figure 1.1).

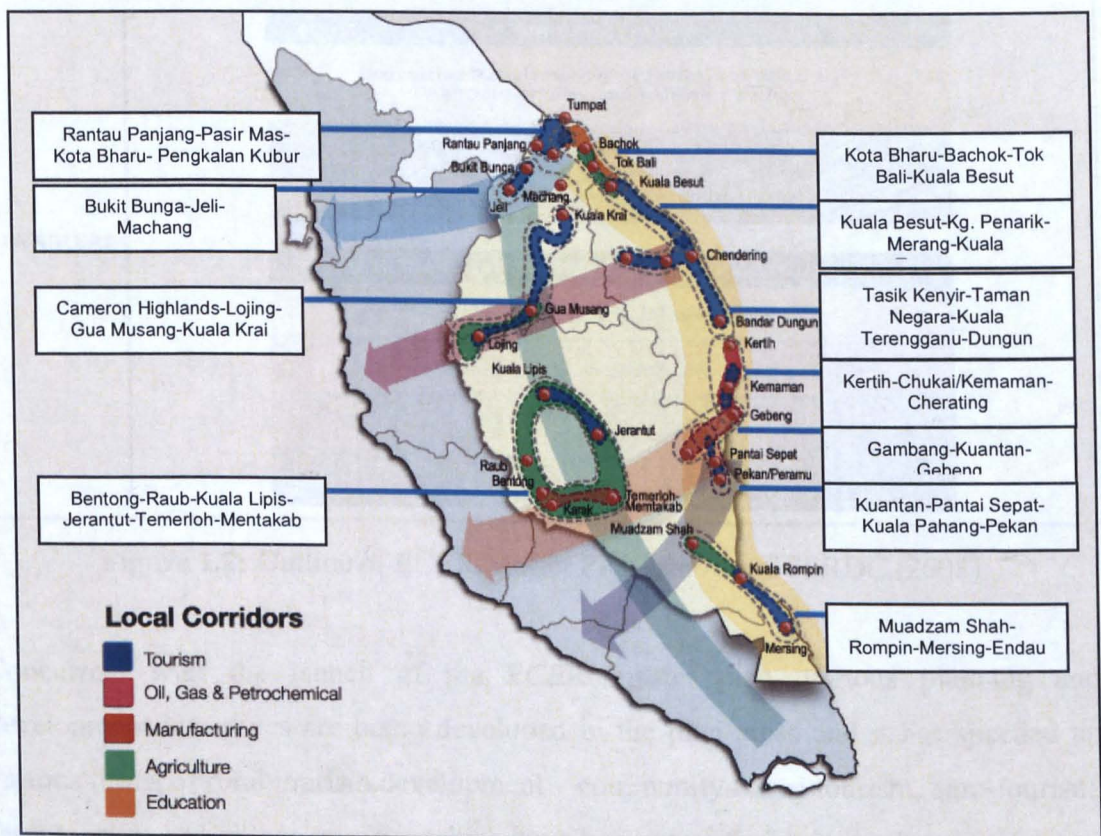


Figure 1.1: The East Coast Corridors and division of sectors.

Source: ECERDC (2008)

Through the ECER master plan period (2008 – 2020), potential resources for the tourism sector are to be given specific recognition and tourism has been named as one

of five key drivers in achieving the plan's vision (ECERDC, 2008) (Figure 1.2) (Details on ECER are further explained in Chapter 4).

“This regional plan was developed and will be the basis for guiding the development of this region over the next 12 years (2008 – 2020), where it will transform into a major international and local tourism destination, an exporter of resource based and manufactured products, a vibrant trading centre, and an infrastructure and logistics hub.” (ECERDC online, 2008)

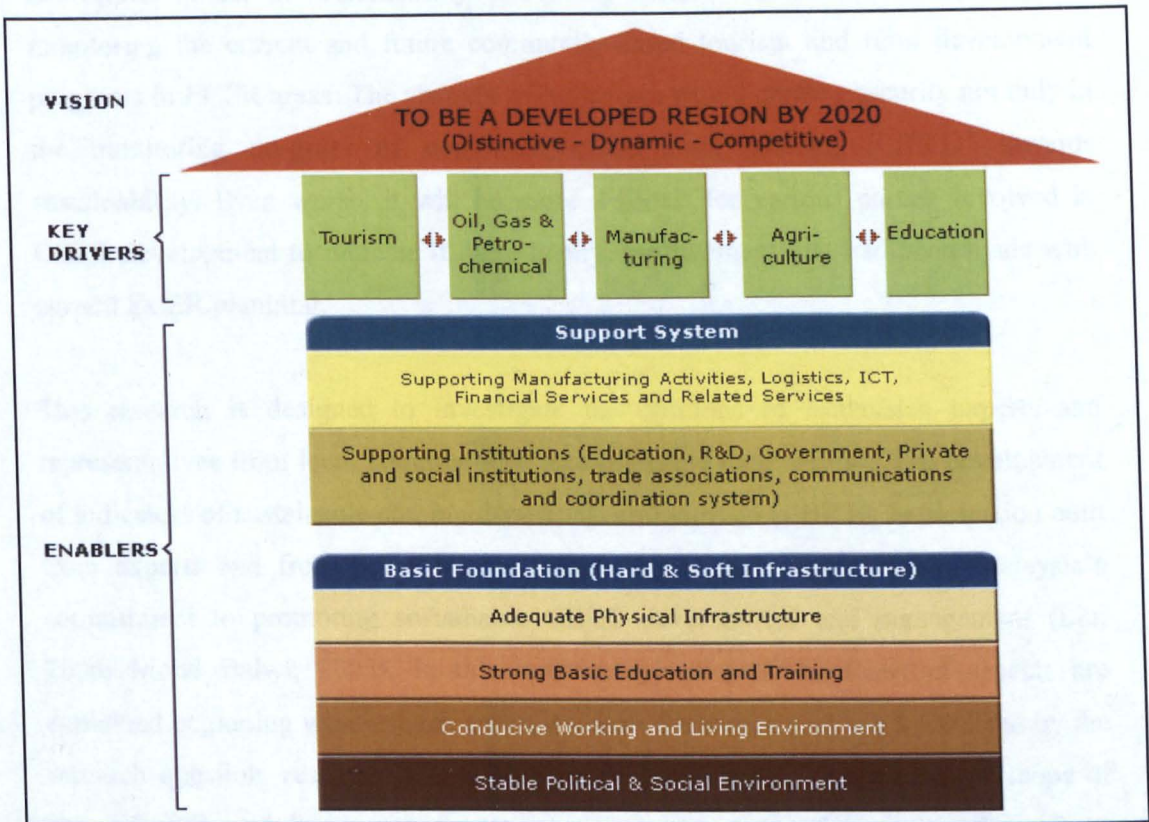


Figure 1.2: Outline of ECER Master Plan. *Source:* ECERDC (2008)

Concurrent with the launch of the ECER master plan, various planning and development incentives are being developed in the plan areas and it has speeded up various forms of rural tourism development – community-based tourism, agro-tourism, farm tourism and village tourism, which have begun to flourish in rural areas (Yahaya, 2010; Kayat, 2010; Liu, 2006). The role of the state will focus more on managing rural resources and facilitating the private sector or rural communities to participate, and to sustain the prosperity and good quality of life in rural areas (Nghah, *et al.*, 2010; Hamzah, 2004).

The government's commitment is seen to be to offer effective alternatives to rural communities to enhance their economies, and social and environmental protection including local leadership institutions. However, a review of the report of NPP 2005, NPP Review 2007 and a report by the East Coast Economic Region Development Council (ECERDC) 2008, showed that so far there is no establishment of indicators or any management plan to measure and monitor the progress of this planning regime in the future. A set of sustainability measuring tools is needed for evaluating and monitoring the current and future community-based tourism and rural development programs in ECER areas. The absence of indicators would create obscurity not only in the monitoring progress of community-based rural tourism (CBRT)¹ towards sustainability. Even worse, it will be more difficult for various parties involved in CBRT development to indicate if there is any improvement that had been made with current ECER planning.

This research is designed to investigate the opinions of Malaysian experts and representatives from local communities, leading to the identification and development of indicators of sustainable community-based rural tourism (CBRT). Participation both from experts and from the public in this research could contribute to Malaysia's commitment to promoting sustainable CBRT development and management (Liu, 2006; Mohd Balwi, 2005). In this introductory chapter, fundamental aspects are explained beginning with a statement of issues and research problems, followed by the research question, research goal and objectives, with a brief description of scope of research followed by expected outcome of the research. The organisation of the research is also outlined.

¹ Bernardo (2011: 23) describes the CBRT as "tourism based in the community territory, where the community as a whole or its members have substantial control and participation in planning the development and management of the tourism resources, and a major proportion of the benefits of the tourism remain in the community and benefiting all stakeholders that are fairly distributed, including employment and income-earning opportunities, and contributing to poverty alleviation".

1.2 ISSUES AND STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

1.2.1 Context

The development of CBRT in Malaysia has resulted from the reflection of the general equity principles of the New Economic Policy (NEP) launched in 1971, that put emphasis on indigenous access to and control of Malaysian tourism (Liu, 2006). Local participation in tourism activities is further promoted in the Seventh Malaysia Plan 1996-2000 (Government of Malaysia, GOM, 1996) with the effort in rural tourism reflecting aspects such as social, political and ideological circumstances (Yahaya, 2010; Kayat and Mohd Nor, 2006; Liu, 2006). Ideally, community-based tourism in remote areas is developed using the inherent character and resources of the locality which typically include “their attractive natural environments, original local culture and traditional systems of land use and farming” (Bramwell, 1994: 3). However in reality, issues of sustainable CBRT and resource management are highly complex and need to be critically addressed and understood by the various parties involved.

The Tourism Planning Research Group of the Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (TPRG UTM) 2009, in their research on the business strategy for rural tourism development, has set out the problems of CBRT in Peninsular Malaysia as lacking focus and specialization. The study found that all CBRT sites are in a very competitive environment with each other, offering nearly the same products. Even worse, for certain places, rural activities such as farming are often in direct conflict with tourism. Agriculture, in acquiring forest land and expanding the farms, is destroying the resources that attract the tourists (Ngah, 2009). On the other hand, tourism activities provide revenue and publicity to the agriculture and local culture and the economy of the communities involved.

Another issue is particularly related to the rural communities' capability to respond to changes induced by tourism. In certain areas, the role and function of tourism in local economic development is considered as a new agenda. Although the communities have immense experience in sustainable rural resource management, the combination of their remoteness, inexperience and limited exposure to non-rural environments (Liu, 2006) has prompted questions about the communities' capabilities to adapt to the

effects. Modernization and tourists' behaviour in the long term may affect traditional lifestyles and increase the need for cash to acquire goods and obtain modern services (Nghah, 2009).

From the issues discussed, it is argued that the government agencies, local entrepreneurs and parties who are interested in managing tourism activities need specific definitions, values and indicators to guide them in monitoring the progress towards sustainable CBRT management in the future. The formulation of indicators can lead to identification of weak spots and correction of current unsustainable patterns of CBRT activities. In conclusion, recognition of rural variation and community capability is very important in the management of CBRT potentials in the future.

1.2.2 Issues of Indicators of Sustainable Development

Agenda 21 and the National Physical Plan (NPP) require conservation of resources by utilizing in "a sustainable manner all natural resources to the greatest benefit in perpetuity for present and future generations" (FDTCP, 2007; IUCN/UNEP/WWF, 1991). The use of indicators of sustainable development has been acknowledged and recommended by the United Nation's Commission for Sustainable Development (CSD) as important tools for use in measuring the status of management toward sustainable development (Bell and Morse, 2008).

An internationally recognized set of standard indicators are already available but they need further testing on their usefulness and importance in specific locations (Hezri, 2004). These indicators are intended as standard measurements of sustainability, and for broad application in various areas and disciplines throughout the world (Hezri, 2004).

However, in Malaysia, according to FDTCP in their statement on Rural Economic Clusters (REC) in the NPP Review 2007 and report from ECERDC 2008, the agencies and tourism board have not established their own set of indicators of sustainable CBRT management. Due to the absence of these indicators, it has become a problem for the tourism planning agencies especially the Ministry of Tourism Malaysia (MOTOUR) and also other related institutions because they are unable to evaluate the ECER

performance in tourism management and measure the impact of rural resource utilizations on the socio-cultural, and economic, institutions and environment of the various stakeholders in ECER areas.

Therefore, in this research a broad spectrum of indicators will be identified, selected and developed by international and local experiences which will be used in monitoring trends of sustainable rural tourism management for the ECER areas. These indicators should be multidisciplinary and must be formulated in line with the local requirements, covering all aspects of social, environmental, natural heritage and culture, economic and institutional components affecting sustainable rural tourism in this area. The suggested indicators could be used in gathering information for decision making on rural development policy and future planning in achieving the goal of sustainable development.

1.2.3 Issues of Implementation of Indicators of Sustainable Community Based Rural Tourism Development

Indicators are derived to monitor sustainable development concepts in more measurable forms (Bell and Morse, 2008; Baker, 2006). The indicators are used not only to evaluate the progress of an action taken, but also used as a tool to compare before and after results of the implementation of a development plan (Lane, 2009). However, the development of indicators alone is not sufficient to achieve the objectives of a sustainable CBRT management plan, without any physical implementation.

It is important that suggested indicators from this research are accepted and further implemented by the responsible authorities. Therefore, issues related with the implementation of indicators need to be addressed in this research. One of the issues in implementation is related to the complicated nature of indicators themselves. In certain cases, the suggested indicators, for example those recommended by the UNCSO (CSD, 1997) and the Centre for International Forestry Research (CIFOR) (Prabhu *et al*, 1996), are too highly technical to be used in the ECER areas. Besides internal factors as mentioned above, other factors (external) have been identified as barriers for implementation of indicators. These include lack of enforcement among the

government's agencies, lack of human and technical capacity among responsible agencies to conduct regular monitoring of activities of resource utilisation due to lack of practical exposure and skills, and lack of coordination between government agencies and between agencies with local stakeholders (Bell and Morse, 2008; Hezri, 2004).

By considering the current condition of rural communities and their understanding of the sustainable development agenda, the new set of indicators for sustainable CBRT development in ECER areas is intended to be effective and practical. The proposed indicators should be timely and cost effective in the formulation process, be simple enough to be employed, and should be precise and accurate enough to be implemented by local communities and/or stakeholders and authorities.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In seeking better understanding of the issues discussed, it is vital that the situation of CBRT be investigated both from theoretical and from operational points of view. Thus, a number of questions arise in response to the issues:

1. What is sustainable CBRT and to what extent and in what form has CBRT been implemented in the study areas and other relevant cases?
2. What sets of indicators of sustainable CBRT have been used in Malaysia and in international experience? What are the key influences on the development and implementation of such indicators?
3. What are the quantitative and qualitative methods that may be used to identify, rate and select the indicators for sustainable CBRT development?
4. What indicators of sustainable CBRT development are appropriate in the study areas?
5. What approaches can be used to ensure that the proposed list of indicators are applicable and measurable in monitoring sustainable CBRT programs in the field by relevant stakeholders?

1.4 GOAL AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The main goal of this research is to analyse the potential of sustainability indicators for monitoring CBRT development, and to apply this to the East Coast Economic Region (ECER) in Malaysia. Such measures have been developed elsewhere, for example in Iran (Barzekar *et al.*, 2011), in Taiwan (TPDAF in Lee, 2005: 208), in the island nation of Samoa (Twining-Ward and Butler, 2002), Indonesia (Twining-Ward, 2007) which may have value in Malaysia where the MOTOUR, the Ministry of Rural and Regional Development (MRRD), among other agencies, may find value in such indicators to realise their goals of achieving and monitoring sustainable CBRT development.

After exploring the concept of such indicators and investigating their application elsewhere, the indicators appropriate to the Malaysian situation will be identified and evaluated both by experts and by the local communities or stakeholders during this research. They should be simple and suitable for implementation by identified agencies to monitor and mitigate sustainable CBRT development programmes.

To achieve the above mentioned goal, research objectives were developed as follows:

1. To review the concept of sustainable CBRT and identify the achievement and forms of rural tourism in the study areas and other relevant cases.
2. To assess the value of sustainability indicators in working towards sustainable CBRT, and the key influences on the development and implementation of such indicators.
3. To gather, formulate and assess a set of indicators of sustainable CBRT from both local Malaysian and international experience.
4. To identify quantitative and qualitative methods to be used to identify, rate and select the indicators for sustainable CBRT development.
5. To produce a final list of indicators of sustainable CBRT development for the study areas, working in consultation with stakeholders.
6. To assess the applicability and measurability of the proposed indicators for monitoring of sustainable CBRT performances through conducting a series of field test of indicators.

1.5 SCOPE OF THE RESEARCH

This research is focused on the investigation, assessment and formulation of the potential list of sustainable CBRT indicators, followed by a verification stage i.e. a pilot test to determine the applicability and measurability of the indicators selected in the field. This research will not cover full implementation, monitoring and the subsequent effects of the process due to time constraint. However, based on the suggested indicators and framework for implementation, the research may have some policy implications for both state and federal levels to allow the outcomes to be put into action within the scope of work of related agencies and other stakeholders in the future.

The possible implementation frameworks were also investigated. The number of study cases in this research was selected in co-operation with the Rural Modernisation Division, Institute for Rural Advancement (INFRA); the core agency for rural development in Malaysia under the MRRD, and expert consultation from the Tourism Planning Research Group (TPRG), Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) and by conducting preliminary site investigation.

In general, the scope of the research methodology encompassed four basic areas:

- i. **The elucidation of the concept of sustainable CBRT development through review of relevant literature.** This includes evaluating critical arguments on the principal forms of sustainable CBRT, its components and characteristics, to determine current issues and the progress of implementation of the agenda of sustainable CBRT. The literature review has enabled the researcher to formulate a “long list” of indicators of sustainable CBRT used in Malaysia and in other countries and to identify issues related with implementation of indicators.

ii. **Conducting a Delphi exercise and survey of local stakeholders to obtain data and information:**

a. The Delphi exercise

For the data collection purposes, two stages of Delphi exercises were implemented. The Stage 1 of the exercise consisted of two rounds of experts consultation. Round 1 of the Delphi exercise began with a set of “closed” questions. During this round, each respondent was invited to assess indicators by ticking boxes as “important” or “not important”, and add any comments of their selections. Round 2 questionnaire was formulated based on the results and findings of Round 1. The main purpose of subsequent round (Round 2) was to give the experts the opportunity to reconsider the answers they provided in the previous round.

For Stage Two, experts were invited to indicate the level of importance of indicators by ranking each indicator using the 5-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 denoting “not important” to 5 denoting “very important”. The results of Stage 2 were analysed, discussed and presented in conjunctioned with the results of survey of local stakeholders.

b. Survey of local stakeholders

The field study of local stakeholders began in Stage 2 in conjunction with the Delphi exercise. During the survey, local stakeholders were invited to indicate the level of importance of indicators which derived from the Stage 1 by ranking each indicator using the 5-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 denoting “not important” to 5 denoting “very important”. Furthermore, local stakeholders also were asked about their opinions on tourism activities in their villages and perceptions of the concept of sustainable CBRT (including acceptable meaning of sustainable CBRT, its goals and structures, motivations and barriers in developing sustainable CBRT).

- iii. **Conducting data analysis.** The first stage of the data analysis was intended to short-list indicators (also termed as Delphi process Stage 1), followed by rating of indicators (Delphi process Stage 2). The second stage of data analysis examined local communities' or stakeholders' perceptions of the concept of sustainable CBRT and indicators rating processes. The statistical analysis applied for Stage 1 was a frequency analysis which involved the respondents agreeing on selection of the indicators and the use of index score approach in the rating of indicators (Stage 2). In addition, inputs from interviews and discussions with respondents and limited participant observations were also used as supporting information. A finalised set of indicators is illustrated in Chapter 8.
- iv. **Pilot test of indicators.** The formulation of a final set of indicators will be used in a field test to determine whether the indicators selected can be applied and measured using the local stakeholders survey approach.

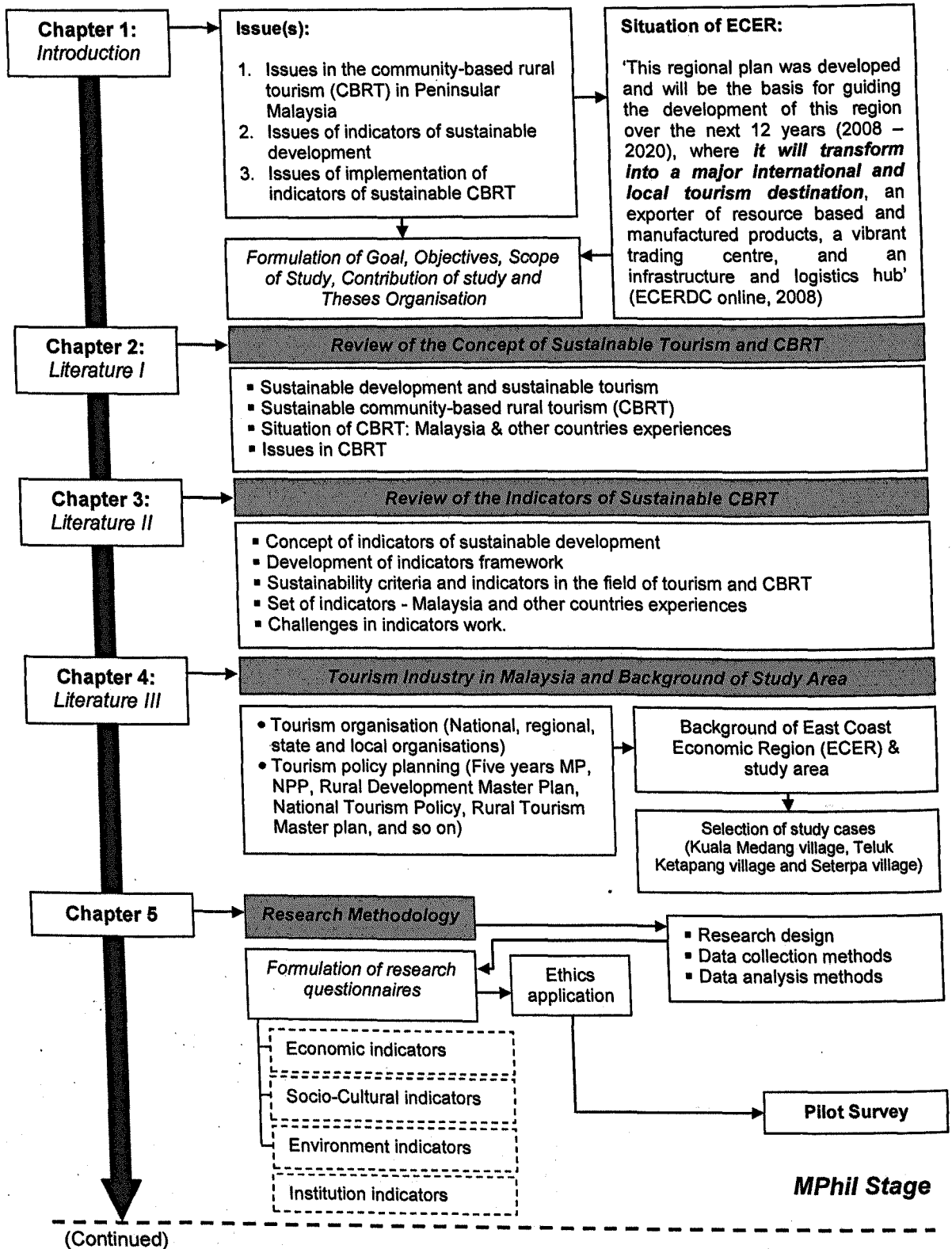
1.6 PLANNED OUTCOMES OF THE RESEARCH

Planned outcomes of the research are as follows:

- i. Production of a set indicators which can be used as a guide in monitoring progress towards sustainable CBRT development for the ECER areas and assist in providing reliable information towards implementation of suggested indicators' monitoring process in the future.
- ii. Description and explanation of the challenges or barriers involved in identification, development and implementation of sustainability indicators of CBRT in general, and specifically within the study areas.

1.7 ORGANISATION OF THE RESEARCH

Figure 1.3 below outlines the structure of the research.



(Continued)

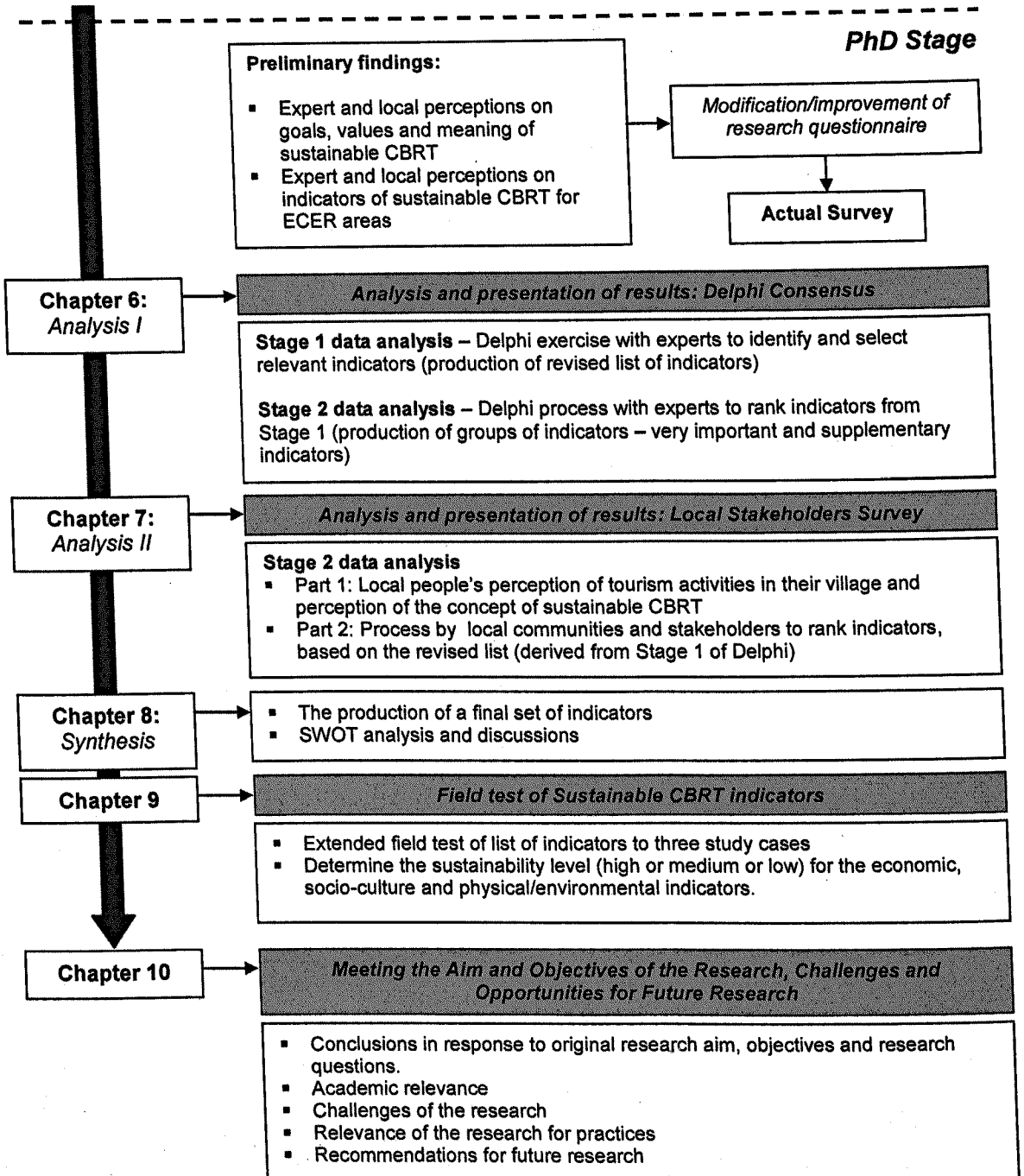


Figure 1.3: The structure of the research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE CONCEPT OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM AND COMMUNITY-BASED RURAL TOURISM

2.1 INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt that the tourism sector has become one of the major contributors to development and is an agent of change for many parts of the world. The strengths of tourism are described in various forms; as a tool in economic and physical development and as a means to enhance the social and human capital development and conservation of natural environment (Graci and Dodds, 2010; Twining-Ward, 2007). In rural areas especially in developing countries, tourism development had been eagerly embraced as a panacea for revitalising the rural economy (Manyara and Jones, 2007). Furthermore, since the concept of sustainable development came into the development and conservation debate, many government agencies, particularly tourism-related bodies, have also invested heavily to promote more sustainable forms of tourism in rural areas (Bernardo, 2011; Siti Nabiha *et al.*, 2008).

Consequently, nature-based and rural cultural tourism have been promoted as forms of sustainable tourism (Weaver, 2006). It is believed that proper planning and management of the tourism agenda will create more sustainable local economic and physical development, empowerment of local communities and conservation of valuable natural resources (Sebele, 2009; Manyara and Jones, 2007). However, in many cases, “sustainable tourism” promoted by government agencies, foreign aid bodies, private companies, as well as non-governmental organisations, (Sebele, 2009; Cinner *et al.*, 2009; Banerjee, 2007; Dunn, 2007; Blackstock, 2005), does not benefit stakeholders in tourism activities, especially in the rural areas. Although some benefits

have been identified such as rising numbers of tourist arrivals and improvement of local tourism organisation, yet, many tourism sites have not been able to maintain the initial momentum, hence putting the huge investment and long-term viability of tourism development into question (Manyara and Jones, 2007; Blackstock, 2005). In this light, the relevant stakeholders in tourism development must be educated and aware about the tourism planning and organisation involved (Okazaki, 2008; McKinlay, 2006). To achieve this objective, the establishment of a strong theoretical framework is crucial in order to explain the concept of sustainable tourism and community based rural tourism (CBRT).

This chapter has sought to provide a review of the concept of sustainable community based rural tourism (CBRT), beginning with an explanation of the concept of sustainable development, followed by discussion of sustainable tourism and CBRT within the sustainable tourism and rural livelihood paradigms. Finally, the major issues in CBRT are discussed. The purpose of this chapter is to provide a theoretical framework explaining how community-based tourism development in rural areas may benefit from the agenda of sustainable development and to provide a platform for further discussion on sustainability indicators for CBRT in subsequent chapters.

2.2 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

2.2.1 The General Concept of Sustainable Development

The concept of sustainable development first came to public attention in March 1980 with the publication of the World Conservation Strategy (WCS) by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) (Mowforth and Munt, 2008; Dresner, 2002). The WCS is aimed at achieving sustainable development through the conservation of living resources (Pawlowski, 2008; Baker, 2006); this concern rose out of growing awareness of major international environmental problems such as deforestation, desertification, ecosystem degradation and destruction, extinction of species and loss of genetic diversity, loss of cropland, pollution, and soil erosion (Munier, 2005; Dresner, 2002). According to the IUCN (1980: s.1.6), the WCS defines conservation as “the management of human use of the

biosphere so that it may yield the greatest sustainable benefit to present generations while maintaining its potential to meet the needs and aspirations of future generations” – this is similar to the subsequent definition of sustainable development given by the Brundtland Commission.

The WCS report emphasised the importance of conservation in balancing economic development and use of natural resources, and this has been debated for many years by conservationists and development scholars. The report however has highlighted the significance of environmental-economic development in the relationship between the developed and less developed countries and this has provided a basis for the government and the private sector response to the problems and issues identified (Mowforth and Munt, 2008).

The WCS was signified the link between the 1972 United Nations Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment and the 1992 UN Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro (also known as the Rio Summit) (Dresner, 2002). To realise a long term goal outlined by the WCS, the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) has introduced the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) at its ten-year review conference in 1982 (Dresner, 2002; Hall and Lew, 1998). In 1983 the Commission, established as an independent entity chaired by Gro Harlem Brundtland, was given direct responsibility by the United Nations Assembly (Dresner, 2002; Hall and Lew, 1998). In 1987, WCED released their report, *Our Common Future* (commonly referred to as the Brundtland Report) and since then, the term “sustainable development” has emerged in clearer forms and as a framework of understanding than in preceding works (FEST, 2011; Pawlowski, 2008).

In its most widely cited definition, WCED (1987: 43) defined sustainable development as “[development that] meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”. Together with this report, five basic principles were identified (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Principles for sustainable development

1. The idea of holistic planning and strategy making.
2. The importance of preserving essential ecological processes.
3. The need to protect both human heritage and biodiversity.
4. To develop in such a way that productivity can be sustained over the long term for future generations.
5. Achieving a better balance of fairness and opportunity between nations.

Source: WCED (1987).

The Brundtland view on sustainable development is rather optimistic, particularly in relation to the capacity of humankind to engage collectively and constructively in bringing about a sustainable future (Baker, 2006). It also places a strong emphasis on, and hope in, technological development that not only can contribute to assist human tasks, but that can help in minimizing any harm or negative impacts from human activities to their environment and valuable resources. However, to build stronger fundamental process of change requires not only technological improvements, but also needs institutional, social, economic, as well as cultural and lifestyle changes.

“Sustainable development is a process of change in which the exploitation of resources, the direction of investment, the orientation of technological development, and institutional change are all in harmony and enhance both current and future potential to meet human needs and aspirations” (WCED, 1987: 46).

Widely accepted both by international and national communities, the idea of sustainable development has been used as a platform by various researchers, from various backgrounds and fields of expertise, seeking the best interpretation of sustainable development. However, as time progressed and new inputs and discoveries have been made by those researchers, the broadness of its framing has served as a platform for much subsequent debate, and has contributed greatly to the diversity in its subsequent interpretation (Dresner, 2002). Scholars seem to vary in opinions on the “true” meaning of sustainable development, and on how the concept should be translated into practice (Faber *et al.*, 2005; Ceron and Dubois, 2003). As a result, the progress towards achieving the sustainability agenda has been “impeded” (Faber *et al.*, 2005; Robinson, 2004). The apparent lack of success, however, is not attributed to inadequate acceptance of the concept in principle, as it has been well received by politicians and bureaucrats. The true spirit of sustainable development, in bringing

long lasting benefits and justice for both present and future generations as illustrated in Table 2.1, cannot be abandoned just because of the criticism of its definition or of the framework for implementation. In fact, continuous studies are needed to bridge the gulf between developers and environmentalists. Pawlowski (2008) and Peterson (2006) have identified that sustainable development approaches have increasingly found their way into the thinking of the development community and many international and bilateral organizations, including the World Bank, the United Nations, the U.S. Agency for International Development and the Japan International Cooperation Agency.

Discussions will continue to explore the different ways that sustainable development can be interpreted and implemented and how the original definition by WCED might be adapted to fit widely differing approaches to environmental management.

2.2.2 Sustainable Development and Resource Management

While the concept of sustainable development clearly has social and economic implications, the emphasis in the debate also focused largely on the physical environment (Wall and Matheison, 2006). In some ways, this is understandable because the impacts of development on environment are highly visible and we know that the environment is a finite resource (Graci and Dodds, 2010; Baker, 2006). Therefore, any human activities in the environment either for economic purposes or for socio-cultural development should follow a conservation approach and management of environmental impacts (Sebele, 2009; Wall and Matheison, 2006).

In the rural context where communities are living in resource areas with unavoidable demands on natural, cultural and historical resources (Figure 2.1), greater participation should be encouraged for communities and their stakeholders to be involved in the sustainable management of rural resources (Scoones, 2009; Sharpley and Sharpley, 1997).

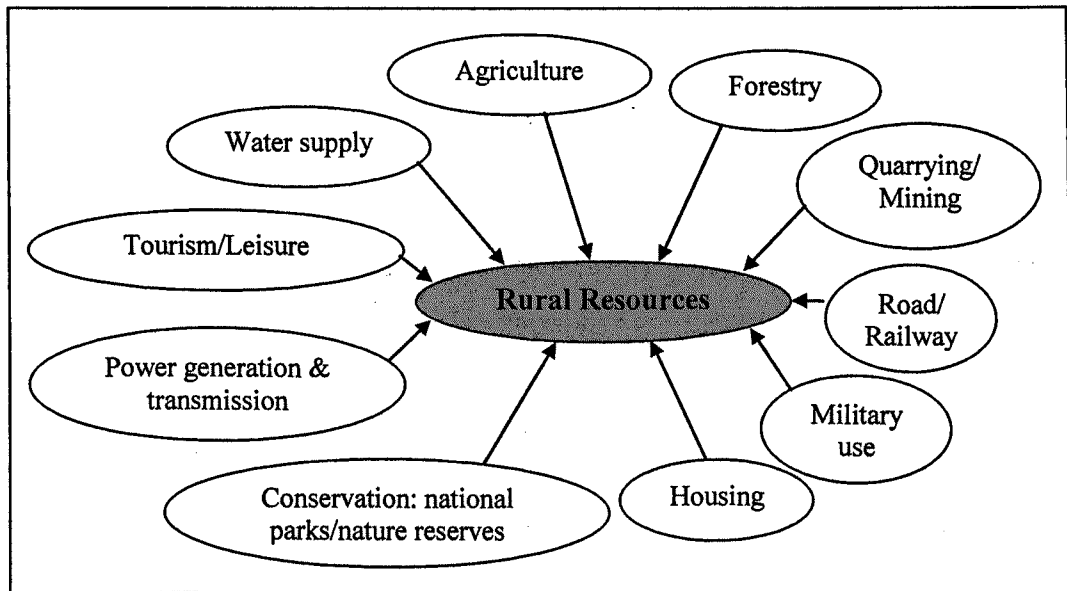


Figure 2.1: Demands on the rural resource. *Source:* Sharpley and Sharpley (1997: 30)

Figure 2.1 includes tourism and leisure as one of the major demands on rural resources. However, it is focusing on rural resources only from the physical environment point of view (to fulfil the economic purposes), and neglects the social perspective. Swarbrooke (1999:37) indicates human resource management in sustainable resource management “in terms of equal opportunities, pay and training, are vital to both the well-being of employees and ultimately, the sustainability of rural development”.

Therefore, the priority of planning, development and management should integrate all vital components or assets for tourism including the use of natural uniqueness, physical and economy, and socio-cultural. Sustainable management of resources for tourism also can create awareness, self-esteem and pride among the community as a whole, as local resources increase in value, scarce, and become the sole reasons for the visitors to visit their village (Yaman and Muhd, 2004). This may trigger motivation to the community members to be more responsible and caring towards their resources.

2.2.3 Sustainable Tourism Development

2.2.3.1 The nature of sustainable tourism – evaluating definitions

In the 20th century, globalization and capitalism, movement of populations and advances in transportation and communication technology have helped to develop tourism into one of the world's largest and most rapidly growing industries (Yahaya, 2010; UNWTO and UNEP, 2005). According to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO, 2011), world tourism receipts have reached nearly US\$919 billion in 2010 (as compared to US\$820 billion in 2005); international tourist arrivals growing by nearly 7% in 2010 to 940 million. Because of its ability to create income, taxes, hard currency and jobs, tourism can make a significant contribution to the economics of many communities around the world (Graci and Dodds, 2010; Weaver, 2006).

Since the Brundtland Report, and acceptance of the concept of sustainable tourism into the lexicon of tourism dialogue, destinations and tour operators have hailed their movement towards sustainable plans for the future. Tourism has been widely recognized as an engine of growth in many areas, if well exploited and closely linked with other economic sectors (Manyara and Jones, 2007; Wall and Matheison, 2006). Tourism is a complex activity comprising travelling to and around a destination, with the aim of consuming particular products and services including attractions, accommodation, catering, sightseeing, entertainment, local crafts and others. Besides offering diverse job opportunities and increased foreign exchange earnings, countries around the world have utilized tourism to boost locally related economic activities such as transportation, entertainment, craft sales, tour guides, food outlets, hotels, homestays and others (Yahaya, 2010).

Tourism has been increasingly perceived as part of the global economy and culture, and the prevailing concerns regarding sustainability have placed tourism practices in the limelight. As a further reaction, many writers on tourism, according to Blackstock (2005) and Butler (1999), appear to have accepted rather unquestioningly the basic proposition that sustainable development is inherently good and appropriate for tourism, and that its adoption could solve many of the negative problems that have resulted from the development of many tourism activities.

One of the major problems with the concept of sustainable development is the way the word “sustainable” has been applied to a variety of activities based on the assumption that it carries ideological and philosophical implications of the concept (Faber *et al.*, 2005; Dresner, 2002). In the case of tourism, the result has been the appearance and widespread adoption of the term “sustainable tourism”, often without any attempt to define it (Hunter and Green, 1995). This is not only unfortunate, but extremely misleading (Butler, 1999) because according to The Oxford English Dictionary (2005: 920), sustainable is the adjectival form of the verb “to sustain” which means to “keep something going over time or continuously”. In the context of sustainable tourism, it simply can be defined as “tourism which is in a form which can maintain its viability in an area for an indefinite period of time”.

However, is it an accurate definition to be used, considering the complexity in describing the nature of tourism and sustainable development itself? As a response to this, Butler (1999) has argued that tourism at places such as Niagara Falls in North America, or in London, Paris or Rome, is eminently sustainable because it has been successful in those locations for centuries and shows no sign of disappearing. With such a definition, the emphasis is on the maintenance of tourism assets, but in many cases, tourism is competing for resources and may have an effect on resource availability in the long term (Graci and Dodds, 2010; Weaver, 2006).

The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) in 2002 on the other hand, prefers to define sustainable tourism development with some direct interpretation from the original definition by the Brundtland Report. This has been taken further by the Foundation for European Sustainable Tourism (FEST) leading to the following definition:

“Tourism which leads to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be filled while maintaining cultural integrity, essentials ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems.” (FEST, 2011: 35).

The above definition indicates the importance of sustainable tourism both in the sustainable growth of tourism’s contribution to the economy as well as to society, and the sustainable use and management of resources and environment.

Later in 2005, the UNWTO published a more comprehensive definition:

“Sustainable tourism development guidelines and management practices are applicable to all forms of tourism in all types of destinations, including mass tourism and the various niche tourism segments. Sustainability principles refer to the environmental, economic, and socio-cultural aspects of tourism development, and a suitable balance must be established between these three dimensions to guarantee its long-term sustainability...Sustainable tourism development requires the informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, as well as strong political leadership to ensure wide participation and consensus building. Achieving sustainable tourism is a continuous process and it requires constant monitoring of impacts, introducing the necessary preventive and/or corrective measures whenever necessary. Sustainable tourism should also maintain a high level of tourist satisfaction and ensure a meaningful experience to the tourists, raising their awareness about sustainability issues and promoting sustainable tourism practices amongst them.” (UNEP and UNWTO, 2005: 11).

This definition, was described by Graci and Dodds (2010: 9) as “perhaps the most comprehensive definition of sustainable tourism as it incorporates not only the idea that sustainable tourism can be applied to all aspects of tourism, but that in order for it to be successful it must include the participation of all stakeholders and political leadership”. They also stated, “it also indicates that it is a continuous process and that measurement is necessary to ensure success...it identifies that it should also bring about a high level of tourist satisfaction and engage the market in sustainable tourism practices”.

This chapter also includes further examination by comparing a number of sustainable tourism definitions, proposed by different tourism researchers, to determine any similarities or replications between them (using common criteria) (Table 2.2). From this, a simple comparative analysis provides some useful insights about the criteria that are incorporated in formulating the definitions (Table 2.3).

Table 2.2: Some definitions of sustainable tourism

Definition	Source
<p>Sustainable tourism development guidelines and management practices are applicable to all forms of tourism in all types of destinations, including mass tourism and the various niche tourism segments. Sustainability principles refer to the environmental, economic, and socio-cultural aspects of tourism development, and a suitable balance must be established between these three dimensions to guarantee its long-term sustainability... Sustainable tourism development requires the informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, as well as strong political leadership to ensure wide participation and consensus building. Achieving sustainable tourism is a continuous process and it requires constant monitoring of impacts, introducing the necessary preventive and/or corrective measures whenever necessary. Sustainable tourism should also maintain a high level of tourist satisfaction and ensure a meaningful experience to the tourists, raising their awareness about sustainability issues and promoting sustainable tourism practices amongst them.</p>	<p>UNEP and UNWTO (2005: 11)</p>
<p>Sustainable tourism development as tourism which is developed and maintained in an area (community or an environment) in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the environment (human and physical) in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and well-being of other activities and programmes.</p>	<p>Butler (1993, in Graci and Dodds, 2010: 9)</p>
<p>Sustainable tourism means tourism which is economically viable but does not destroy the resources on which the future of tourism will depend, notably the physical environment and the social fabric of the host community.</p>	<p>Swarbrooke (1999: 13)</p>
<p>Sustainable tourism is tourism which develops as quickly as possible, taking into account current accommodation capacity, the local population and the environment, and: Tourism that respects the environment and as a consequence does not aid its own disappearance. This is especially important in saturated areas, and: Sustainable tourism is responsible tourism.</p>	<p>Bramwell <i>et al.</i> (1996: 10-11)</p>
<p>Tourism which can sustain local economies without damaging the environment on which it depends.</p>	<p>The Countryside Commission (1995: 2)</p>
<p>Sustainable tourism in parks (and other areas) must primarily be defined in term of sustainable ecosystems.</p>	<p>Woodley (1993: 94)</p>
<p>It must be capable of adding to the array of economic opportunities open to people without adversely affecting the structure of economic activity. Sustainable tourism ought not to interfere with existing forms of social organization. Finally, sustainable tourism must respect the limits imposed by ecological communities.</p>	<p>Payne (1993: 154-155)</p>

Table 2.3: Common criteria used in formulating sustainable tourism definitions

Criteria	Sources						
	UNEP and UNWTO (2005: 11)	Butler (1993, in Graci and Dodds, 2010: 9)	Swarbrooke (1999:13)	Bramwell <i>et al.</i> (1996:10-11)	Countryside Commission (1995:2)	Woodley (1993:94)	Payne (1993:154-155)
➤ Involves specific area	✓	✓					
➤ Contributes to conservation	✓	✓					
➤ Involves time scale (inter and intra generation)	✓	✓					
➤ Involves appreciation of nature	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
➤ Involves economic viability	✓		✓		✓		✓
➤ Respect local culture	✓		✓	✓			
➤ Benefit local communities	✓			✓			
➤ Consideration of ethics and conduct	✓			✓			✓
➤ Include the stakeholders' participation	✓						
➤ Strong political leadership	✓						
➤ Requires constant monitoring of impacts	✓						
➤ Increased tourist experience	✓						

Source: Review of literature

As shown in Table 2.3, it is evident that although different tourism researchers have proposed different definitions for sustainable tourism, there is a remarkable degree of replication between them although each individual normally claims that his or her use of the phrase is the most appropriate in defining sustainable tourism. Although the definition provided by the UNWTO is the most comprehensive and covered all the criteria of sustainable tourism, it still raised another concern i.e. the applicability of such definition within the context of the developing countries. This criterion, which was left without mentioned by any tourism agencies and/or researchers in Table 2.3. According to Tosun (2001), the principles of sustainable tourism appear to have been established by developed countries without taking into account conditions in the developing world. Consequently, many definitions formulated often fail to provide a conceptual vehicle for policy formulation to progress sustainable tourism development in those countries due to limitations that originate from the structure of developing countries and the international tourism system (Tosun, 2001). It is a challenge for a developing country such as Malaysia to develop and define its own concept of sustainable tourism based on the local situation and uniqueness of tourism resources (human and physical environment).

Current discourse on sustainable tourism development indicates multifaceted issues on how to manage the resources (natural and man-made) and resource conservation, to achieve generational equity in cost and benefit distribution, secure self-sufficiency and satisfy the tourist needs. Sustainable tourism development should effectively seek to address all aspects of tourism with guidelines and criteria to mitigate undesirable environmental impacts, particularly the use of non-renewable resources, and to improve tourism's contribution to sustainable development and environmental conservation. It is clear that tourism could offer a huge potential to incorporate a holistic approach to development. Some basic principles set by Wall and Matheison (2006); Edgell (2006) and common criteria from Table 2.3, can be used as a guide to formulate the definition of sustainable tourism:

- i. Optimize the use of environmental resources in tourism, while maintaining essential ecological processes and helping to conserve natural heritage and biodiversity.

- ii. Respect the authentic characteristics of host communities, conserve their cultural heritage and traditional values and inculcate inter-cultural understanding and tolerance.
- iii. Ensure long-term economic viability of tourism operations that provide fair distribution of the socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders, including stable employment and income-earning opportunities, social services to host communities and poverty alleviation.
- iv. Promote and enhance the participation of all stakeholders in every stage of decision-making, management and operations of tourism development.
- v. Have some sort of framework for monitoring tourism performance. Using the indicators as one of the measurement tools, providing vital information in understanding the current state of tourism, hence assisting decision-makers in planning with any necessary preventive and corrective measures in future.

The above criteria underlay the premise of this research to explore further the concept of sustainable tourism development which is discussed in the following sections.

2.2.3.2 Characteristics of Sustainable Tourism

According to Weaver (2006) and Swarbrooke (1999), the characteristics of sustainable tourism development can be determined by establishing the distinction between sustainable and unsustainable tourism development characteristics. Table 2.4 shows three general elements of sustainable and non-sustainable tourism development i.e. *general concepts*, *development strategies* and *tourist behaviour* based on the work of a number of authors. An important aspect that has been highlighted in Table 2.4 is the explanation of *tourist behaviour* in tourism destinations, which is something that many definitions and approaches to sustainable tourism often fail to do (Blackstock, 2005; Swarbrooke, 1999). In contrast with the *general concepts* and *development strategies* that gained much attention in developing definitions of sustainable tourism (as mentioned in Table 2.3), tourist behaviour has often been neglected. This is despite many commentators talk about the responsibility which tourists have, but they rarely

mention the rights of tourists as paying costumers (Goodwin, 2006; Swarbrooke, 1999).

Table 2.4: Sustainable versus non-sustainable tourism development

Sustainable	Non-sustainable
<i>General concepts</i> Slow development Controlled development Appropriate scale Maintaining long term productivity Qualitative Local control Resource preservation	Rapid development Uncontrolled development Inappropriate scale Short term productivity Quantitative Remote control Resource exploitation
<i>Development strategies</i> Plan, then develop Concept-led schemes All live landscape concerned Pressure and benefits diffused Local developers Local employed Vernacular architecture	Develop without planning Project-led schemes Concentrating on 'honey-pots' Increase capacity Outside developers Imported labour Non-vernacular architecture
<i>Tourist behaviour</i> Low economic value, but socially valuable Some mental preparation Good rapport with host community language Tactful and sensitive Quiet Repeat visits	High economic value, but socially valueless Little or no mental preparation Less engagement with host community Intensive and insensitive Loud Unlikely to return

Source: adapted from FEST (2011: 38); Edgell (2006: 18); Godfrey (1996, in Swarbrooke, 1999:15).

Although creating the distinction seems able to direct us to a better understanding of what is sustainable (good) and not-sustainable (bad), in reality, “things are rarely black and white, but rather various shades of grey” (Swarbrooke, 1999). Nevertheless, Table 2.4 is valuable because it represents much mainstream thinking in the sustainable tourism debate.

2.2.3.3 The Principles of Sustainable Tourism

The introduction of various labels in tourism in association with sustainable development agenda such as “ecotourism”, “pro-poor tourism”, “community-based tourism”, “volunteer tourism” have made the search for the true meaning of sustainable tourism even more complex (Dunn, 2007; Wall and Matheison, 2006). Due to

increased environmental awareness among travellers, there is a growing demand for eco-friendly travel opportunities. As a result, “eco” terms are often used excessively and irresponsibly (Banerjee, 2007; Dunn, 2007). In many instances, they are buzzwords used merely as marketing tools to attract tourists. Also known as “greenwashing”, tour operators often label activities that involve visits to natural sites as “eco-friendly tourism” when in fact they do not adhere to principles of sustainable development (Banerjee, 2007); hence, a better understanding about the meaning of sustainable tourism is necessary.

Perhaps, the comprehensive list of sustainable tourism principles suggested by the Tourism Concern¹ could be applied to examine all relevant aspects for developing and managing tourism activities in accordance with the sustainable development concept (refer to Tourism Concern, 1992 in Banerjee, 2007:17 and Edgell, 2006: 22-23):

1. *Using resources in a sustainable manner*: The conservation of resources (natural, social and cultural) is crucial and makes long-term business sense.
2. *Reducing over-consumption and waste*: Reduction of over-consumption and waste avoids the costs of putting right long-term environmental damage and contributes to the quality of tourism.
3. *Maintaining diversity*: Natural, social and cultural diversity are essential for long-term sustainable tourism and create a resilient base for the industry.
4. *Integrating tourism into planning*: Integration into a national and local strategic planning framework and the use of environmental impact assessments increase the long-term viability of tourism.
5. *Supporting local economies*: Tourism that supports a wide range of local economic activities and takes environmental costs and values into account both protects those economies and avoids environmental damage.
6. *Involving local communities*: The full involvement of local communities in the tourism sector not only benefits them and the environment in general but also improves the quality of the tourism experience.

¹ Tourism Concern (<http://www.tourismconcern.org.uk/>) is the UK-based non-governmental agency (NGO) focusing on tourism matters

7. *Consulting stakeholders and the public:* Consultation between the tourism industry and local communities, organisations, and institutions is essential if they are to work together and resolve conflicts of interest.
8. *Training staff:* Staff training that integrates sustainable tourism into work practices, along with recruitment of local personnel at all levels, improves the quality of the tourism product.
9. *Marketing tourism responsibly:* Marketing that provides tourism with full and responsible information increases respect for the natural, social and cultural environments of destination areas and enhances customer satisfaction.
10. *Undertaking research and monitoring:* Ongoing research and monitoring by the industry using effective data collection and analysis tools is essential to solve problems and to bring benefits to destinations, the industry and consumers.

The above list of the principles for sustainable tourism has provided valuable insights as it shows a compressed practical approach to incorporating sustainability in all stages of the tourism life cycle. However, it is also important to recognize that achieving sustainability must involve both process and outcomes, but the above list of principles proposed by Tourism Concern seems to lack focus on sustainability outcomes. With less concern on the outcome point of view, it would limit what we know on how actually sustainable tourism might look and function in reality, or “on the ground” and, in particular locations in the future.

2.3 DEFINING SUSTAINABLE COMMUNITY BASED RURAL TOURISM

2.3.1 The Community-Based Rural Tourism Concept in a Sustainable Tourism Paradigm

The term “sustainable tourism” has come into the tourism literature as an extension of the idea of sustainable development, but with more focus on tourism needs – “tourism development that meets the need of present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (Weaver, 2006: 10). The realization that the

current conventional mass tourism activities may no longer be able to satisfy the principles of sustainable tourism has led to the search for “a new, more socially and ecologically benign alternative” (Fennell, 1999 in Banerjee, 2007:19) (Figure 2.2).

The philosophy behind alternative tourism (forms of tourism that advocate an approach opposite to conventional mass tourism), was to place natural and cultural resources at the forefront of tourism planning and development, instead of as an after-thought, as well as to increase local control of tourism development (Sebele, 2009; Fennell and Malloy, 1995 in Banerjee, 2007:14). On this basis, many generic terms encompassing a whole range of tourism strategies, such as “appropriate”, “soft”, “responsible”, “green”, “small-scale”, and “community-based” tourism initiatives emerged – all with the purpose of offering a more desirable alternative to conventional mass tourism (Dunn, 2007; Banerjee, 2007; Sedai, 2006).

The advantages of alternative tourism may be summarized as follows (Bernardo, 2011; Daengnoi and Richards, 2006; Aronsson, 2001):

1. Small-scale, does not overwhelm the community.
2. More jobs created and income generated for the local community.
3. More money stays within the host nation or region.
4. Authenticity and uniqueness of natural and cultural attractions promoted.
5. Activities are educational and attract a more desirable type of visitor.
6. Benefits international relations and enhances intercultural understanding.
7. Economic diversity leads to reduced vulnerability to boom-bust cycles.
8. Local decision-making power enhanced.
9. Holistic and a long-term planning approach.
10. Less competition, more complementarities in management.

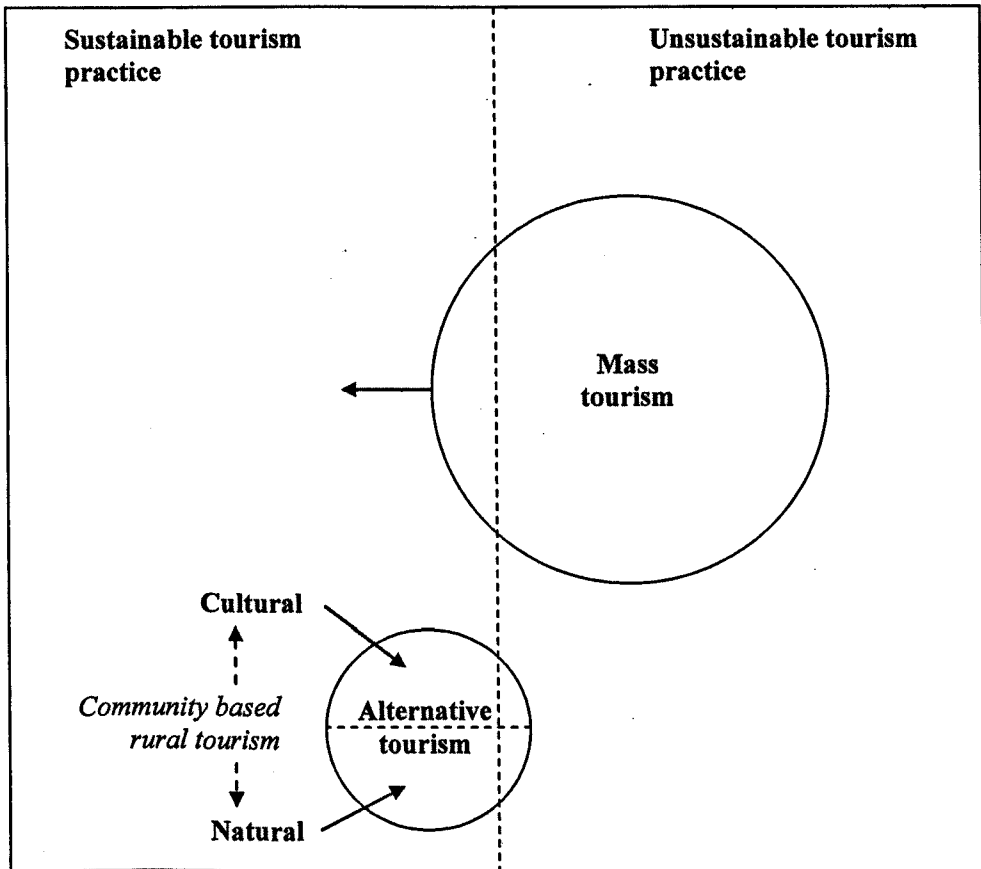


Figure 2.2: Tourism relationships. *Source:* adapted from Bernardo (2011); Fennell (1999 in Banerjee, 2007:19)

As shown in Figure 2.2, the corresponding circle in the diagram provides a good idea of the relative size of mass tourism and alternative tourism. Although mass tourism may be considered predominantly unsustainable, some recent developments in the industry have attempted to encourage some sustainable measures such as reduced use of energy and water, recycling of wastes, and so on (Banerjee, 2007). On the other hand, the illustration indicates that most forms of alternative tourism, in theory, are sustainable in nature (Bernardo, 2011; Fennell, 1999 in Banerjee, 2007:18). The alternative tourism sphere is shown to comprise different types of tourism, such as cultural tourism and nature tourism, which also serve as the basis for sustainable community-based rural tourism (sustainable CBRT).

2.3.2 The Nature of Sustainable Community Based Rural Tourism

It is important for this research to provide a substantial definition of sustainable CBRT in order to avoid misleading perception and confusion on the different types of tourism that occur in rural areas. This is because the concept of rural and types of tourism which taken place in rural areas are vague concepts which can mean different things to different people. In order to provide a systematic understanding, this research defines the concept of sustainable CBRT in two stages: first, an understanding of the sustainable rural tourism (SRT) concept and, second, an understanding of the community based concept. Both components are merged later to conclude the most appropriate operational definition of sustainable CBRT, which is used throughout this research.

There are many examples and study cases which constituted the discussion of the SRT and CBRT concepts. This study has included some examples or previous work carried out by Yahaya (2010); Marzuki (2008); Nguru (2010) on CBT and homestay development in Malaysia; by Sebele (2009) on CBRT development in Botswana and; by Rattanasuwongchai (2001) on SRT in Thailand. It is important to mention that their research works are closely related to the research topic; hence provide information on SRT and CBRT concepts from the perspective of this research.

2.3.3 Sustainable Rural Tourism

What is rural tourism? At first sight, a simple answer can be given: rural tourism is tourism, which takes place in the countryside (Lane, 1994). The phenomenon of rural tourism, the reality, however, is more complex as many early commentators have pointed out on deeper consideration; a simple definition of rural tourism is inadequate for many purposes. Equally, it is difficult to produce a more holistic definition which could be applied to all rural areas in all countries (Lane, 1994). Even the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) itself acknowledges difficulties in defining rural tourism:

“Rural tourism is a complex multi-faceted activity: it is not just farm-based tourism. It includes farm-based holidays but also comprises special interest nature holidays and ecotourism, walking, climbing and riding holidays, adventure, sport and health tourism, hunting and angling, educational travel, arts and heritage tourism, and, in some areas, ethnic tourism. There is also a large general interest market for less specialised forms of rural tourism. ...Because rural tourism is multi-faceted, because rural areas themselves are multi-faceted and rarely either static entities or self-contained, and free from urban influence, a working and reasonably universal definition of the subject is difficult to find” (OECD, 1991 in SPICe, 2001: 26).

Based on the statement by OECD, rural tourism could take many forms, and that makes it difficult to give an exact definition. Nonetheless, OECD (1994 in George 2004: 55) and Lane (1994:14) have suggested the key elements of rural tourism (Table 2.5).

Table 2.5: Key elements of rural tourism

- ◆ Located in rural areas.
- ◆ Functionally rural – built upon the rural world’s special features of small-scale enterprise, open space, contact with nature and the natural world, heritage, ‘traditional’ societies and ‘traditional’ practices.
- ◆ Rural in scale – both in terms of buildings and settlements – and, therefore, usually small-scale.
- ◆ Traditional in character, growing slowly and organically, and connected with local families. It will often be very largely controlled locally and developed for the long-term good of the area.
- ◆ Of many different kinds, representing the complex pattern of rural environment, economy, history and location.
- ◆ A high percentage of tourism revenue benefiting the rural community.
- ◆ Permits participation in the activities, traditions and lifestyles of local people.
- ◆ Provides personalized contact.

Source: adapted from Lane (1994:14); OECD (1994 in George 2004:55)

The suggested key elements of rural tourism may not be applicable in certain conditions due to different circumstances involved (such as geographical settings or cultural values of communities); they do however, highlight important general applications and could be used as a guidance in formulating a definition of rural tourism.

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) has acknowledged the need for sustainable tourism and has turned its focus on developing countries and the needs of host communities. At the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development in

Johannesburg, the UNWTO launched the ST-EP (Sustainable Tourism – Eliminating Poverty) initiative (Dunn, 2007). The initiative promotes sustainable tourism development in the least developed and developing regions. Those who promote sustainable tourism acknowledged that the future of tourism depends on the preservation of natural environments and cultural diversity on which the industry is based. As a response to this growing interest and consideration for success in a long term, the sustainable rural tourism (SRT) concept has emerged (Sharpley, 2007). To provide clear understanding of the SRT concept and its relationship with sustainable CBRT, the next section identifies definitions of SRT from different points of view.

One of the examples of SRT definition was given by Rattanasuwongchai (2001) that regarded SRT both as part of “rural development” and “sustainable development”. Rural development is “a process that leads to a rise of capacity building and increase of the capacity of rural people to control their environment, resulting from more extensive use of the benefits which ensure such control” (Webster, 1975 in Rattanasuwongchai, 2001:5). Many factors have been identified as affecting rural development including economic development, out-migration, environmental protection, rural resource management, enhancing positive social values and local knowledge (Nghah, 2009; Gallent, 2008). Villers (1997 in Rattanasuwongchai, 2001:5) perceives sustainable development “as the way to raise living standards, to allow people to reach their human potential, to enjoy lives of dignity, and to ensure the welfare of present and future generations”.

As suggested by the above definitions, SRT can be perceived as a form of sustainable tourism that exploits resources (natural and human) in rural regions, promotes local capacity building and local participation to community development and increases the standards of living through equitable distribution of benefits and costs for present and future generations. On the other hand, a definition of SRT has also been formulated using a combination of “sustainable tourism” and “rural tourism”. According to Swarbrooke (1999:13) and Dunn (2007:13), sustainable tourism can simply be understood “as tourism which adheres to principles of sustainable development”. Meanwhile, rural tourism can be defined as “tourism which takes place in the countryside” (Lane, 1994a). Therefore, based on the combination of two definitions,

sustainable rural tourism is defined as “tourism activities that take place in the countryside and embraces the principle of sustainable tourism”.

According to Irshad (2010); Kayat and Mohd Nor (2006) and Lane (1994b), SRT should aim to:

- 1) Sustain the culture and character of host communities.
- 2) Sustain landscape and habitats.
- 3) Sustain the rural economy and livelihood.
- 4) Sustain a tourism industry which will be viable in the long term – and this in turn means the promotion of successful and satisfying holiday experiences.
- 5) Develop sufficient understanding, leadership and vision amongst the decision makers in an area so that they realise the dangers of too much reliance on tourism, and continue to work towards a balanced and diversified rural economy.

2.3.4 Sustainable Community-Based Rural Tourism

As shown in Figure 2.2, an alternative tourism is perceived as a form of tourism activity that puts more emphasis on sustainable practices as compared to mass tourism. In the following discussions, the nature of sustainable rural tourism is explained based on information gathered from various source of literature. This section will further the discussion on SRT, specifically from a community based rural tourism (CBRT) perspective.

As pointed by out by Faber *et al.* (2005), any discussion surrounding the idea of sustainability always draws attention and could lead to confusion because of the complex nature of sustainability itself. Therefore, it is not the intention of this study either to prolong the never-ending debate or to insert more confusion about CBRT as there are many types of tourism that takes place in rural areas (Sharpley, 2009; Twinning-Ward, 2007). Understanding and/or distinguishing different types of rural tourism, for example ecotourism from pro-poor or voluntary tourism might lead to more confusion. Indeed different types of rural tourism may be operated in the same

locality and, to a certain extent, may share resources, development and management approach, accommodation facilities, products and attractions, marketing and target markets (Weaver, 2006; Yaman and Muhd, 2004). Considering such factors, it is crucial for this study to define and discuss the aspects related to sustainable CBRT based on existing literature.

2.3.4.1 Pro-Poor Tourism and Rural Livelihood

For many developing countries, tourism development agenda often dominated by government institutions and donor agencies with the primary focus is to promote economic growth and encourage investors into participate in developing and managing tourism projects with expectation of generating foreign exchange that will boost both micro and macro economy (Ashley *et al.*, 2000). However, the centre of this focus has not taken full consideration on the crucial needs of underprivileged groups (or the poor) within the local society who involved in tourism. In other words, the expected trickle-down effects (e.g. creation of new jobs with more stable income) are not really benefiting the poor within the community hence improving their livelihood (Wood, 2005).

There are evidences of provision of new jobs related to tourism and diversification of income among those who participated in tourism especially under the government and donors' popular programs of "green tourism", ecotourism and/or community based tourism (Ashley *et al.*, 2000). However as Ashley *et al.*(2000) pointed out, tourism activities and practices should serve its purpose beyond fulfilling the economic gains for the tourism "workers" which is to enhance livelihood potentials to the rural poor. Therefore, it is crucial for the decision makers, practitioners and advocates to address this concern in broader development thinking by formulating plan and strategies to enhance benefits for the poor and improving their livelihood (Scoones, 2009, Ashley *et al.*, 2000).

Work by the UK's Department for International Development (DFID) led to the development of "pro-poor tourism" (PPT), a tourism concept which positioned the poor at the heart of tourism agenda (Ashley *et al.*, 2000) i.e. creating a sector for pro-poor economic growth (tourism) that generates net benefits to poor people. Pro-poor tourism is not focusing on developing a niche tourism product or sector but rather a

concept regarding the outcome of tourism development with general application to any tourism initiative and at any level (Che Leh and Hamzah, 2012; Wood, 2005). Thus it can be in the form of a local community based incentive such as the CBT development in Nakhon Ratchasima in Thailand (Twining Ward, 2007) or could be at state level for instance “homestay tourism and pro-poor tourism strategy for Selangor state” in Malaysia (Che Leh and Hamzah, 2012).

PPT is not a new form of tourism, instead, importantly, it is a strong bottom up development approach which emphasise on the fulfilment of local community interest through sharing of benefits from the tourism activities carried out in their area (Ashley, *et al.*, 2000; Ashley and Roe, 2002; Goodwin, 2005). PPT would encourage active engagement from the underprivileged groups of rural society as “players” or “stakeholders” and not merely “observers”. The changing role from passive to active contributors for tourism and local community development might enable the poor to gain direct benefit from such development hence improving their livelihood.

PPT is also a development concept which can be applied to any tourism development approach while maintaining the following crucial components i.e. linkage between tourism development with local community; provides widespread benefits to all segments of people in the community especially the underprivileged; and actively engage local community in the development and management of tourism activities (Che Leh and Hamzah, 2012, Wood, 2005). The following section will discuss on how elements of PPT as suggested by PPT researchers could be incorporated into one of the tourism development approach for enhancing the rural livelihood i.e. the concept of community based rural tourism (CBRT).

2.3.4.2 Community Based Rural Tourism

The definition of community based rural tourism, according to Bernardo (2011), takes rural environmental, social and cultural sustainability into account. Sustainable CBRT also should be managed and owned by the community with funding and assistance from government agencies or NGOs, for the community, with the purpose of enabling visitors to increase their awareness and learn about the community and local way of life (Aref, 2011; Suansri, 2003 in Dunn, 2007:14). Therefore, what becomes the main outcome of Sustainable CBRT is the improvement of livelihood of the community via

tourism activities, whilst preserving natural environment, maintaining cultural authenticity and ensuring local ownership.

2.3.4.3 Main Components of Sustainable CBRT

Environmental resources (whether they are managed or not), community (host community) and tourism businesses play important roles in sustainable CBRT (Stone and Stone, 2011; Bernardo, 2011; Twining-Ward, 2007; Manyara and Jones, 2007) (Figure 2.3). Ideally, the success of sustainable CBRT activities depends on the flexibility and strength of the relationship between these components.

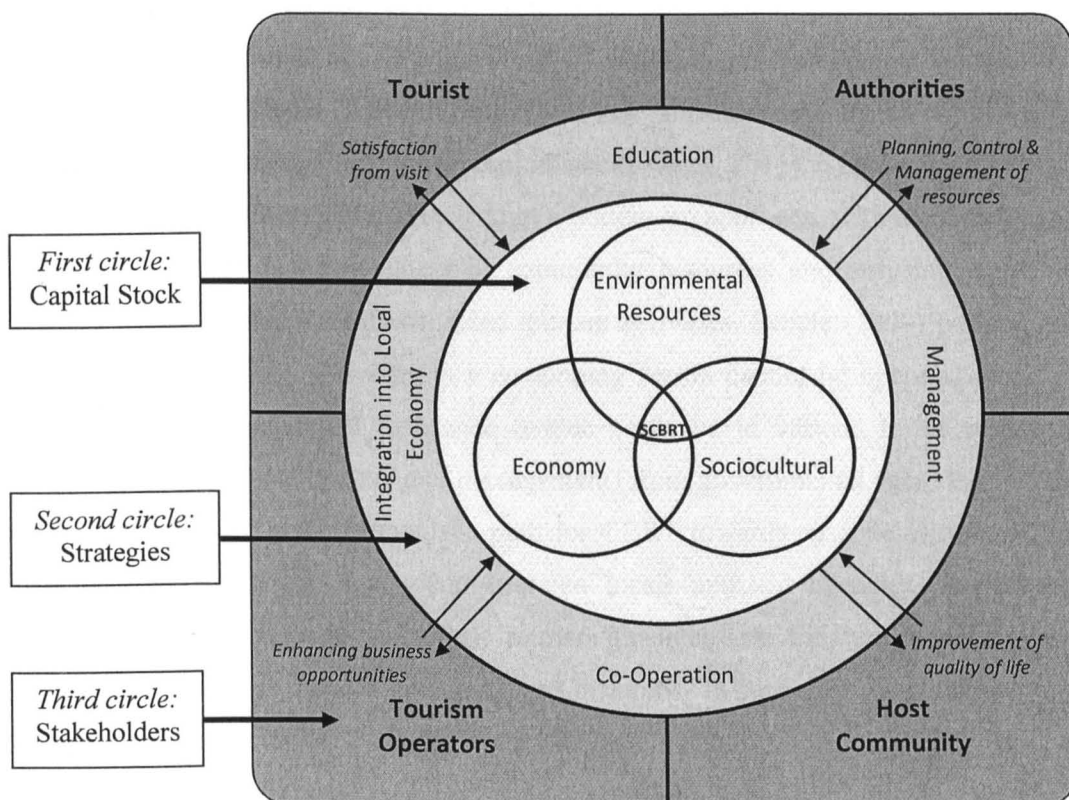


Figure 2.3: A conceptual model of sustainable CBRT. *Source:* adapted from Bernardo (2011); Manyara and Jones (2007) and Tsaur *et al.*, (2006)

As shown in Figure 2.3, sustainable CBRT cannot be pursued without sustaining the core elements, which are the capital stock including environmental, sociocultural and economic capital (also described as First Circle - sustainability of local capital stock). For sustainability of local capital stock, strategies should be implemented (Second Circle –strategies for sustainable rural tourism development). These strategies include:

- Increase the level of co-operation between host communities with tourism operators in promoting and marketing of sustainable CBRT products.
- Establish management plans through collaboration between tourism authorities and host communities.
- Tourism authorities should improve the effectiveness of tourists' education, including promotion of responsible tourists' behaviour.
- Integrate and optimise the potential both of tourism operators and of tourists to stimulate the local economy.

The proposed strategies are derived from examining the interaction within major stakeholders that should also be sustained by ensuring the roles and functions are optimised (Third Circle – participation of key stakeholders) to reach effective implementation of strategies and the capital stocks (Aref, 2011). Sustainable CBRT is a form of sustainable tourism derived from a bottom-up approach, with an objective of achieving responsible management of community resources and ensuring equitable distribution or sharing of benefits from tourism activities. Sebele (2009) pointed out that sustainable CBRT activities in a developing region cannot be operated alone or without initial funding and assistance (which could be in various forms including planning, development, control and management) from governmental agencies, private investments or NGOs. Therefore, the path for CBRT towards sustainability could be realised through strong partnership between locals and aid agencies. Sustainable CBRT also puts emphasis on holistic tourism linkages into the local economy and external markets, and puts the community as one entity in participating, managing and owning tourism activities (Twining-Ward, 2007).

Based on the previous discussion, this research suggests that sustainable CBRT should be defined based on the following criteria:

- i. Based on activities and services are developed through partnerships with all relevant parties, and enhanced by engaging a broad range of local stakeholders.
- ii. Managed and owned by a formal community group (termed the CBRT committee) rather than by individuals or specific interest groups within a community.

- iii. Empowered local people to define and represent their own communities based on local or traditional knowledge and skills.
- iv. Involve an equitable distribution of benefits and costs among all participants in the activity.
- v. Promote sustainable community development and establish a balance between economic, environmental, social and cultural sustainability goals.
- vi. Offer high level of tourist satisfaction through activities which utilise the local or surrounding attractions (natural, cultural and human).
- vii. Enhance local development capacity (local leadership and the local CBRT committee or organisation).
- viii. Involve constant monitoring of impacts to ensure a continuous and long-term sustainability of CBRT programmes.

2.3.4.4 Goals of Sustainable CBRT

Referring to previous section, a set of criteria to promote sustainable application of CBRT was proposed. However, this research has identified the significance in setting clear and inclusive goals, to assess the extent to which the CBRT had moved towards sustainability path. The review of literature had collated opinions from a number of tourism scholars such as Aref (2011); Bernardo (2011), Sebele (2009), Twining-Ward (2007) which indicates the goals of sustainable CBRT should be more inclusive by moving beyond the boundaries of fulfilling natural resource conservation and economic development. As a matter affect, other elements such as strengthening the local communities' participation, prospect for a long-term conservation of culture and increasing educational opportunities for the local communities, should also become primary goals (Aref, 2011; Strzelecka and Wicks, 2010).

This section has conducted a comparative analysis to identify key factors that have been included by other researchers in formulating the goals of a sustainable CBRT (Table 2.6).

Table 2.6: Goals of sustainable CBRT

Goals	Sources						
	Sebele (2009)	Logar (2009)	Dunn (2007)	Choi & Sirakaya (2006)	Daengnoi & Richards (2006)	Leksakundilok (2004)	TMI (2000)
1. To encourage local empowerment and participation in decision-making and leadership	✓		✓	✓		✓	✓
2. To be owned and managed by formal community group (not individuals)	✓		✓		✓		
3. To support community (local economic – source of income and jobs, physical and infrastructures) development and improvement the quality of life	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
4. To provide tools for conservation (of natural, cultural, biological diversity, water, forests, landscape, monuments, etc)	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓
5. To create activities based on local attraction and resources	✓		✓		✓		
6. To encourage knowledge and experience sharing (increase awareness)	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
7. To respect local cultures and their environment (ethical responsibilities and code of conduct)				✓	✓		
8. To recognise the important role of women in tourism development			✓				

Source: Review of literature

As shown in Table 2.6, it is important for sustainable CBRT to have clear goals for local economic development: that is, through substantial income generation and employment creation in tourism and/or in tourism-related activities, physical and infrastructure development and bringing an improvement to the quality of life.

Sustainable CBRT should also aim to enhance knowledge and experience sharing between local communities and tourists that will lead to increased awareness of the importance of the cross-culture process. Many researchers also stress the importance of local empowerment and involvement in the process of development and management of sustainable CBRT, followed by the sustainable CBRT goal such as providing local conservation tools in managing natural, cultural, biological diversity, water, landscape, forests, monuments, and so on. Meanwhile, other goals such as local ownership, ethical considerations and involvement of marginalized groups in a community (e.g. women), are also considered important in specific cases.

In reality, however, the achievement of sustainable CBRT goals requires a lot of effort, consistency and continuous commitment and support by stakeholders involved (Sebele, 2009; Logar, 2009; Dunn, 2007; Twining-Ward, 2007). Sebele (2009) in his research on sustainable CBRT in Botswana indicated that although local rural communities enjoy positive and widely spread impacts of CBRT projects (through creation of new jobs and additional sources of income), larger impacts for the community as a whole, however, are not very significant. This is because most of the incomes generated from tourism activities have been used to cover management costs, and not to create more opportunities and jobs in tourism-related sectors. Logar (2009) in describing sustainable tourism management in Crikvenica, Croatia, has indicated that to achieve sustainable tourism goals, communities should consider not only the internal issues and needs, but also, most importantly, the external factors (such as where the numbers of tourists have been lower than expected, seasonal factors, government policies, and so on) which also could affect local tourism activities. Dunn (2007) in his research on community-based tourism in Leeled Village, in Thailand, describes the important contribution and involvement of women in achieving the sustainable CBRT project goals.

The key rationale underlying the goals of sustainable CBRT is that community-based tourism, through increased intensity of participation, can provide widespread economic, socio-cultural, and environmental benefits, among others and give decision-making power to communities (Kayat and Mohd Nor, 2006; TMI, 2000). These benefits act as incentives for participants and the means to conserve the natural and cultural resources on which income generation depends. Considering the benefits and

costs of achieving sustainable CBRT goals, it is important for various parties, especially the community managers and planners, to provide awareness, information and a systematic approach during the initial process of implementing sustainable CBRT. Stakeholders involved in sustainable CBRT projects must also develop systems that can monitor consistently and allow flexibility and an element of adjustment in planning and destination management (TPRG, 2009; Twining-Ward, 2007; Choi and Sirakaya, 2006).

2.3.5 Community and Stakeholder 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 Stone and Stone (2011); Graci and Dodds (2010) and Sebele (2009) agreed that the sustainable tourism 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 (Stone and Stone, 2011; Manyara and Jones (2007). 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.

Aref (2011: 21) described community participation as “a process whereby the residents of a community are given a voice and a choice to participate in issues affecting their lives”. 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”. 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 2.7.

Table 2.7: Types of community 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 2.7, 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 (Aref, 2011).

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 (UNEP and UNWTO, 2005). 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 including in Malaysia found that it is safer to maintain partnerships 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 (Hamzah and Hampton, 2012). Evidently, community participation is the key in developing and sustaining sustainable CBRT. Without community participation, there might be a barrier for further communication among stakeholders since different groups within the community cannot express and share their values, beliefs and interests on the development of tourism in their community (Aref, 2011).

While some authors agree that community participation can be a positive force towards achieving sustainable CBRT development (Stone and Stone, 2011; Aref, 2011; Okazaki, 2008), others seemed to differ (Sebele, 2009; McKinlay, 2006; Blackstock, 2005; Njoh, 2002). 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; Njoh, 2002), in Thailand (Rattanasuwongchai, 2001) and in Malaysia (Marzuki, 2008; 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.

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 2.8).

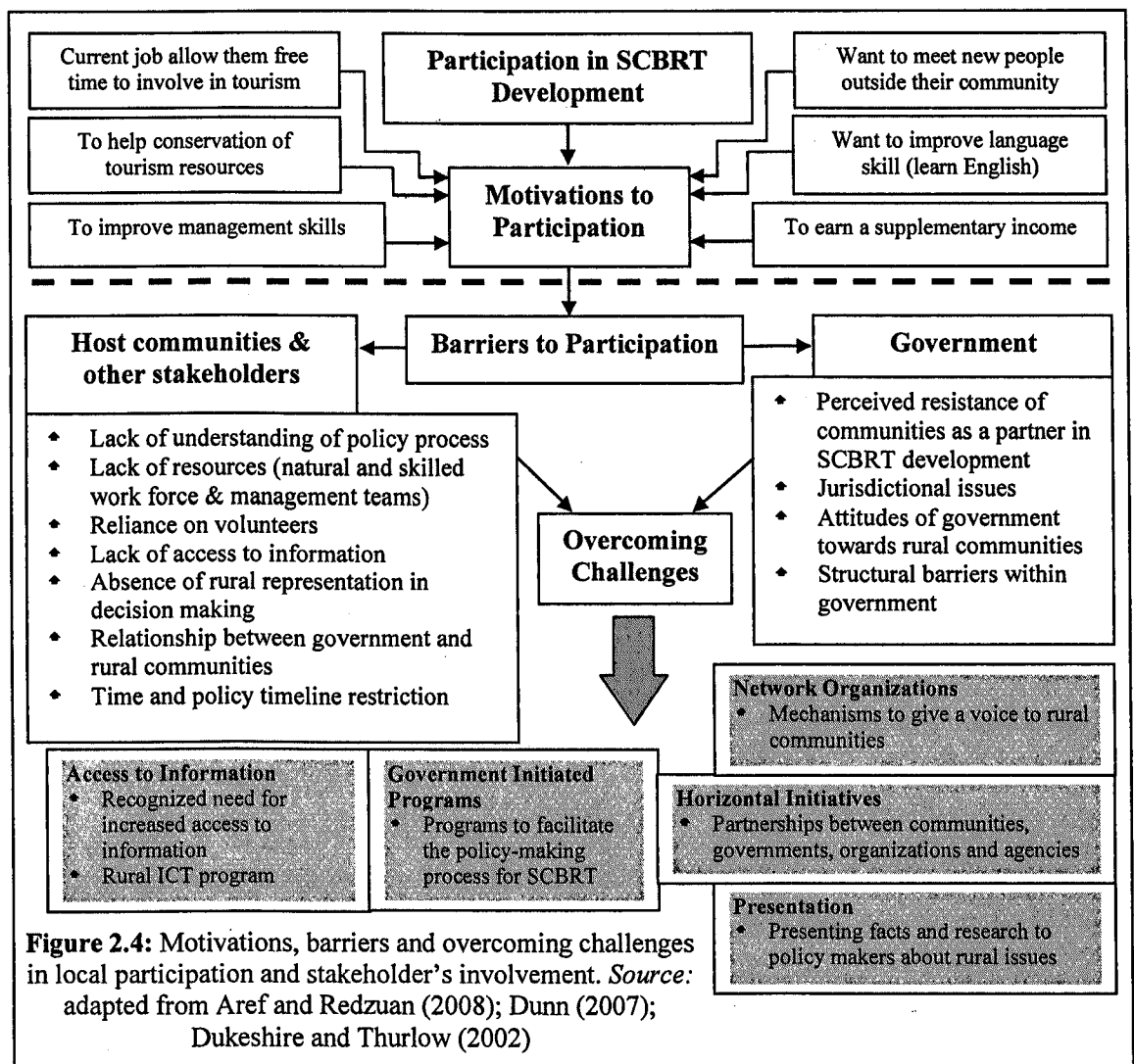
Table 2.8: Strengths of community participation.

1. **Local issues** – 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. **Local assets** – 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. **Local driving force** – 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 (Figure 2.4).



2.3.5.1 Motivation for taking part in sustainable CBRT

Dunn (2007) in community-based tourism research in Thailand and Sebele (2009) in CBRT research in Botswana have identified that one of the many motivations to get involved in sustainable CBRT 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) (Figure 2.4).

2.3.5.2 Barriers to sustainable CBRT participation

In previous section (Section 2.3.5), some issues related with community and stakeholders' participation have been discussed including who should participate and who should make decisions with regards on future planning and management of sustainable CBRT. This section will further the discussion on 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). It is worth to mention that not all CBRT sites including those in Malaysia sharing all the barriers especially in cases where CBRT programmes are planned, developed and managed properly, or the host communities well experience and well thought about the CBRT development processes. 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 in this research: 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.

1) Lack of understanding

Having a sound understanding on how a policy-making process is being carried out has become one of the vital requirement for any communities if they intend to venture into sustainable CBRT development (Stone and Stone, 2011; Dukeshire and Thurlow, 2002). Such understanding can help individuals and community-based organizations to decide whether they should involve in trying to develop or change a policy and, if so, how to get the best out of it. Unfortunately, the reality of policy-making process is far more complicated since the process might involve

manifold procedures (Dukeshire and Thurlow, 2002). For example, approval by authority bodies, discussion and consensus with other key stakeholders, which not only time consuming, but also difficult for almost anyone in the communities to understand the process completely (Stone and Stone, 2011; Matarrita-Casante *et al.*, 2010). However, having a sound understanding about the process involved in the sustainable CBRT might increase chances for empowering the key individuals and their local organisations to participate in the decision-making process (Krank *et al.*, 2010).

2) Lack of resources

Access to resources is one of the main factors to encourage participation by local communities in sustainable CBRT projects (Stone and Stone, 2011). These resources include adequate funding, government training programs, education, leadership skills and volunteers to support sustainable CBRT initiatives (Stone and Stone, 2011; Strzelecka and Wicks, 2010). In many cases such as in Thailand (Dunn, 2007; Rattanasuwongchai, 2001) and in Botswana (Stone and Stone, 2011; Sebele, 2009), rural communities may tend to lack one or more of these resources, creating situation which could limit local communities' ability to actively participate and influence the sustainable CBRT development process.

3) Reliance on volunteers

In referring to Sebele's study (2009) indicated that, lack of funds and skilled labour have made rural communities rely heavily on volunteers, either from other settlements or from foreign countries joint the local CBRT organisations to carry out sustainable CBRT projects. These are two major issues which challenging survivability of many small-scale CBRT programmes. Ngah (2009) who investigated several cases of rural development programmes including tourism development in rural Malaysia pointed out that many rural communities especially in the East Region of Peninsular Malaysia are suffering from low populations and out-migration issues. These phenomena, in turn, placed a huge pressure on the host communities to attract more volunteers to take part with tourism activities (Ngah, 2009). The issue of out-migration also affected the progress in developing CBRT programmes since losing of young people from the communities' means only a small number of future community leaders and local volunteers will be

available (Nghah, 2009 and Dukeshire and Thurlow, 2002). In debating similar issue, Krank *et al.* (2010) pointed out that other reasons that could turn-off the interest of local and/or foreign volunteers to participate into sustainable CBRT is the responsibilities of getting involved in the complex decision-making process for sustainable CBRT programmes. The complexity of decision-making process might require someone with appropriate skills, abilities, knowledge and desire to allocate their time and energy to carry out these processes (Dukeshire and Thurlow, 2002).

4) Lack to access to information

Limited access to information is another factor, which affects the participation of local people and relevant stakeholders in sustainable CBRT development (Stone and Stone, 2011; Dukeshire and Thurlow, 2002). Dukeshire and Thurlow (2002) have discovered that even if such information does exist, it can be difficult to obtain and interpret. Hence, it is important to improve local access to information by providing and upgrading the information and communication technology (ICT) for rural dwellers (Nguru, 2010). Any of government programs on sustainable CBRT, among other policies, which might posed direct impacts to the local communities development, should be made easy for access e.g. via website, or other type of electronic portal. However, obtaining information is not the only barrier; another is how the data or information could be utilised by the community in order to improve their understanding and interest on sustainable CBRT projects (Stone and Stone, 2011; Strzelecka and Wicks, 2010).

5) Absence of rural representation in decision-making process

Local representation in the decision-making process is a vital component for sustainable CBRT development (Graci and Dodds, 2010). Unfortunately, in certain cases such as in CBT projects in Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust (KRST) in Botswana (Stone and Stone, 2011; Sebele, 2009) and in Leeled, Thailand (Dunn, 2007), local community members, including specific groups (i.e. women) within the community and among other rural stakeholder were only included at the initial stage of tourism development. Their roles, knowledge, capabilities and past contribution were overlooked as the project progresses. Without significant participation of these stakeholders in sustainable CBRT decision-making, it is very

difficult to get collective decisions and firm support from local people in carrying out sustainable CBRT projects, especially for the long term (Bernardo, 2011; Graci and Dodds, 2010).

6) The relationship between rural communities and rural government

The shift in the rural tourism development approach from top-down to bottom-up is limited by the community perception that governments do not understand rural issues (Dunn, 2007). It is believed, government officer often impose policies or development programmes which not only fail to trickle down the benefits to local people or, even worse, the implementation of policies or development programmes may negatively affect rural community as a whole (Dunn, 2007; Dukeshire and Thurlow, 2002). In certain situations, the attitudes and actions of government officers who perceive rural people and their stakeholder as 'non experts' unable to suggest better policy outcomes and planning initiatives, have created barriers to working collaboratively in improving participation level and sustainability of rural communities (Graci and Dodds, 2010; Dunn, 2007).

7) Time and policy timeline restrictions

The planning and development of tourism policies often requires certain timeline to be followed as the length of the processes might consume a lot of resources especially financial burden, also affecting commitment from all parties to get involved. Stone and Stone (2011) describe this issue by pointed out that the government or other investors for sustainable CBRT projects often allow such limited time for public consultation with the purpose for immediate actions on policy formulation process. On the other hand, Dukeshire and Thurlow (2002) indicated that the policy-making process also might take a very long time, creating pressure for the resources (cost increases, loss patient among parties involved) and could end up with frustration. All these issues have created pressure and barriers for effective participation by local community and other stakeholders.

Government sectors are also facing the same situation, which interferes with the development of policy for sustainable CBRT, which can be beneficial to rural communities. Below are the identified common barriers at the government level raised by Dukeshire and Thurlow (2002) supported by findings of other researchers:

1) Perceived resistance of communities as a partner in sustainable CBRT planning and policy development

An internal resistance shown by the local communities towards possible changes from the introduction of the sustainable CBRT planning and development programmes is considered as one of the common barriers faced by the government policy-makers who wanted to carry out the policy development process (Dukeshire and Thurlow, 2002). For instance, there are certain cases in Malaysia where rural communities are still attached to traditional culture and beliefs; they are unwilling to negotiate on any changes of these values and aspects, despite the possibility of improving their well-being (Nghah, 2009). Consequently, local communities showed a low commitment and support by limiting their participation in the decision-making process (Dukeshire and Thurlow, 2002). On the other hand, the communities' resistance might occur considering the communities foresee future conflict between their "intact" and "well-being" should the government insists to implement certain policies without the communities' consent.

2) Jurisdictional issues

There are many layers of government involved in the process of formulating the tourism policy planning. For instance, tourism policy planning and development in Malaysia is guided by various plans and development policies which administrated by three levels of government, namely the Federal, States and Local (Marzuki, 2008; FDTCP, 2007). However, roles played by each layer of the government must accordance with their own jurisdictions and responsibilities (FDTCP, 2007; Dukeshire and Thurlow, 2002). The relationship between these agencies relatively influences the planning, development and implementation of sustainable CBRT. Therefore, there is a need to provide clear pathways for collaboration and "trickling down" the power in decision-making from top layer to local jurisdictional bodies to carry out the planning process and other policies (Bernardo, 2011; Nghah, 2009). As pointed out by Nghah (2009) and Marzuki (2008), it is essential for government agencies involved in tourism in Malaysia to establish a mechanism which allow for a cross-sectors agencies partnership and collaboration to carry out sustainable CBRT planning process. For example, the

Ministry of Tourism Malaysia (MOTOUR) might need to collaborate and sharing information on sustainable CBRT programmes with other government agencies such as the Department of Rural Affairs, Department of Agriculture, Department of Forestry and many others (refer to Table 4.4 for the list of government agencies in Malaysia involved directly in tourism development).

3) Attitudes of government toward rural communities

McKinlay (2006) and Dukeshire and Thurlow (2002) have portrayed the attitude of some government policy makers as “urban-biased”, meaning that most of the government officers may live in urban societies, hence lack understanding of the needs of rural communities in sustainable CBRT projects. Due to the existence of “urban-bias”, presumably there will be the tendency to impose an urbanisation and modernization approach and try to make it fit into sustainable CBRT projects. Unfortunately, these types of policies and projects may ignore some vital rural issues that may not be solved through the “urban-biased” approach (McKinlay, 2006; Dukeshire and Thurlow, 2002).

4) Structural barriers within government

The absence of “listening mechanisms” within the government structure itself can create a rather frustrating communication situation between government officers with local communities in discussing the sustainable CBRT process (Krank *et al.*, 2010; Aref and Redzuan, 2008). As stated by Dukeshire and Thurlow (2002), certain government departments could be secretive and work things out strictly within their own area of power. Even worst, there are relatively limited choices of mechanisms available to allow information sharing process taken place across departments.

2.4 SUSTAINABLE CBRT DEVELOPMENT: THE BENEFITS AND COSTS

Tourism activities can generate either positive (benefits) or negative (costs) impacts to the rural communities and their surrounding areas, depending on how the activities is developed and managed. From the bigger picture, the over-riding purpose

of all tourism development, whether international or domestic, is the potential for economic, environmental and socio-cultural development in destination areas. However, measuring the benefits of tourism simply in terms of gross output and employment figures hides a number of broader economic, environmental and socio-cultural benefits for community-based tourism in rural areas. The next sections (2.4.1 to 2.4.3) summarise the benefits and costs of sustainable CBRT development from economic, environmental and socio-cultural dimensions. Every element of benefits and costs identified and organised here based on the literature review and generally accepted by many tourism researchers as benefits and costs, and may have values or similarities when describing the sustainable CBRT programmes in Malaysia.

2.4.1 The Economic Benefits and Costs

The development of sustainable CBRT programmes is primarily driven by the host communities' desire to fulfil their economic objectives. As pointed out by Nguru's study (2010) of small-scale CBRT businesses in Pahang state, Malaysia, the communities regarded CBRT programmes as a way to revitalise local economics by giving host communities various direct and indirect economic benefits such as employment, income and may be help to reduced out-migration of rural populations. With respect to the direct and indirect economic benefits to the host communities, CBRT programmes, however, could act as double-edged sword, which means that the development of sustainable CBRT might potentially harm or create damage to local economics (Rattanasuwongchai, 2001). Because the measurement of economic benefits and costs from the sustainable CBRT programmes is not an easy or straightforward process, it may require some sort of criteria such as the intensity of tourism developed and/or the characteristics of the host communities. There are some elements which have gained general acceptance among tourism researchers to be included as the economic benefits and costs of sustainable CBRT (Sebele, 2009; Logar,2009; Cooper *et. al.*, 2008; Banerjee, 2007 and Rattanasuwangchai,2001) (Table 2.9).

Table 2.9: Summary of the economic benefits and costs of sustainable CBRT

Economic benefits	Economic costs
<p>Sustainable CBRT represents an important additional or new source of income to rural communities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ New jobs may be created in tourism related business, such as accommodation, catering, retailing, transport and entertainment. ◆ Existing employment opportunities in services, such as transport and hospitality, and in more traditional rural industries and crafts are safeguarded. ◆ The local economy becomes diversified, providing a broader and more stable economic base for the local community. ◆ Opportunities for pluriactivity may emerge, thereby guarding against recession and protecting income levels. ◆ Existing businesses and services are supported. ◆ New businesses may be attracted to the area, further diversifying and strengthening the local economy whilst reducing the need for stable grant of farming. 	<p>Potential economic costs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Increases the demand for, and cost of, public services, such as refuse collection, medical services and the police. ◆ Incurs developmental costs, including attractions, facilities and general infrastructural improvements. ◆ May create jobs which are part-time or seasonal. Furthermore, local people may neither wish, nor possess the relevant skills, to respond to employment opportunities offered by tourism with the result that many tourism-related businesses are run by ‘outsiders’ (labour in-migration), and this will distort local employment structure. ◆ Frequently leads to increases in the price of land, property, goods and services. In particular, holiday-home ownership in rural areas often means that local people are no longer able to afford the cost of housing. Increasing price for goods and services may create greater impact (i.e. local inflation). ◆ May result in local communities becoming over-dependent on a single industry; the success of which is beyond the control of the local communities. For example, prolonged bad weather or competition from other areas may reduce the number of visitors, undermining the longer-term economic viability of tourism. ◆ Seasonal patterns of demand.

Source : adapted from Sebele (2009); Logar (2009); Cooper *et. al.* (2008); Banerjee (2007); and Rattanasuwangchai (2001).

Table 2.9 shows that it is important for rural communities to realise that in order to gain benefits from sustainable CBRT projects, they must also be willing to contribute to the costs of maintaining sustainable CBRT activities. There are some cases whereby local communities have seemed very eager to join the sustainable CBRT projects when they hear about all the potential benefits generated from sustainable CBRT activities. However, the communities become less keen to fully participate in sustainable CBRT projects as they become reluctant to share the costs and contribute financially to cover the sustainable CBRT expenses (i.e. maintenance costs of the public and tourism facilities) (Dunn, 2007; Banerjee, 2007). Every so often, these benefits (as listed in

Table 2.9), turned into expenditure for the rural communities (e.g. the introduction of new types of businesses in rural areas). Nonetheless, if these types of activities are well managed by local organizations, they could bring prosperity and contribute towards the strengthening of local economic performance. On the other hand, however, if new economic developments are allowed without proper monitoring and control systems, local communities could soon lose control over their own resources and other tourism-related activities in their areas and the costs may then out-weigh the benefits they could gain from sustainable CBRT projects.

2.4.2 The Environmental Benefits and Costs

Rural communities depend on their surrounding resources such as forest products, agriculture and fisheries as sources of income (Hamzah and Hampton, 2012; Manyara and Jones, 2007). Depending on how sustainable CBRT development is planned and managed, the programmes could potentially provide local communities with alternative income, which will reduce their exploitation of natural resources and at the same time educate the communities about conserving their surrounding environment for tourism purposes (Stone and Stone, 2011). Table 2.10 summarises the environmental benefits and costs of sustainable CBRT programmes by compiling the most common reasons given by various tourism readers.

Table 2.10: Summary of the environmental benefits and costs of sustainable CBRT programmes

Environmental benefits	Environmental costs
<p>The success of sustainable CBRT development depends upon an attractive environment:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Provides both the financial resources and the stimulus for the conservation, protection and improvement of the natural rural environment. ◆ Supports the conservation and improvement of the historic sites and architectural character, including traditional houses. 	<p>Rural environment is particularly fragile and susceptible to the development of tourism. With the absent of proper tourism planning, uncontrolled development and inability of managing a large numbers of visitors during peak seasons could potentially:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Cause damage to both the natural (destruction of habitat) and manmade environment. Activities such as jungle-tracking, camping and wildlife observation all have an impact on the physical environment, whilst homestays

(Continued)

Table 2.10: Continued.

Environmental benefits	Environmental costs
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Leads to environmental improvements in rural towns and villages infrastructures, such as solid waste disposal systems, sewage, traffic regulation and general improvements to buildings. ◆ Promotes an environmental awareness among members of the host communities. By observing the interest showed by tourists in appreciating local natural beauty, might increase the level of environmental awareness among host communities - to protect and conserve their environment for tourism benefits. 	<p>and communal facilities may suffer from intensive visitor use.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Increases the level of pollution which leads to ecological disruption of the local fragile environment. This may be physical pollution, such as litter and rubbish, air pollution from excessive amount of traffic, noise pollution, or visual pollution resulting from, for example, developments which are inappropriate or intrude upon the rural setting (new construction sprawl possibly grafted onto existing settlements).

Source: Graci and Dodds (2010); Sebele (2009); Mayara and Jones (2007); Cooper *et al.* (2008); Sharpley and Sharpley (1997)

Bernardo (2011) question whether sustainable CBRT may be able to provide sufficient financial assistance to promote resource conservation in the long-term. Some negative impacts and costs generated by tourism activities on the natural environment have long-term implications (air and water pollution, soil erosion, and so on), which goes beyond local capabilities to repair, even with huge financial aid. Based on his research on tourism in rural and islands in Malaysia, Hamzah and Hampton (2012) suggests that large numbers of tourists may cause overexploitation of natural resources and impose negative impacts on rural environment, such as increased vehicle travel to rural areas, which can cause environmental degradation.

2.4.3 The Socio-Cultural Benefits and Costs

The sustainable CBRT programmes can be a major stimulus for conservation of vital socio-cultural components of host communities. Many cases, for example Nguru's study (2010) of the CBRT development in Pahang state, Malaysia, indicate the CBRT programmes are usually functioning as double-edged sword, i.e. to serve as tools to conserve local cultural identity for future generations, and to serve as tourist attractions. However, if the efforts to protect and conserve the socio-cultural components of CBRT programmes are not well planned and managed, they might create negative impacts towards host communities in the future (Table 2.11).

Table 2.11: Summary of the socio-cultural benefits and costs of sustainable CBRT programmes

Socio-cultural benefits	Socio-cultural costs
<p>The development of sustainable CBRT contributes to a variety of socio-cultural benefits to rural communities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ The maintenance and support of local services, such as public transport and health care. ◆ New facilities and attractions, such as cultural or entertainment facilities or recreational centres. ◆ Increased social contact in more isolated communities (aboriginal communities) and opportunities for cultural exchange. ◆ Greater awareness and the revitalisation of local customs, crafts and cultural identities. ◆ Reduce gender imbalance through the development of the role of women in more traditional or isolated rural communities. ◆ Instillation of a sense of local pride, self-esteem and identity through collective community activity. 	<p>Tourism can act as a catalyst in the process of acculturation with traditional, remote and small-scale rural communities – vulnerable to outside influence:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Increases in crime and other antisocial behaviour. ◆ Congestion and crowding which impinges on the day to day life and privacy of local residents. ◆ Destruction of indigenous culture. The introduction of new ideas, styles and behavioural modes which challenge traditional culture and values. ◆ Reinforcement of perceptions of women’s employment as a low paid, part-time extension of the domestic role.

Source: Stone and Stone (2011); Nguru (2010); Sebele (2009); Logar (2009); Rattanasuwongchai (2001); Sharpley and Sharpley (1997).

Logar (2009) who investigated a case of CBRT in Crikvenica, Croatia pointed out that the community-based tourism has increased awareness among local people about their own culture and customs, crafts and cultural identities. Establishment of sustainable CBRT projects also creates opportunities for various groups (e.g. women, elderly and young people) within local communities to participate, especially in cultural performance as musicians and dancers, and owners of local crafts and souvenir shops (Stone and Stone, 2011; Dyer *et. al.*, 2003). However, poorly planned sustainable CBRT projects, on the other hand, can mean that local communities could be invaded by foreign tourists with different socio-cultural values, disrupting local and/or traditional culture (Graci and Dodds, 2010; Blackstock, 2005; Rattanasuwongchai, 2001). Socio-cultural impacts not only can be seen from attitude changes and acceptability by locals of modern or foreign values, but also from the physical changes. Traditional houses and traditional architectural design of buildings replaced by modern

and contemporary building are examples of tangible evidence (Kayat and Mohd Nor, 2006).

In conclusion, there can be both costs and benefits resulting from sustainable CBRT programmes. However, the determination of either the element of costs of the programmes can be outweighed by the benefits, or vice versa, should require for a more intensive observation such as the intensity of tourism developed, as well as the characteristics of the host communities, status of tourism infrastructures, financial and marketing, and other related factors.

2.5 ISSUES AND CHALLENGES IN SUSTAINABLE CBRT

The concept of sustainable CBRT which discussed throughout the chapter described that the sustainable development is perhaps the most challenging concept formulated to be integrated with community based rural tourism programmes. The ambiguity of sustainable development and CBRT concepts created complexities and huge challenges for CBRT stakeholders to reach the core objective that is to fulfil the inter-generation and intra-generation needs while maximising positive impacts and mitigating negative impacts of three explicit dimensions of economic, socio-culture and environmental. This section reviews some common issues and challenges in sustainable CBRT programmes using information from the literature review. These issues and challenges should be explained and discussed since they might affect or influence the outcomes of the sustainable CBRT planning, development and management processes. The issues and challenges are discussed from the economic, environmental and socio-cultural dimensions.

2.5.1 The Economic Dimension

One of the main issues in sustainable CBRT projects is the provision of high quality accommodation (Stone and Stone, 2011; Logar, 2009). In developing countries, especially in remote areas, fluctuating numbers of tourists especially seasonal tourists, has brought lower income for tourism operators and has limit the operators' capability

to maintain the accommodation facilities (Logar, 2009). In referring to Logar's (2009) study of CBRT development in Crikvenica, Croatia, indicated that, financial constraints experienced by tourism operators have affected the provision of what should be good accommodation facilities turned out to be low-quality hotels. Low-quality services provided by the accommodation operators at the end will attract guests with lower purchasing power, which then affect all tourism related businesses.

Secondly, there may be the issue of illegal private accommodation within CBRT project sites (Berita Harian Online, 2011; Logar, 2009). This issue occurs especially in CBT projects that have been carried out jointly between local communities with private operators (Berita Harian Online, 2011; Njoh, 2002). During initial stages, the initiative to form joint ventures was purposely taken to enable members of the community to share the costs of the projects and with constant number of tourists' arrival, all tourism-related activities in the area are assumed to gain benefit from it. In the end, however, provision of tourism accommodation facilities may be monopolised by certain parties (especially by people who are pioneers of these projects), and this can create dissatisfaction among members within the community (Stone and Stone, 2011; Njoh, 2002). This dissatisfaction, can then result in the emergence of another group of local people who converted their home as unregistered accommodation for tourists (Berita Harian Online, 2011). This phenomenon occurred in many tourism sites in the East Coast Region of Malaysia (Berita Harian Online, 2011), and in Crikvenica, Croatia, where these "unregistered landlords" rented out accommodation without paying the appropriate contribution to the locals and their action has put greater pressure on public infrastructure and tourism resources owned by the community as a whole (Logar, 2009).

The next issue is related with seasonality of income and employment (Graci and Dodds, 2010; Logar, 2009). When tourism locations are entirely dependent on tourism activities, the issue of seasonality is inevitable. For example, in tropical countries like Malaysia, seasonality of income and employment is caused by the annual monsoon season from November to March (Northeast monsoon) and May until September (Southwest monsoon) and during these periods of time, islands and certain beaches will be closed for any tourism activities for safety reasons (Nguru, 2010). Those who are lucky, may find another short-term job in another sector such as construction;

working in farms, or using the closed period to upgrade facilities (construct new or improve their accommodation facilities, etc.) (Nguru, 2010). Those who are not however, may spend the closed period not doing any job, due to difficulties to get short-term jobs and so on. Another disadvantage of seasonality is it could also encourage “peaking” with the arrival of large numbers of tourists during a short period which will potentially affect tourism resources, as well as contributing to the low annual accommodation occupancy (Nguru, 2010).

There is also the issue of lack of adequate trained work force to manage tourism activities (Stone and Stone, 2011; Logar, 2009). Difficulty in developing skilled work force is mainly due to the out-migration of youth groups. This movement is as a result of limited or declining job prospects in rural agricultural activities – pushing them to migrate to get better jobs in other sectors outside their hometown (Ngah, 2009). This gap in work force created by previous out-migration has been filled either by foreign workers, or by locals, who generally have lower skill levels. Other than lack of interest among locals to participate in CBRT projects, seasonal pattern of tourism in those areas (Logar, 2009) has made the locals; especially the young people feel that the economic benefits of CBRT do not offer attractive future prospects for them (Kayat and Mohd Nor, 2006).

2.5.2 The Environmental Dimension

The development of CBRT projects, with large numbers of tourist arrivals during tourist season, has increased the demand for transport and increase traffic on the rural roads, hence placed a great pressure for the use of public amenities and accommodation facilities in rural areas until it has created serious impacts on the environment and natural resources in the local context (Graci and Dodds, 2010; Logar, 2009). Among the primary effects are landscape degradation, loss of natural habitats, soil sealing, greater pressure for freshwater consumption, demanded for better wastewater management system, etc. (Logar, 2009). The extensive modernization process introduced for tourist attractions in rural areas has caused the visual pollution phenomenon (Logar, 2009). This situation is worse in rural areas, which are not controlled by certain planning guideline, such as maximum height control for built forms. Without proper control and monitoring of modernisation in local physical

environment, it could lead to the destruction of traditional character of the settlements and its architectural features in the future.

The second issue is related with the potential increase of environmental loads (Nguru, 2010; Logar, 2009). For instance, Logar (2009) explained, using the example of sustainable tourism activities in Crikvenica, Croatia, that during the summer season, the population of Crikvenica areas increased by three to four times. Such dramatic increments in number of people will create tension between users and various elements of tourism resources. These have also increased the environmental loads, such as higher water consumption, wastewater outflow, solid waste quantities and beach saturation (Logar, 2009).

2.5.3 The Socio-Cultural Dimension

Among the issues emerging from CBRT projects are loss of local traditions and customs (Graci and Dodds, 2010; Cooper *et. al.*, 2008). There is much evidence which appears to support the hope that sustainable CBRT bring balance and protection for local socio-cultural values for tourism attractions, in certain areas. Nevertheless, some outcomes show otherwise (Cooper *et. al.*, 2008). In Malaysia, extensive development of tourism activities has brought various forms of physical developments (e.g. upgrading public facilities and local transport system, telecommunications facilities and so on) and other tangible benefits to the communities (Nguru, 2010). Due to changes introduced by CBRT projects, many people have decided to abandon their local traditions as anglers and farmers, and turned to the tourism industry (Logar, 2009). Although there are other factors, which influence the loss of local traditions, the development of tourism has contributed considerably to it.

A further issue relate to social structure changes resulting from tourism. Logar (2009) study, for example, indicated that due to lack of local interest in CBRT programmes, foreign workers have been brought to support the tourism in Crikvenica, Croatia. Some of these foreign workers have later become permanent residents where CBRT projects are being implemented. However, these foreign workers actually came into the community with their own socio-cultural values and life style, which, at certain point, can create tension with local and traditional socio-cultural values (Logar, 2009). This

is because, introduction and influences of foreign culture and values may not be suitable for local practices and if these are not under control, it could change the local socio-cultural structure in the long term (Logar, 2009). The same phenomena could possibly be experienced elsewhere, including in Malaysia, even though the level of impact might be varied based on the type, intensity of tourism developed as well as the characteristics of the host communities and their stakeholders.

2.5.4 Challenges in Sustainable CBRT Programmes

The following section analyses challenges in terms of employment creation, lost of benefits, lack of skills in management, marketing and entrepreneurship, lack of communities' involvement and participation, lack of sense of ownership towards the CBRT programmes, imbalance in board representation and reliance on donor funding.

i. Employment creation

The common dilemma faced by CBRT project is that although the numbers of tourists increases steadily over the years, the number of employees, however, remains the same (Sebele, 2009). Among the reasons given by management teams was that the income generated from CBRT projects has been used for sustaining operational costs and for staff salaries (Stone and Stone, 2011; Sebele, 2009). This situation has raised questions about the ability of CBRT projects to accomplish the sustainability agenda in its operation and development process. Furthermore, CBRT may lose the support from communities if this issue persists.

ii. Lost benefits

Intensive tourism activities have to optimise the use of natural resources (Hamzah and Hampton, 2012; Graci and Dodds, 2010). Without regular monitoring processes, communities are more vulnerable of losing their invaluable natural resources (Lane, 2009; Twining-Ward, 2007). For small-scale CBRT projects, when costs outweigh the benefits, they may face higher risk of failure (Nguru, 2010). In situations where benefits are no longer enjoyed by a majority of the locals, it is most likely for them to pull out their support for local CBRT projects, because costs and risks will increase their financial burdens as well as their well-being (Marzuki, 2008). These potential losses would then further enhance the cycle of poverty and

overwhelm the goal of sustainable community-based initiatives, which are intended to eradicate poverty in the rural areas (Nguru, 2010; Sebele, 2009).

iii. Poor management, marketing and entrepreneurial skills

In cases where sustainable CBRT projects have been developed and operated for quite some time, websites play important roles in promoting, marketing and informing the tourists of any events in their locality (Graci and Dodds, 2010; Nguru, 2010). Due to poor management, marketing and entrepreneurial skills, however, many recent events and important information may not be published to potential visitors. Sebele (2009) using the case of Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust (KRST) in Botswana highlighted that the CBRT website has not been updated for almost two years. Poor management of finances also contributed to their failure in marketing the CBRT projects in regional or international exhibitions (Sebele, 2009).

iv. Lack of community involvement and participation

Research done by many tourism scholars such as Stone and Stone (2011); Sebele (2009); Logar (2009); Dunn (2007); Sedai (2006) show local communities in certain circumstances are not being actively involved in the running of CBRT projects. Local communities have been invited to participate during the early stages of planning the development of CBRT by the authorities or their partnership agencies. At this stage, communities were asked for their consent to use the local natural resources or traditional communal land as tourist attractions. However, after the sustainable CBRT plan has been executed and the board members and management teams have been set up, the project has been carried out without much interaction and intervention by local residents (Stone and Stone, 2011; Sebele, 2009). In the short term, this might not be such a big concern for the communities; however, for a much longer period, with limited interaction, it could mean that communities' voice is seldom heard and taken into account in any decision making (Sebele, 2009). Lack of participation and involvement by local communities has also been due to language barriers and poor access to information (Sebele, 2009). In remote areas where the level of illiteracy is still relatively high, the use of English in tourism newsletters and brochures should be accompanied by local language in order to encourage wider awareness and create a good rapport with host communities (Stone and Stone, 2011; Sebele, 2009).

v. Lack of sense of communal ownership of the project

The question: “who owns CBRT?” elicited a number of responses from tourism researchers such as Stone and Stone (2011), Aref (2011); Sebele (2009) and Scheyvens (2002) which suggests that “elites often dominate community-based development efforts and monopolise the benefits of tourism” (Scheyvens, 2002). This might be due to the dominance of a few individuals and/or private companies since the project took off (Stone and Stone, 2011; Sebele, 2009; Njoh, 2002). Community members later came to realise that their local tourism activities had been monopolised and CBRT was only used as a label to solicit funds for the enterprises (Yaman and Muhd, 2004). Communities considered themselves as just being used for another political game, while in reality, the elites are the ones who controlled and gained real benefits from the enterprise (Sebele, 2009; Njoh, 2002).

Nguru (2010) and Scheyvens (2002) stressed the importance of a communal sense of ownership, as communities can only be active participants in tourism projects if they have a sense of ownership of these projects. On the same basis of sense of ownership in CBRT, Aref (2011) stated that the community-based tourism should be run in a transparent manner, by incorporating stakeholders who represent the interests of the communities and reflect true ownership.

vi. Imbalance in board representation

Acquiring balanced representative board membership for sustainable CBRT is one of the challenges (Stone and Stone, 2011; Sebele, 2009; McKinley, 2006). Stone and Stone (2011) and Sebele (2009) demonstrates in certain cases that, due to this imbalance, residents from different project areas, might receive different (often described as unfair) advantages. Villages with a larger number of board members usually enjoyed greater benefits (in term of tourism services and facilities provisions), compared to villages with a smaller group of board members (Stone and Stone, 2011; Sebele, 2009). The imbalance in representation may, at a later stage create problems, especially when it comes to distribution of benefits among different member of the community, especially marginalized groups such as women (Dunn, 2007; McKinley, 2006).

vii. Reliance on donor funding

In many cases, sustainable CBRT projects are motivated by joint-initiatives between local communities with other aid agencies, including the government, private sectors, or even local NGOs (Stone and Stone, 2011; Manyara and Jones, 2007). This is because, communities alone are not capable of initiating the CBRT projects in their areas due to various barriers such as lack of understanding about tourism development, lack of management skills, lack of funding, etc (Sebele, 2009; Twining-Ward, 2007; Dukeshire and Thurlow, 2002). There are also cases where CBRT received funds from international aid agencies such as Asia Development Bank (ADB), United Nation Development Programme (UNDP), among others (Twining-Ward, 2007). The aid received could help in terms of financial, training, physical amenities projects, and so on.

There is no doubt that assistance given by donors' funds are important, especially for poor communities and those in the early stages of CBRT projects development (Strzelecka and Wicks, 2010). Sebele (2009) uses an example of how a restaurant project in KRST in Botswana with funds from the African Development Corporation (ADC) would be beneficial to CBRT owners. With establishment of the restaurant, an increase in the number of permanent employees and casual labourers followed (Sebele, 2009). The over-reliance on external donors, however, can make the economic viability of the CBRT projects questionable – could CBRT projects survive without the intervention of donor agencies? Projects, which are heavily dependent on this type of relationship, might face the risk of failure when the aid agencies withdraw their assistance (Stone and Stone, 2011; Sebele, 2009).

2.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has examined the concept of sustainable development and its evolution in a form of application by the tourism sector. The application of sustainable development principles in ensuring sustainability of tourism from economic, social and environmental point of view has gained much attention among people from various backgrounds. Nevertheless, the concept of sustainable tourism is not without criticism

as the concept itself is considered by many researchers as unclear and ambiguous, which could lead to misinterpretation. However, as time goes by, there have been a lot of improvements and modifications through a series of international dialogues and conferences to make the concept clearer, less contested and accepted not only by policy-makers, but also by local communities and stakeholders through “bottom-up” planning approach – emergence of sustainable community-based rural tourism (CBRT).

As there is no single definition, which fits all cases, this chapter, has suggested a set of criteria to be used as a guide in defining sustainable CBRT based on intensive review of previous works of other authors. Sustainable CBRT is a strategy for sustainable rural community livelihood development by empowering locals and stakeholders in developing the economy, leadership, protecting valuable natural resources and socio-cultural values. The development of sustainable CBRT, however, is not without its challenges. As interest in sustainable CBRT programmes increases, the issues related with desirable forms of tourism and who should get involved in decision-making process become important. This chapter has examined the extent to which local people and their stakeholders can play effective roles in sustainable CBRT planning and decision-making processes. The literature also reveals the challenges in community and stakeholders participation in sustainable CBRT from economic, socio-cultural and environmental points of view. The establishment of a theoretical context from this chapter, especially about the nature of sustainable CBRT and the need for local community and stakeholder’s participation in CBRT decision-making process, has shown that there is an urgent need for the establishment of certain forms or methods on how to measure and monitor the CBRT progress towards sustainability. These tasks were given further attention in the next chapter – the review of indicators of sustainable CBRT.

CHAPTER 3

REVIEW OF INDICATORS OF SUSTAINABLE COMMUNITY-BASED RURAL TOURISM

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the characteristics of sustainable community-based rural tourism (CBRT), how sustainable CBRT was planned and developed as one vital strategy to improve the economic condition of rural communities and at the same time to maintain rural resources (natural and cultural) for present and future use. Nevertheless, planning and development of sustainable CBRT alone might not be sufficient in meeting the criteria for sustainable tourism development (STD) without monitoring and assessment aspects of any possible impacts derived from sustainable CBRT programmes. This is because, when it comes to examining the world with a concern for sustainable development, it is obviously important to know if such actions, however marginal, might create positive and/or negative impacts in terms of meeting the sustainability goals. These impacts could involve changes in the physical environment of the rural areas and/or associated social and economic aspects of their inhabitants. The decisions on planning and development of sustainable CBRT programmes made either by government or by local stakeholders are intended to overcome the current problems faced by rural communities.

However, putting plans or programmes into reality is far more important, not only to achieve the stated goal of positive implications, but more importantly, to ensure that the implementation of the programmes should not create further new problems or undesirable living conditions for rural communities. Therefore, indicators are needed to make rational policy choices on the sustainable CBRT programmes and as one way of assessing the

contribution of sustainable CBRT towards STD agenda. In this regard, Strange and Bayley (2008: 98) assert:

“Meeting today’s and tomorrow’s needs requires knowing what we have, what we consume, what will remain and what can be regenerated or replaced. Accurate measurements and accounting of our natural, social and economic capital are essential to moving forward on a sustainable path.”

The statement by Strange and Bayley provides useful insight for sustainable CBRT researchers, suggesting that whether the scale of tourism is small or relatively large, the activities might still consume and exploit the rural resources such as forest areas, water catchment areas, agriculture land and human capital. The absence of proper monitoring (e.g. measures with certain types of indicators) could potentially affect and divert the communities from the path of sustainable development.

This chapter includes a review of the concept of sustainability indicators, starting with explanations of indicators of sustainable development, followed by justification for the need for indicators and current practices for deriving sustainability indicators based on experiences both from international countries and from Malaysia. The reviews continue with examination of frameworks for indicators development, followed by discussion of indicators for sustainable CBRT and, finally, challenges in sustainability indicators work.

3.2 INDICATORS OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

3.2.1 The nature of indicators

Indicators play significant roles in influencing decision-making processes. Indicators can provide relevant information and understanding about surrounding environments and from that offer guidelines on how to respond in more controlled ways (Peet, 2006). A Meteorological Department uses local temperature readings as indicators to predict local weather conditions, and a Health Department uses specific indicators such as body temperature, blood pressure, and so on, to determine the possibility of swine flu infection. For both situations, information derived from indicators has been used as a guide in

selecting the most appropriate action to be taken (e.g. to take an umbrella when leaving home, or to enforce the quarantine procedure on patients suspected of having flu, etc).

However, applying too many indicators which exceed what is strictly needed (even for the reason to gather as much relevant information as possible about a subject under study) could create difficulties in decision-making processes (Peet, 2006). Without good understanding of the nature of indicators, decision-makers and whoever is in charge of decision making could easily “drown in the sea of information” or worse, increase the potential risk for misjudgement in making important decisions.

A review of the literature on indicators reveals various definitions of what is an indicator. Roberts and Tribe (2008), Strange and Bayley (2008) and Muhammad (2001) assert that definition of sustainability indicators varies to reflect the multi-disciplinary or ideological perspectives of the researchers, and the intended application of the indicators.

A generic definition of an indicator has been given by Gallopín (1997; cited in Roberts and Tribe, 2008: 577) which states that an indicator is “a sign – something that points out, or stands for something else”. In clarifying the meaning of Gallopín’s definition, a car’s fuel gauge (located in front on the driver’s dashboard) is used as an example. The fuel meter reading will “point out” how much “resources” (fuel) remains, without the driver checking the fuel tank manually. The fuel meter is the representation for indicator that is measuring how much fuel remains in the car tank, which also informs the driver how much fuel has been consumed by the car.

Hart (1999; cited in Glasson, 2005: 43) provides a more comprehensive explanation of indicators:

“An indicator is something that helps you understand where you are, which way you are going and how far you are from where you want to be. A good indicator alerts you to a problem before it gets too bad, and helps you to recognise what needs to be done to fix the problem.”

Strange and Bayley (2008: 101) seem to agree with Hart’s definition of an indicator, but place specific attention on the need for a timeframe in defining an indicator. With this regard, they assert that:

“An indicator is a summary measure that provides information on the state of, or change in, a system. An indicator gives us a snapshot of how we are doing at the given point in time relative to what we’ve decided is important.”

The definitions by both Hart and Strange and Bayley have demonstrated the importance of an element of “direction” (i.e. moving from the current stage to another). Using the same example of a car’s fuel indication, but from a different perspective, the element of direction could assist the driver in decision making – “where” and “when” the car fuel tank needs to be refilled. In addition, with the remaining fuel the driver should have some idea of “choosing the best route” to reach its destination before the car runs out of petrol.

An indicator also can be identified based on the communicative quality (Roberts and Tribe, 2008; Ceron and Dubois, 2003). One classic example of an indicator was offered by Ott (1978; cited in Mitchell, 1996: 2) that defined an indicator as “a means devised to reduce a large quantity of data down to its simplest form, retaining essential meaning for the questions that are being asked of the data”. In other words, by reducing the quantity of data into short and simple indicators, the communication complexity between scientists (formulators) and decision-makers and with the public (users) could be improved. Expanding on Ott’s definition, Ceron and Dubois (2003) and Jasch (2000) view an indicator as a means to help in summarising or simplifying relevant information which in turn, make visible certain phenomena of interest, and also highlight problem areas.

However, producing simple indicators is not an easy task. Making an indicator simple does not allow it to be made too simple. The guideline offered by Ott’s definition should be considered – make it simple and yet still maintain the essential meaning of each indicator, to avoid formulating simpler but meaningless indicators. In the context of sustainable development and community-based rural tourism, formulation of indicators must take into consideration the interconnectivity of its three basic pillars (environment, society and economy) and the various needs of the stakeholders involved. Moldan and Billharz (1997) stressed that formulation of an indicator should be made by consensus amongst scientists, experts, decision-makers and the local stakeholders or public. This is because there is the need for various stakeholders to take into account different needs and situations between parties involved. The scientific community can define the state of desirability or acceptability of environmental conditions, but the public or societies also have their own acceptable values. Furthermore, sustainability indicators should include

ecological values, which are also somewhat influenced by the public's economic and social values (Young, 1995). Sustainability indicators should then be defined as a collective assessment of values set by environmentalists, economists, social scientists and the public or local stakeholders.

3.2.2 The basis and need for sustainability indicators

The UNCED conference in Rio de Janeiro, 1992' established the Rio Earth Summit's agenda on environment and development (Rogers *et al.*, 2008; Strange and Bayley, 2008). According to Strange and Bayley (2008), some of the issues on the agenda for the conference included:

- 1) The interrelationship between environment and development;
- 2) Conservation and management of biological diversity;
- 3) Strengthening the role of major groups such as women, local governments and NGOs;
- 4) Integrating economic and social needs of the community, such as combating poverty, improving the public awareness of environmental problems;
- 5) Developing tools for implementation and promotion of the sustainable development agenda.

One of the major outcomes of this conference was an agreement on adoption of an action programme for sustainable development called Agenda 21 (agenda for the 21st century) (Rogers *et al.*, 2008; Strange and Bayley, 2008).

Agenda 21 is a comprehensive programme of action for countries of the world to achieve a more sustainable pattern of development for the next century (Strange and Bayley, 2008; Mitchell *et al.*, 1995). In order to put into practice various programmes of action inside Agenda 21, the United Nations was given the mandate to establish a set of indicators of sustainable development to help to assess and monitor changes and to track progress towards sustainable development (Bell and Morse, 2008; Roberts and Tribe, 2008). Sustainability indicators are vital components in any overall assessment of the progress towards sustainable development. A strong assertion on the need for

sustainability indicators for tourism is made by Butler (1999; cited in Schianetz and Kavanagh, 2008: 604). Butler indicates that:

“Without measures or indicators for tourism development the use of the term “sustainable” is meaningless and becomes hyperbole and advertising jargon.”

Despite the popularity gained by the concept of sustainable development, it still remains a contested concept and open to criticisms. Fortune and Hunges (1997; cited in Bell and Morse, 2008: 3) argue that “[sustainability] is an empty concept, lacking firm substance and containing embedded ideological positions that are, under the best interpretation, condescending and paternalistic”. However, the concept also carries a very strong and convincing theme and has received a very positive reaction from decision-makers, politicians or scientists (Bell and Morse, 2008). Therefore, setting up indicators could bring sustainable development one step closer by increasing understanding of what are the current situations of natural, social and economic capital and whether the current generations are moving forward and/or future generations will remain on a sustainability path.

As the world is rapidly changing with the growing global population, which undeniably will significantly affect the availability of the world’s natural resources, planners need to devise solutions for explaining and understanding the causality of these changes. However in reality, according to Muhammad (2001), many of the phenomena and processes of development (either in urban or rural areas) continue to be poorly documented and understood, which has led to unsuccessful efforts to alleviate the problems. A serious problem faced by policy-makers has been lack of appropriate information at the local authorities’ level. As noted by Glasson (2005), often the best indicators for sustainability indicators are those for which there are no data, while the indicators for which there are data are those least able to measure sustainability.

Data are required for policy-making, to provide objective measures of conditions and trends, to avoid or to correct mistakes, and to rethink ineffective policy (Twining-Ward, 2007; Muhammad, 2001). The problem is that, while enormous amounts of data are being generated at very high costs, they are understood very poorly and are often inappropriate, inaccurate or not generated for specific policy purposes. Indicators must be considered as

tools to communicate information to decision-makers (Jasch, 2000). Information that is offered in its raw form is normally difficult to judge and to act upon. Indicators however, provide simpler forms of information than complex statistical data and permit comparisons over time and between different places.

The function of indicators is to help assess past performance and to determine what should be done to ensure a sustainable future (Strange and Bayley, 2008). However, there are still continuous debates on how sustainability indicators should be effectively formulated and implemented by various agencies. Moldan and Billharz (1997) urged the need for a set of universal standards for measuring progress toward sustainability. The measurements should be general, yet comprehensive enough to cover the main pillars of sustainable development (economic, social and environmental). The global standard or indicators are also needed by various international agencies such as the United Nations, United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), and others to enable sharing of information and allow common assessment of progress toward sustainability (UNWTO, 2004; Moldan and Billharz, 1997). Robert and Tribe (2008), on the other hand, stressed the need to acknowledge contextual differences by developing context-specific definitions and frameworks for sustainability indicators, other than using core sustainability indicators as universal standards of measurement. Roberts and Tribe use examples from the UNWTO list of indicators (both core and site-specific indicators) which show not only that formulation of different indicator sets are needed, but that using both core and site-specific indicators should make the assessment and monitoring of progress more holistic.

In addition, indicators function as pointers that can be used to reveal conditions and trends that help in development planning and decision-making (Bell and Morse, 2008; UNWTO, 2004). They also simplify information on complex phenomena, and so improve communication (Graci and Dodds, 2010). Indicators are distinct from statistics, and primary data, even though they are often presented in statistical or graphical form (Rogers *et al.*, 2008; Peterson, 1997). Indicators are components of what are known as the “information pyramid” which is based on primary data and basic monitoring data (Peterson, 1997) (Figure 3.1).

It can be seen from the Figure 3.1 that scientists and experts only require basic data. Politicians and policy-makers, on the other hand, require aggregated data or indicators as tools for decision-making. Meanwhile, the public requires information of a simpler kind, arising from further aggregation of the indicators.

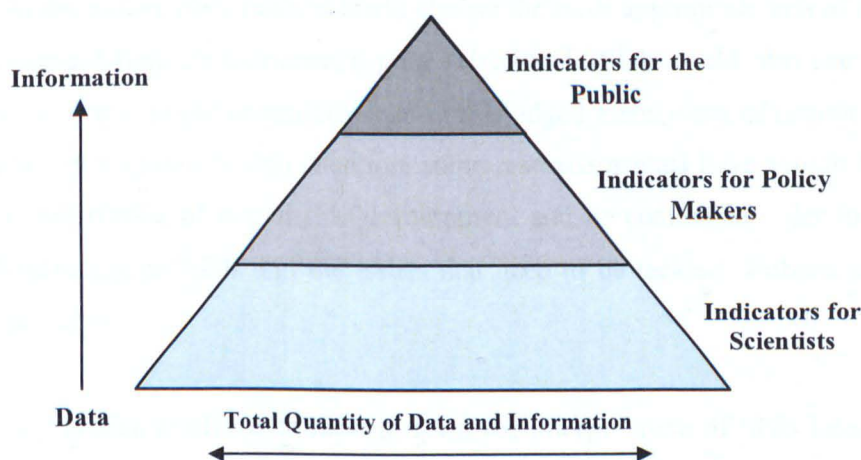


Figure 3.1: The information pyramid. *Source:* adapted from Peterson (1997)

3.3 DEVELOPMENT OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS (SDI) FRAMEWORK

3.3.1 Context

The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in 1992, brought to the fore the importance of sustainable development indicators (SDIs) as tools to convert data into useful information for management, policy development and goal attainment towards sustainability (Bell and Morse, 2008; Peterson, 2006; Othman and Pereira, 2005). Since then, many agencies and researchers have sought to develop SDIs. People from different administrative levels, however, may approach indicators very differently depending upon the purpose and audience, as well as the issues and questions asked. As a result, many types of SDIs have been proposed, formulated, and developed (Rogers *et al.*, 2008).

The large collection of sets of SDIs since Agenda 21 was launched in 1992 however has created wide debates among scientists and organisations regarding the process of indicator developments, structures and frameworks, and which are more useful to be utilised (Peterson, 2006; UNWTO, 2004). The problem now is not so much about the absence of universal sets of SDIs, but more importantly, how government bodies and related agencies, and/or communities could choose the most appropriate sets of indicators for the implementation. Furthermore, a poor selection of SDIs could also cause serious misinterpretation and might potentially lead to misjudged assessment of results (Bell and Morse, 2008). In response to this situation, some research groups have sought to narrow down the interpretation of sustainable development and its context in order to establish better understanding on SDIs and the issues that need to be tackled (Roberts and Tribe, 2008; Lawn, 2006).

However, any particular efforts to narrow down the interpretation of SDIs into a smaller number while maintaining their original purpose (i.e. to represent information on many aspects regarding the sustainable development) were not without criticism. Very often the process of creating simpler SDIs has shown a tendency of losing sight of their broader meaning and the need to accommodate the diverse aspects of sustainable development (Lawn, 2006; Othman and Pereira, 2005). For example, a *population stability* indicator is not only too general to define, but might raise various questions among stakeholders such as either “stability” here means safety from crime and social problems, or it could be maintenance of stable proportions between gender and between ages, or stable level of population, for example. To conclude this debate, this research, however, believes that there is a need to continue to develop a range of alternatives, which could lead to balanced reporting, and be able to fit certain users or audience for the information, and as well, be more applicable to the issue under investigation. To address this matter, the following section describes the criteria that might be used in selecting indicators, SDIs and the concept of causality chains and the classification of SDIs.

3.3.2 Criteria for Indicators Selection

By now, many hundreds of indicators have been developed through intensive research work and discussions of multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary groups (Bell and Morse, 2008). Selection of good indicators unquestionably should result from good criteria (Dale

and Beyeler, 2001). However, these criteria for indicators can range from the simplest forms (as suggested by Peterson, 2006; Glasson, 2005 and Miller, 2001) to more extensive and sophisticated (as suggested by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, OECD, 1993 and the United States Environmental Protection Agency, USEPA, 1995), which makes it difficult and more challenging to determine whether the outcomes are considered as good indicators or not. This is where the selection process might require certain qualities, for example, each indicator must be able to describe the phenomena it is supposed to measure, their comparability, ability to be used to track policy impacts, how well the indicators might help to educate citizens and to hold the government accountable to citizens (Lehtonen, 2008; Hilden and Rosenstrom, 2008).

The review of literature revealed many reports on what qualities indicators should have. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) several years ago produced a list of criteria which was used as a basis for the construction and selection of indicators (OECD, 1993) (refer to Table 3.1).

Table 3.1: Criteria for indicator selection

<p>1. Policy relevance and utility for uses An indicator should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Provide a representative picture of environmental conditions, pressure on the environment or society’s response ◆ Be simple, easy to interpret and be able to show trends over time ◆ Be responsive to changes in the environment and related human activities ◆ Provide a basis for international comparisons ◆ Be either national in scope or applicable to regional environmental issues of national significance, and ◆ Have a target or threshold against which to compare it so that users are able to assess the significance of the values associated with it
<p>2. Analytical soundness An indicator should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Be theoretically well founded in technical and scientific terms ◆ Be based on international consensus about its validity, and ◆ Lend itself to be linked to economic models, forecasting and information systems
<p>3. Measurability The data required to support the indicator should be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Readily available or made available at a reasonable cost/benefit ratio ◆ Adequately documented and of known quality, and ◆ Updated at regular intervals in accordance with reliable procedures.

Source: OECD (1993)

It can be seen from Table 3.1 that the criteria for indicator selection were grouped under three sub-headings namely: (1) policy relevance; (2) analytical soundness; and (3)

measurability. These categories can be equally applied for both developed and developing countries' issues (Peterson, 1997).

In 1995, the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) in their approach to developing a conceptual framework for decision-making, re-visited and modified the earlier criteria suggested by OECD (EPA, 1995) and produced a refined list of criteria for indicator selection (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Indicator and Data selection criteria

<p>1. Validity</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Social and environmental relevance: clear linkage to attributes, values or endpoints of concern (linkage can be direct or indirect, e.g., through a model) ◆ Appropriateness of scale: reflects conditions/changes at spatial and temporal scales appropriate to the environmental issue of concern ◆ Sensitivity: has acceptable levels of uncertainty (i.e., signal sufficiently large compared to noise in data) to allow detection of meaningful differences ◆ Broad applicability to stressors: response to multiple stressor types (i.e., non-specific, important for screening level indicators) ◆ Specificity: response specifically to particular stressors (opposite of broad applicability, important diagnostic indicators for relating cause and effect) ◆ Representativeness: representative of behaviour of system or other important parameters of interest ◆ Anticipatory: provides early warning of undesired changes ◆ Historical record: historical record available to define variability, trends and possible acceptable and unacceptable conditions
<p>2. Feasibility/Cost-effectiveness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Measurability: measurable by standard method with documented performance and low measurement error ◆ Timeliness: data collection, analysis, and reporting feasible within decision-making time frames ◆ Cost-effectiveness: maximizes information per unit of effort ◆ Non-redundance: provides new information ◆ Data availability: appropriate data exist and are accessible for secondary use <p>Minimal environmental impact: of the sampling process itself</p>
<p>3. Interpretability</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Understandability: is or can be transformed into form that is understandable by target audience ◆ Interpretability: decision criteria can be agreed on which distinguish acceptable from unacceptable conditions ◆ Data comparability: data collection methods (e.g., analytical methods, sampling design) comparable with other needed data sets ◆ Documentation: adequate documentation to determine if data quality is adequate for intended secondary use

Source: US EPA (1995)

Table 3.2 lists the selection criteria, again under three headings, but they are different from those compiled earlier by the OECD (Table 3.1). The three headings of Table 3.2

are; validity, feasibility/cost-effectiveness and interpretability. Despite the differences of wording and emphasis, due no doubt to the different indicator purposes envisaged, comparable basic criteria as compared with the lists from Table 3.1, are embodied in each of these lists. HMSO in 1996 suggested a list of ideal criteria for indicators (Table 3.3). Once again, many similarities to previous works can be detected, for instance, criteria numbers 1, 3, 6, 7, 8 and 9 were modifications of criteria suggested earlier by OECD (Table 3.1) and criteria numbers 2, 4, and 5 were modifications of criteria suggested by the US EPA in Table 3.2.

Table 3.3: Criteria for ideal indicator

- | |
|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Be representative.2. Be scientifically valid.3. Be simple and easy to interpret.4. Show trends over time.5. Give early warning about irreversible trends where possible.6. Be sensitive to the changes in the environment or the economy it is meant to indicate.7. Be based on data adequately documented and of know quality.8. Be capable of being updated at regular intervals.9. Have a target level or guideline against which to compare it. |
|--|

Source: HMSO (1996)

The set of the criteria for indicator selection proposed by HMSO in Table 3.3 initiated an attempt towards formulating a smaller and manageable number of criteria. It can also be seen as a response to an argument; that it will be unlikely for one indicator to fulfil all criteria (Krajnc and Glavic, 2003; HMSO, 1996). This simplified approach is more useful for indicator selection, especially in rapidly industrializing countries where the approach must serve a wide variety of users, and where environmental policies may well change over time, rather than adopting the extensive and exhaustive US EPA criteria list.

To assist the research community to (a) provide all essential information on the viability of a system and its rate of change, and (b) to indicate the contribution to the overall objectives (e.g. of sustainable development), the Bellagio Principles, developed as a follow up to the 1992 Earth Summit, probably came closer. These principles have set out a checklist and guidelines for undertaking and improving assessments of progress toward sustainable development using indicators and frameworks (Glasson, 2005). As shown in Table 3.4, the principles can be categorised into four aspects of discussions: (1) Principle

1 represents the starting point of any assessment, i.e. setting up the overall context of assessment process by establishing visions and goals. (2) Principles 2 to 5 deal with identification of the content of assessment, including the need to integrate current key issues for the assessment process. (3) Principles 6 to 8 emphasise on the need for openness in assessment process to improve communication, and obtain broad participation of key stakeholders. (4) Principles 9 and 10 address the need for continuous monitoring of progress and support for development of institutional capacity.

Table 3.4: The Bellagio principles highlighted the use of sustainability indicators

1. GUIDING VISION AND GOALS
Assessment of progress toward sustainable development should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Be guided by a clear vision of sustainable development and goals that define that vision.
2. HOLISTIC PERSPECTIVE
Assessment of progress toward sustainable development should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Include review of the whole system as well as its parts. ♦ Consider the well-being of social, ecological, and economic sub-systems, their state as well as the direction and rate of change of that state, of their component parts, and the interaction between parts. ♦ Consider both positive and negative consequences of human activity, in a way that reflects the costs and benefits for human and ecological systems, in monetary and non-monetary terms.
3. ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS
Assessment of progress toward sustainable development should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Consider equity and disparity within the current population and between present and future generations, dealing with such concerns as resource use, over-consumption and poverty, human rights, and access to services, as appropriate. ♦ Consider the ecological conditions on which life depends. ♦ Consider economic development and other, non-market activities that contribute to human/social well-being.
4. ADEQUATE SCOPE
Assessment of progress toward sustainable development should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Adopt a time horizon long enough to capture both human and ecosystem time scales thus responding to needs of future generations as well as those current to short term decision-making. ♦ Define the space of study large enough to include not only local but also long distance impacts on people and ecosystems. ♦ Build on historic and current conditions to anticipate future conditions - where we want to go, where we could go.
5. PRACTICAL FOCUS
Assessment of progress toward sustainable development should be based on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ An explicit set of categories or an organizing framework that links vision and goals to indicators and assessment criteria. ♦ A limited number of key issues for analysis. ♦ A limited number of indicators or indicator combinations to provide a clearer signal of progress. ♦ Standardizing measurement wherever possible to permit comparison. ♦ Comparing indicator values to targets, reference values, ranges, thresholds, or direction of trends, as appropriate.
6. OPENNESS
Assessment of progress toward sustainable development should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Make the methods and data that are used accessible to all. ♦ Make explicit all judgments, assumptions, and uncertainties in data and interpretations.

(Continued)

Table 3.4: Continued.

7. EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION
Assessment of progress toward sustainable development should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be designed to address the needs of the audience and set of users. • Draw from indicators and other tools that are stimulating and serve to engage decision-makers. • Aim, from the outset, for simplicity in structure and use of clear and plain language.
8. BROAD PARTICIPATION
Assessment of progress toward sustainable development should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Obtain broad representation of key grass-roots, professional, technical and social groups, including youth, women, and indigenous people - to ensure recognition of diverse and changing values. • Ensure the participation of decision-makers to secure a firm link to adopted policies and resulting action.
9. ONGOING ASSESSMENT
Assessment of progress toward sustainable development should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop a capacity for repeated measurement to determine trends. • Be iterative, adaptive, and responsive to change and uncertainty because systems are complex and change frequently. • Adjust goals, frameworks, and indicators as new insights are gained. • Promote development of collective learning and feedback to decision-making.
10. INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITY
Continuity of assessing progress toward sustainable development should be assured by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clearly assigning responsibility and providing ongoing support in the decision-making process. • Providing institutional capacity for data collection, maintenance, and documentation. • Supporting development of local assessment capacity.

Source: IISD (1997: 2-4)

To show how well a system is working with the availability of certain indicators, Hart (2000, in Glasson, 2005: 44) suggested effective indicators should have a number of characteristics in common (Table 3.5).

Table 3.5: Characteristics of effective indicators

Criteria	Description
Relevant	Show you something about the system that you need to know
Easy to understand	Even by people who are not experts
Reliable	You can trust the information that the indicator is providing
Based on easily accessible data	Information is available or can be gathered while there is still time to act.

Source: Hart (2000, in Glasson, 2005: 44)

Based on extensive examination of the various examples of ideal characteristics for good indicators, this research had constructed a proposal of the five key elements of ideal criteria for good indicators, i.e. Simple, Measurable, Accessible, Relevant, and Timely, termed the **SMART assessment criteria** (refer to Peterson, 2006; Glasson, 2005; Krajnc and Glavic, 2003; US EPA, 1995; OECD, 1993). These considerations, with their justifications, are detailed in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Proposed SMART assessment criteria for good indicators

Criteria		Justification
S	Simple	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Everything should be simple as possible, but not too simple. • Provide simple but practical set of indicators, which can be used to most study cases. • Provide simple and easy way to interpret and implement indicators.
M	Measurable	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measure what can be measured and make measurable what cannot be measured (transform qualitative data into quantitative) – especially aspects (e.g. social and cultural, political, etc.) which are often been neglected in formulating sustainability indicators. • Responds in a measurable way to resource use • Provide guidance on how to measure /quantifies achievements at low cost.
A	Accessible	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have access to the data needed in formulating the indicators from various parties. • Public and other involve stakeholders have adequate access to indicators information. • Capable of being updated at certain periods.
R	Relevant	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The indicator must be relevant to the issue it is intended to describe and at the end reflect sustainability concept. • Cover key global issues; although local/specific issues may be different. • Able to fulfil the needs of its intended audience.
T	Timely	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capable of showing trends over time. • The development of indicators should be completed within decision-making time frames. • Be sensitive; so that it can be updated/improved within the agreed time frames or accordance with reliable procedures.

Source: adapted from Peterson (2006); Glasson (2005); Krajnc and Glavic (2003); Sani (2001); US EPA (1995); OECD (1993)

As shown in Table 3.6, the proposed SMART assessment criteria might be viewed as a more attractive, simple and straightforward way to determine the potential indicators that can serve a wide range of users, as compared to the extensive and exhaustive US EPA and OECD criteria list. The SMART concept highlights the first criterion for selection of indicator should be simple (the statement of indicator is easy to understand) yet able to represent the phenomena or issue under investigation (Peterson, 2006). It is normal where the assessment of CBRT performance uses indicators require inputs from various groups or respondents from various backgrounds including the field experts, a group of tourists and/or the local stakeholders (Kamarudin and Ngah, 2007). Therefore, the use of indicators which are not easy and simple to understand may lead the respondents into confusion and difficult to make sound judgement. The situation could become worse with respondents involved in the assessment process lack of knowledge and understanding about indicators (Kamarudin and Ngah, 2007).

For the most part, being simple yet without being measurable arguably could not make an indicator serve its purpose in measuring sustainable CBRT performance (Krajnc and

Glavic, 2003). Therefore, it is important to provide a clear statement for indicator of its measurability, for instance, indicator “having a monthly household income above RM600” (Kamarudin and Ngah, 2007). This indicator relates to economic aspect of CBRT and could be measured to identify the percentage of respondents with monthly income above RM600, i.e. income which is above the poverty line for rural areas of Peninsular Malaysia.

The third criterion addressed by SMART concept is the availability and accessibility of data and information to serve indicators (Glasson, 2005). One could argue that even a simple, measurable and relevant indicator could face the issue of lack of data and information, or having the least accessible data and information. This issue in turn, would create pressure for assessment process to be completed within the given timeframe due to the extra time needed to acquire relevant data and information (Kamarudin and Ngah, 2007; Hart, 2000).

The next criterion requires indicator to be relevant i.e. able to describe and present issue under investigation and finally the indicator should be timely, i.e. able to show trends over time (Peterson, 2006; Sani, 2001). Under some circumstances, indicators might only be considered as relevant for assessment based on level of progress by CBRT for instance, indicator “local investment in CBRT projects” (Robert and Tribe, 2008). This indicator may not be considered as relevant for assessment considering the community at this (early) stage very much depend on funding and projects from government agencies and donors (Che Leh and Hamzah, 2012). However, the same indicator could be considered relevant to another community at a more advance stage which acquired internal fund and capability to invest on developing own CBRT projects (Che Leh and Hamzah, 2012). Apart from being relevant, indicators for monitoring CBRT should be able to show trends over time, sensitive to changes and able to produce results within the given timeframe (Peterson, 2006). This is crucial as indicators have to allow for follow up process to be conducted after assessment results are presented (within the given timeframe) to the stakeholders who then can plan for future actions.

In conclusion, it is crucial for all criteria proposed by the SMART concept to be taken into account in the process of selecting indicators. However, arguments by Hilden and Rosenstrom (2008) and Krajnc and Glavic (2003) have suggested that there is the issue of

difficulty for any approach to produce a set of indicators that would match all the listed criteria. Nevertheless, given all circumstances as discussed above, it is important to mention that the five criteria of SMART are not necessarily permanent or rigid. It should be dynamic; allowing ample room for further improvement based on nature and requirement of the study. It is crucial that the formulation of indicators by this research to include wider participation of local community members and other relevant stakeholders in tourism. The proposed criteria could function as a guide for decision-makers and the public when it comes to decide on what are the most desirable options available before choosing any particular types of indicators. It should also be clear that whether the end decision is to select or not, those indicators should be chosen after taking into account the purpose for which indicators are required and whether the chosen indicators are capable of measuring progress towards the project goals.

3.3.3 Indicators and the Causality Chain

Human activities are often exerting pressures on the environment (Sanusi, 2011; Bell and Morse, 2008). As shown in Figure 3.2, economic activities such as agriculture, energy, industrial and transport development projects create pressures which, in turn, often change the state of the environment (air, land, water and other living resources). For example, farming projects are often in direct conflict with conservation of the water catchment areas and forest areas. However, expansion of farms (frequently acquiring more forestland and destroying the flora and fauna), and the extensive use of pesticides, can affect the quality of water and soil of those areas (Nghah, 2009).

On the other hand, agriculture projects or any other forms of economic activities also provide revenue to governments and create jobs for the people, hence sustaining local and national economies. As a response to this causality chain, a management framework to address the environmental changes needs to be formulated and adopted by the economic and environmental agents (governments, public and enterprise). In this light, an evaluation system using indicators or a management framework was formulated to explain this causality chain from the temporal and spatial points of view (Figure 3.2).

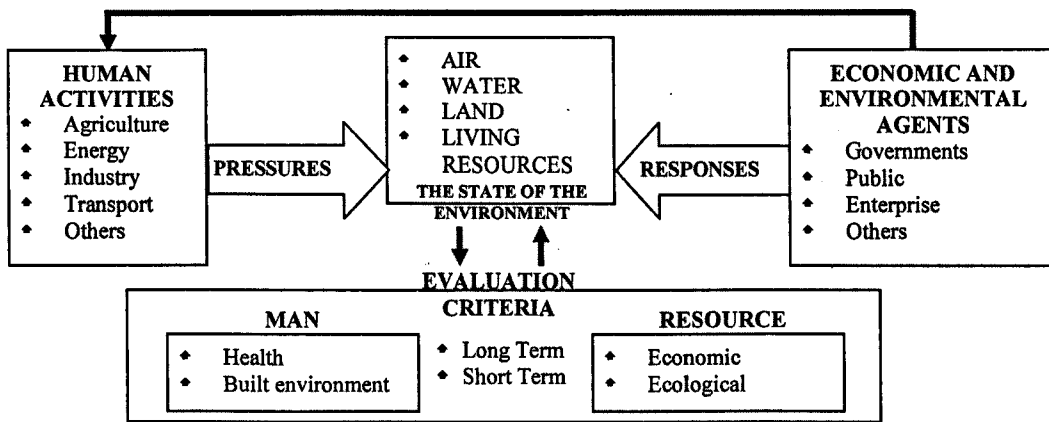


Figure 3.2: Early OECD indicator framework. Source: OECD (1985 in Peterson, 1997: 32)

The earlier model of indicator framework as shown in Figure 3.2 has been further refined by OECD amongst others and in 1993 the OECD introduced the Pressure – State – Response (PSR) model (Figure 3.3) (Sanusi, 2011; Baker, 2006; Peterson, 1999).

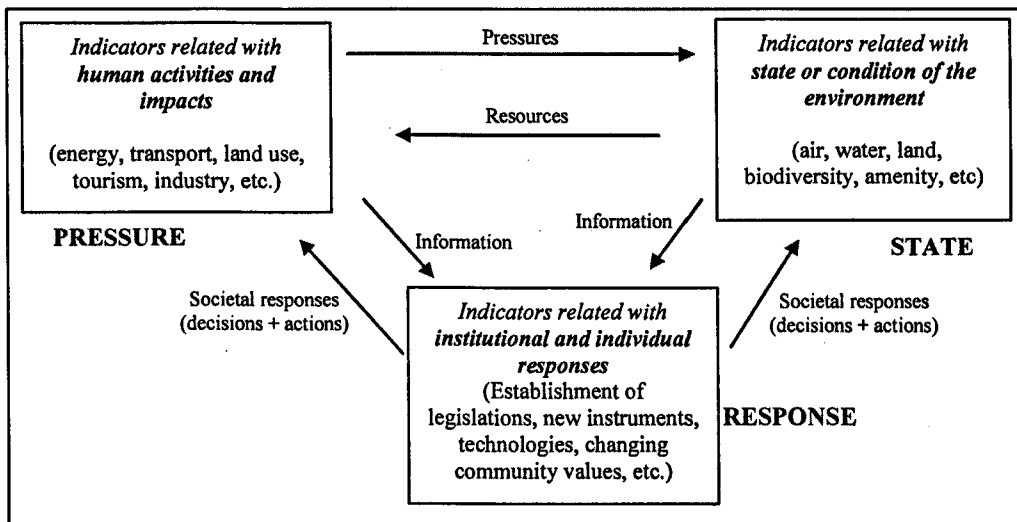


Figure 3.3: OECD Pressure – State – Response (PSR) model. Source: adopted from Baker (2006) and Peterson (1999)

As shown in the above figure, the PSR model is a useful approach, which can be adopted for the construction of a framework of indicators in a more systematic manner based on the assumption that this interaction between human activities and the environment can be captured in a linear sequence (causality chain). As stated by Peterson (1999: 11):

“Human activities exert Pressure on the environment, which can induce change in the State, or condition of the environment. Society Responds to changes in Pressure, or State, with policies to mitigate the Pressure”.

The PSR model in its early stages was praised for being a simple analytical tool that was easy to understand, hence increasing its chances of being accepted and implemented by decision-makers (Sanusi, 2011). However, due to the changing nature of sustainable development, the original model had witnessed some modifications (US EPA, 1995). The new category of “Effect” or “Impact” was introduced by Harvard in 1996 (Bell and Morse, 2008). The main reason for introducing the Effect or Impact category was to distinguish the “consequences of the changes” from the state of the environment (Bell and Morse, 2008; Peterson, 1999). As a result, the Pressure-State-Impact-Response (PSIR) model was developed (Bell and Morse, 2008; Blackstock *et al.*, 2006; Peterson, 1996) (Figure 3.4).

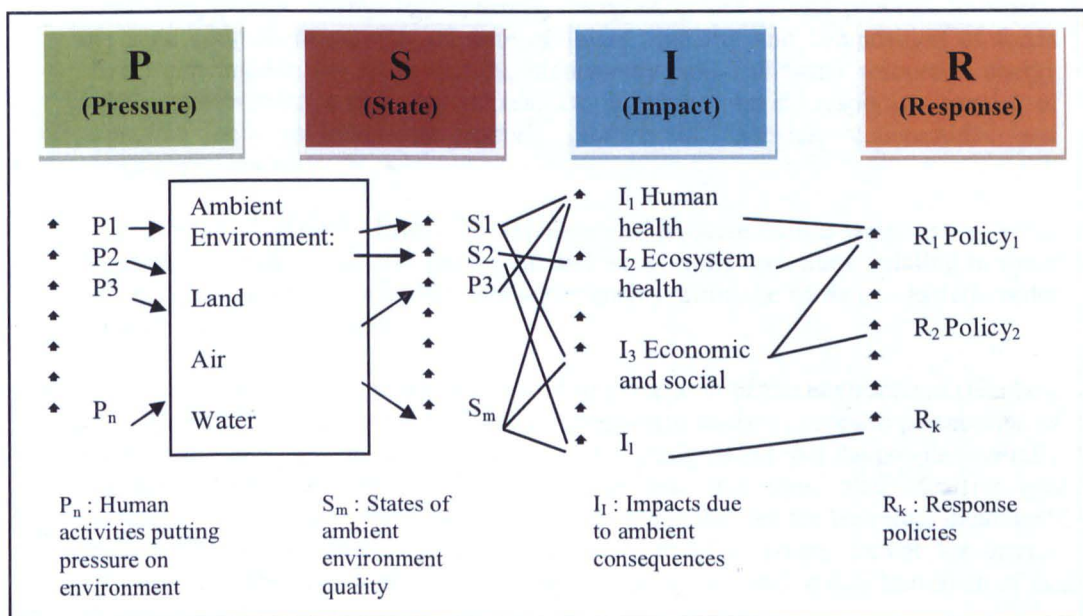


Figure 3.4: The Pressure – State – Impact – Response (PSIR) model. *Source:* Adapted from Harvard (1996, in Peterson, 1997: 36)

The PSIR model developed by Harvard (1996) and shown in Figure 3.4 recognises the need for widening the scope of understanding on multi-factor relationships that might affect sustainability processes from outside the linear scheme, particularly when it comes to understanding the relationship between State and Responses. The insertion of the Impact category does seem more logical considering the reality is more complex and many elements might not interact in a simple or in a direct sequence as compared with the

earlier PSR model (Peterson, 1997). The PSIR model stressed the Pressure category should describe the pressure of human activities on the environment. The Pressure elements will then possibly cause changes to the State of the environment. The changing environment requires further assessment to determine the extent of Impacts of the changes, or whether there would be positive and/or negative impacts upon the environment. The Response category requires the formulation of appropriate policies (Peterson, 1997).

The PSR and PSIR models have been accepted as indicator frameworks and applied to various aspects of development and the environment (Sanusi, 2011) (Table 3.7).

Table 3.7: Examples of application of PSR framework

<p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Suleri (2002) applied the PSR framework to analysis of the forests in Pakistan. He identified the pressure component as consisting of unstable management practices, population growth, energy requirements, overgrazing and reform process. Similarly, the state component consists of state of forest (quantity and composition of forest cover) and impacts on forest quality, biodiversity, soil and water resources, energy supply, atmosphere and forest access. On the other hand, responses consist of economic and environmental agents, government agencies, communities and international bodies.</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Winograd <i>et al.</i> (1999) identified components of pressure facing water use as water demand, use, hydroelectricity generation and water emissions. State, relating to water use, consists of water availability and water quality while the responses include water protection and water supply.</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> The PSR framework has also been applied to perception of the environment (Hughey, <i>et al.</i> (2004). They applied it to develop a long-term study of people's perceptions of the state of the New Zealand environment. Their study shows that the people generally considered that in terms of pressures, states and responses, New Zealand was performing better than other developed countries and that for the resources examined, their overall performance was in the adequate to good range, except for marine fisheries. The framework provides a means of linking perception data into State of the Environment reporting.</p> <p><i>Source:</i> adapted from (Suleri, 2002; Winograd <i>et al.</i>, 1999; Hughey <i>et al.</i>, 2004 in Sanusi 2011: 149)</p>

Studies which adopted the PSR framework for reporting conditions of the environment (Sanusi, 2011; Lundberg *et al.*, 2009; Bell and Morse, 2008; Blackstock *et al.*, 2006, Hezri, 2004 and others), have suggested that this framework is still applicable for use in explaining why the environmental changes were occurring (Peterson, 1999). However, as highlighted by Bell (2000 in Sanusi, 2011: 149), “there is a common view that the model

needs further development to be understandable by lay people and to be truly effective in communicating what is happening in the environment and why”. Among the limitations of this model was the assumption that interactions between human activities and the environment can be captured in a linear sequence (as in conjunction with the causality chain) (Sanusi, 2011; Peterson, 1997). The reality, however, suggests that the distinction between the state of the environment and the element of pressures may be ambiguous or interrelated without a linear sequence, making the measurement works difficult to carry out (Sanusi, 2011; Bell and Morse, 2008).

Despite some issues of limitations and criticisms on how this model can be made understandable and applicable for the use by non-professionals or, as in this research, by the local CBRT stakeholders, the PSR model still has good international consensus which supports its implementation during the early stages of indicators development (Sanusi, 2011; Peterson, 1999, 1997).

3.4 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS IN THE FIELD OF RURAL TOURISM

3.4.1 Context

There has been much concern expressed recently about the need for any type of tourism development, including rural tourism, to be sustainable. The rural tourism approach, especially community based tourism (CBT), according to TPRG (2009), is being recognised as a holistic development strategy that could strengthen the ability of rural communities to manage tourism assets or resources and thus benefit from income generation, local economy diversification, conservation of culture and environment, human capital development, as well as provision of educational opportunities. These potentials generated from CBT are also similar to an earlier statement by McKercher (2003: 3) which considers the tourism sector as “the most ideally suited to adopt sustainability as a guiding philosophy” and further justifies his argument as follows (Figure 3.5):

1. Apart from transport, tourism does not consume additional non-renewal resources.
2. A community's resources, its culture, traditions, shops, leisure facilities, and so on, represent the core resources base for tourism.
3. Tourism use of resources, both natural and cultural, should be non consumptive, making them renewable.
4. Tourism represents one of the few economic opportunities available to remote communities.
5. Tourism provides a real opportunities to reduce poverty, create employment for disadvantaged people and stimulate regional development.
6. Tourism has proven to revitalize cultures and traditions.
7. Tourism can provide an economic incentive to conserve natural and cultural assets.
8. Tourism has been shown to foster greater understanding between peoples and a greater global consciousness.

Figure 3.5: Justifications for tourism sector to adopt sustainability principles.

Source: McKercher (2003: 3-4).

As shown in Figure 3.5, the development and marketing of local tourism products is very much related with the ability of the communities to plan and to manage in a sustainable manner. This includes all resources (also termed “renewable tourism assets”) especially natural and cultural resources for long-term benefits of the host communities as well as the tourists. McKercher (2003) also points out that sustainable development of tourism products could promote cross-cultural exchange through interaction between local people and tourists.

Despite potential, in reality the sustainable CBT concept still remains the subject of much debate. Evidence has shown that sustainable CBT development has delivered both physical and social transformations to many destinations and host communities (refer to the studies by Irshad, 2010 in six Canadian provinces, Miller and Twining-Ward, 2005 in Australia and others, including a study of CBT in Malaysia by TPRG, 2009 and Hassan *et al.*, 2006). As CBT developed rapidly, its activities, however, often created fierce competition for resources especially among operators sharing an area and promoting similar attractions as tourism packages. Tourism introduces new cultures and new products as part of tourists' demand, which might clash with local needs and values (McKercher, 2003). Such effects suggested that “what was planned” and “what is actually happening on sites” do not necessarily match one another. In response, CBT has to move beyond its rhetoric of theoretical debate by adopting indicators as measurement tool to “determine if the programme is living up to expectations, and inputs generated from the used of indicators could help tourism decision makers to make adjustments to improve performance where necessary” (Twining-Ward, 2007: 7).

3.4.2 Interest in Developing Indicators for Sustainable Rural Tourism

According to the World Tourism Organisation (WTO, 2004: 8), the formulation of indicators for sustainable tourism can assist decision-makers to measure; (1) changes in tourism's own structure and internal factors, (2) changes in external factors which affect tourism, and (3) the impacts caused by tourism. The discussion of factors involved in selection of indicators in Section 3.3.2 emphasis the importance for the availability of possible data sets or information which are able to describe key concerns to which tourism decision-makers and organisations should respond. Indicators also function by using inputs of both quantitative and qualitative information (WTO, 2004). Using indicators for monitoring on a regular basis can also provide up to date information and inputs which are vital to decision-makers to determine the sustainability of a destination, its assets, and ultimately, the viability of the tourism activities (Blackstock, 2005; WTO, 2004). Therefore, from a planning point of view, indicators should be included as part of a vital component of an overall assessment process of sustainable CBT (Blackstock *et al.*, 2006; WTO, 2004).

From various sources in the literature review, two main categories of institution in establishing sustainability tourism indicators can be identified, namely:

1. The efforts of independent research bodies or "think tanks" that support policies, programmes and projects to promote sustainable tourism: for example, the works of the SNV (Netherlands Development Organisation), a non profit, international development organisation that delivers capacity building advisory services in 33 countries in Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Balkans (Twining-Ward, 2007). Another example is the works of REST (Responsible Ecological Social Tours), a non-governmental organisation established by a local charity, Thailand Volunteer Service (TVS) (Arunotai, 2004). Both organisations advocate collaboration between tourism experts and academics in sustainable tourism research programmes, while working collaboratively with local tourism representatives.
2. The works of government or international agencies: for example, the works carried out by Ministry of Tourism of Malaysia (MOTOUR) including designing policies, development plans and strategies for sustainable tourism development in Malaysia (Hamzah, 2004). Another example is the work carried out by the World

Tourism Organisation (WTO), a primary agency at international level, responsible for searching at new strategies, methodologies and approaches for sustainable tourism, and to some extent, working collaboratively with government agencies both in developed and developing countries to promote new discoveries in the field of sustainable tourism (WTO, 2004).

Generally, between these two categories, it is difficult to differentiate or to separate between the works of the NGOs and the works of governmental or international agencies. The possible link between these two parties could be the government of the country employing or sponsoring research work to be carried out by NGOs and independent think tanks to formulate indicators for sustainable CBT programmes (Ceron and Dubois, 2003). This is mainly because the government agency itself is lacking in qualified and experienced officials to carry out the research internally. The agency in turn, has allocated certain amount of funding for the research of sustainable tourism and CBT to be carried out by external research consultants. This is evident in the Malaysian context where the Ministry of Tourism of Malaysia (MOTOUR) awarded a research grant to the Tourism Planning Research Group (TPRG) of Universiti Teknologi Malaysia to conduct a study on business strategies among CBRT operators in the East Coast Economic Region (ECER) of Malaysia in 2008 (TPRG, 2009). The recommendations made by the TPRG in their final report have been taken into account by MOTOUR and the Ministry of Rural and Regional Development of Malaysia (MRRD) to improve the application of the rural action plans for CBT at the village level (TPRG, 2009).

Even though the need to establish a specific set of indicators for sustainable tourism was not included in the UN indicators of sustainable development (United Nations, 1996), however, in response to the need of the Chapter 40 of Agenda 21 (information for decision-making), work to establish sets of a “core indicators” of sustainable tourism (including CBT) has been taken into considerations both by governments, international agencies for tourism, and NGOs (Hassan *et al.*, 2006). As a result, numerous sets of indicators for measuring the sustainability of tourism and CBT have been formulated and proposed by various agencies. The proposed indicators for sustainable tourism are also useful as a platform of information to decision-makers in tourism who need to know the real performance of the tourism programmes and also whether the indicators themselves are capable of being implemented for particular regions or areas (WTO, 2007). The

subsequent section provides examples of sets of indicators developed for sustainable rural tourism and CBT.

3.4.3 Examples of Sustainability Indicators in Field of Rural Tourism

Indicators are becoming more widely used as a management support tool in rural tourism. The results of the Agenda 21 process have stimulated huge interest from various development agencies, including those involved in the tourism sector, to take active roles in formulating a list of indicators of sustainable tourism (Blackstock, 2005). The section presents some examples of indicator sets of sustainable tourism and CBT with a brief review regarding the extent to which each existing set of indicators is fulfilling the criteria of “good” indicators (as discussed in Section 3.3.2), and how this research could benefit from the such indicators to fulfil the research objectives.

3.4.3.1 Example 1: WTO Indicators

Since 1992, the WTO has been undertaking work to develop a fundamental set of indicators of sustainable tourism. In 2005, the WTO published a report; “*Indicators of Sustainable Development for Tourism: A Guidebook*”, which includes a proposal of baseline indicators. According to WTO, the list is “universal” in nature and applicable for usage of all tourism destinations (WTO, 2005, in Blackstock *et al.*, 2006) (Table 3.8).

Table 3.8: Baseline issues and baseline indicators suggested by WTO

Baseline Issue	Suggested Baseline Indicator(s)
Local satisfaction with tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Local satisfaction level with tourism (Questionnaire).
Effects of tourism on communities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Ration of tourists to locals (average & peak period/days). ◆ % who believes that tourism has helped bring new services or infrastructure (questionnaire-based). ◆ Number & capacity of social services available to the community (% which are attributed to tourism).
Sustaining tourist satisfaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Level of satisfaction by visitors (questionnaire-based). ◆ Perception of value for money (questionnaire-based). ◆ Percentage of return visitors.
Tourism seasonality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Tourist arrivals by month or quarter (distribution throughout the year). ◆ Occupancy rates for licensed (official) accommodation by month (peak periods relative to low season) and % of all occupancy in peak quarter or month). ◆ % of business establishments open all year. ◆ Number and % of tourism industry jobs which are permanent or full-year (compared to temporary jobs).
Economic benefits of	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Number of local people (& ratio men to women) employed in

tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ tourism (also ratio of tourism employment to total employment). ♦ Revenues generated by tourism as % of total revenues generated in the community.
Energy management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Per capita consumption of energy from all sources (overall, and by tourist sector- per person day). ♦ % businesses participating in energy conservation programs, or applying energy saving policy and techniques. ♦ % of energy consumption from renewable resources (at destinations, establishments).
Water availability & conservation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Water use (total volume consumed and litres per tourist per day). ♦ Water saving (% reduced, recaptured or recycled).
Drinking water quality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ % of tourism establishments with water treated to international potable standards. ♦ Frequency of water-borne diseases: number/ % of visitors reporting water-borne illnesses during their stay.
Sewage treatment (waste water management)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ % of sewage from site receiving treatment (to primary, secondary, tertiary levels). ♦ % of tourism establishments (or accommodation) on treatment system(s).
Solid waste management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Waste volume produced by the destination (tonnes) by month. ♦ Volume of waste recycled (m3) / Total volume of waste (m3) (specify by different types). ♦ Quantity of waste strewn in public areas (litter counts).
Development control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Existence of a land use or development planning process, including tourism. ♦ % of area subject to control (density, design, etc).
Controlling use intensity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Total number of tourist arrivals. ♦ Number of tourists per square metre of the site (e.g. at attractions), per square kilometre of the destination, - mean number/peak period average.

Source: adopted from WTO (2005, in White *et al.*, 2006: 2)

The indicators depicted in Table 3.8 by WTO appear to be an improved list as compared to the earlier version of indicators published in 1997 i.e. the list of proposed indicators reflects the multidimensional nature of sustainable tourism concept, hence addressing wider issues for tourism. It appears that linkages between economic, social and ecological components have been clearly stated. The inclusiveness of the set of indicators could provide better chances of further implementation especially on the existing or already developed tourism destinations, and on newly developed destinations (with further evaluation depending on availability of data at a particular destination to support the implementation of the indicators).

3.4.3.2 Example 2: Towards Earth Summit 2002 project (Shah *et al.*, 2002)

In the tourism briefing paper prepared for “Stakeholder Forum” before the Earth Summit 2002, a set of sustainability indicators were proposed (Table 3.9). The set of indicators were arranged into four dimensions to reflect the major aspects of sustainable tourism concept (economic, socio-economic, environmental and institutional).

Table 3.9: Examples of tourism indicators prepared for Stakeholder Forum's Towards Earth Summit 2002

	Issue	Indicators
Economic	Tourism demand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Household consumption expenditure on recreation
	National / Domestic contribution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ % GDP, in current international dollars, derived by tourism sector and retained in domestic economy. ♦ % different products/activities supplied locally vs from out the country (e.g. historic - cultural tourism, sports-based, conference, explorative tourism, recreational opportunities) ♦ Percentage of reporting organization's business (by passenger carried) and market share in operating destinations. ♦ Measures to maximise economic benefits to destinations. ♦ Business establishments offering tourist services and owned by locals as a percentage of all business establishments, ♦ Income multiplier for the tourism sector as estimated in an input-output table, ♦ Revenues exported as a percentage of total revenues in the business establishments owned by foreigners
Socio-economic	Employment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Number of people employed within host country for the tourism sector (per thousand persons or as a percentage of total employed in tourism sector) ♦ % Females employed in the tourism labour force ♦ Unemployment rates in the off-season periods ♦ Implementation of core ILO conventions - policies excluding child labour, programmes combating commercial sexual exploitation of children, recognition of independent trade unions and application of collective bargaining agreements
	Community/ Stakeholder involvement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Consultation with destination stakeholders prior to and during tourism developments to ensure sites are socially acceptable - evidence of consultation with destination stakeholders and suppliers. ♦ Existence of educational/information programs for the public and tourists about local culture ♦ Existence of procedures and obligations for public and stakeholders involved to suggest changes in policies ♦ Means to invite customers' feedback on economic, environmental, and social issues related to the holiday product and actions taken to respond to feedback. % feedback related to economic, environmental and social issues. ♦ Measures taken to identify and offer commercial opportunities and assistance to non contracted suppliers that support community development.
	Health	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Number of samplings of swimming waters exceeding safe limits, as these are defined nationally or internationally ♦ Quality of water expressed as concentration of various pollutants ♦ Existence of functioning Health and Safety committees ♦ Policies and programmes to combat and mitigate the social impacts of HIV/AIDS
	Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Policies and actions in place (by operator) to accommodate cultural customs, traditions and practices of staff throughout the organisation.
Environment	Biodiversity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Number of special interest sites (natural, cultural) under protection Vs to those without any protection, ♦ Existence of legislation for species protection, ♦ Number of endangered/threatened species on the region, ♦ Monitoring of the number (e.g. ratio of species disappearance and/or Vs to the present numbers) and distribution of species
	Consumption	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Total quantity (tonnes or kg) of material used by type and environmental quality, for the production of promotion materials and customer documentation. ♦ Use of renewable resources (solar, wind, etc.) used in tourist accommodations as a percentage of total fuels used % of materials which can be recycled and % which receive this kind of treatment, ♦ Water/energy consumption per tourist (or bed or night). Amount of water recycled as a percentage of total water consumed ♦ Number of hotels, restaurants and other places offering tourist services which have enacted environmental sound systems for eliminating over-consumption of resources and waste generation as a percentage of all establishments, ♦ Readily available information for tourists and the industry in general for the adoption of low-consumption patterns, ♦ % generated solid waste treated with the landfill method, ♦ % of wastewater receiving treatment

Institutional	Tourism strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Completion of national strategy for sustainable tourism with regular up-dates on progress (e.g. annual / bi-annual) • Development of regional tourism strategy to deal with trans-boundary tourism issues, including environmental pollution
	Monitoring and assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measures to control and monitor tour operators, tourism facilities, and tourists in any area • Adoption of Sustainability Impact Assessments, Environmental and Social Audits, prior to and during tourism development and operations
	Regulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce or enforcement of regulations for integrated coastal zone management; protection of habitats, both marine and land-based, and other environmental law; enforcement of ILO core labour standards.
	Customer relations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tools and measures used by reporting organization to: raise the awareness of consumers on suppliers'/ destinations environmental, social and economic performance; on sustainable holiday making. • Number of complaints from destinations' stakeholders and holiday-makers regarding misleading and inaccurate representation of destinations. Actions taken to address these.

Source: adopted from (Farsari, 2000 and Tour Operators Initiative, 2002, in Shah *et al.*, 2002: 14).

The list of indicators compiled and presented by Shah *et al.* (2002) in Table 3.9 appears to be comprehensive with the linkages between economic, social, environmental and institutional developments are also clearly stated. However, reviewing the list, raises the following issues:

- Some of the indicators might not be easy to quantify and to implement. For example, even in a community with an advanced level of tourism development, it could prove to be an enormous challenge, for instance, to measure the “quality of water expressed as concentration of various pollutants”. Even if the local monitoring teams themselves are sufficiently briefed on the meaning of the indicators, they might still require vital inputs from experts who know how to collect the right data and ultimately analyse the data using a sophisticated system, etc.
- Some lists of indicators appear to be very intensive and multidimensional in nature, thus, offering intensive information for the measurement of tourism progress. However, there are other concerns which the list might overlook, including the practicality and adoptability of indicators, especially when the indicators are needed for direct or immediate implementation in a specific area or case study.

Further research in South East Asia, by Twining-Ward (2007) regarding the monitoring and managing of community-based tourism has emphasized concern about the

formulation of sets of site-specific indicators. The sets mentioned were formulated based on an original “long list of 302 indicators” which was identified during the earlier stages (Twining-Ward, 2007:67-77). The following section presents the examples of site-specific indicators derived from the Twining-Ward study from the context of different South East Asian countries, and the CBT projects demands and needs.

3.4.3.3 Example 3: Sets of indicators of CBT for three South East Asian Countries (Twining-Ward, 2007)

The research has briefly reviewed three study cases from the Twining-Ward research on CBT projects in South East Asia, in Indonesia, Laos and Thailand. For each case, the 302 indicators merely functioned as a guidance or reference list for a group of decision-makers involved. Using the key issue worksheet, all the long list indicators then were compared against a community’s specific key issues in order to assess their relevance in addressing the particular issues and concerns. This stress the importance of tailoring indicator sets to meet local needs.

i. Indonesia: Community Based Tourism Development, Central Java

The community-based tourism (CBT) programme involves three sites of Candi Rejo Borobudur, Central Java and Old Banten. The programme was prepared with collaboration between the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) and the Ministry of Culture and Tourism of Indonesia. The programme was aiming to reduce the level of poverty of the rural communities by increasing the level of income generated from tourism activities and to promote the sustainable development agenda for tourism at the local communities’ level.

Using the key issue worksheet, the research revealed four major issues related with the CBRT programmes namely: planning, training and education, health and sanitation, and income generation from the programmes (Table 3.10).

Table 3.10: A set of potential indicators suggested for CBT development of Central Java, Indonesia

Issues	Potential indicators
Planning	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Existence of national and regional tourism plan. 2. Number of villages that have drawn up their own tourism plan. 3. Level of participation in tourism decision-making.
Training and Education	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Number of local residents who have attended tourism awareness workshops. 5. Number of local residents who have been trained in the provision of tourism goods and services.
Health and Sanitation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. Change in percentage of households with access to clean running water. 7. Change in percentage of households connected to local sewage treatment system. 8. Numbers of tourists and local residents reporting incidents of food poisoning and water borne illnesses.
Income Generation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. Change in number of people employed in tourism. 10. Percentage of local income generation from tourism businesses. 11. Number of new tourism businesses established annually.

Source: adopted from Twining-Ward (2007: 65-66)

The specific issues then were compared with the long list of indicators as proposed at the earlier stages. As a result, eleven of the site-specific indicators were identified and selected to be included for the future monitoring process (Table 3.10).

ii. Laos: Community Based Tourism, Muangngoi Communities, Luang Prabang Province

The CBT programme is initiated by various government agencies such as the Laos National Tourism Administration and the Mekong Tourism Development Project. The agencies work collectively with provincial tourism offices, sub-district offices and local communities. The programme took place in the Muangngoi communities of the Luang Prabang province with the aim of developing tourism for economic benefits from income generation, thus reducing the poverty of the local communities and surrounding villages.

As shown in Table 3.11, the following four key issues were identified: planning, income generation, poverty reduction and product development. Using the key issue worksheet, each issue was compared with the long list of 302 indicators. As a result, thirteen site-specific indicators were identified and selected to be included for a monitoring process.

Table 3.11: A set of potential indicators suggested for CBT development of Luang Prabang Province, Laos

Issues	Potential indicators
Planning	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Existence of tourism plan. 2. Percentage of activities in tourism plan completed on schedule. 3. Diversity and level of stakeholder involvement in planning process.
Income Generation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Annual income generated by the community. 5. Ratio of income attributable to tourism versus traditional income generating activities. 6. Total number of SMEs operating in the community. 7. Annual financial contribution by tourism to community projects.
Poverty Reduction	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Ratio of income attributable to tourism versus traditional income generating activities. 9. Ratio of time dedicated to tourism versus traditional income generating activities. 10. Ratio of top to the lowest paid local tourism worker.
Product Development	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 11. Satisfaction level of visitors to the village. 12. Level of use of new information centres. 13. Change in number of activities for tourists available through the information centre.

Source: adopted from Twining-Ward (2007: 64)

iii. Thailand: Community Based Tourism, Klong Khwang Communities, Nakhon Ratchasima

The CBT programme of the Klong Khwang communities of Nakhon Ratchasima was prepared with collaboration between the Canadian Universities Consortium Urban Environmental Management Project and the Tourism Authority of Thailand, sub-district offices, and was funded by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA). The programme strives to bring the economic benefit of income from tourism to ease poverty in the villages and its surrounding areas.

As depicted in Table 3.12, three key issues of the CBT programme were identified during the consultation process namely; planning issues, marketing and impacts of tourism towards local tourism carrying capacity. Each issue was then compared with the long list of indicators and as a result, twelve site-specific indicators were identified and included for the future monitoring process.

Table 3.12: A set of potential indicators suggested for CBT development of Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand

Issues	Potential indicators
Planning	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Number of stakeholder groups who participate in the preparation of the tourism plan. 2. Representation of diverse stakeholder interest on tourism decision-making bodies. 3. Percentage of households satisfied with their role in tourism developments in their village.
Marketing	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Change in numbers of visitors to the village annually. 5. Change in satisfaction level of visitors. 6. Percentage of visitors who think the site is too crowded. 7. Change in number of groups visiting the village as part of an organised tour.
Impacts	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Number of days per year carrying capacity is exceeded. 9. Percentage of tourism accommodation facilities with access to sewage treatment. 10. Percentage of tourism accommodation facilities making efforts to reduce and recycle waste. 11. Percentage of local residents who feel there are too many visitors. 12. Percentage of local residents who feel tourism is negatively affecting the local culture and lifestyle.

Source: adopted from Twining-Ward (2007: 58-59)

A comparative analysis was conducted to determine any influential factors that might affect the process in establishing and utilising sustainability indicators between these three study cases. In general, each study case/place utilised different set of indicators. These phenomena are contributed by a number of factors which includes:

- There are wide ranges of organisations that participated and/or collaborated with CBT key stakeholders in setting-up the programmes in all three cases. These organisations generally have their own visions and interpretation of CBT development, which then determine the requirement of indicators for monitoring and assessment of progress. With exception of “planning issue”, which emerged in all study cases, different study cases however, shown different sets of key issues. For example, the CBT community in Thailand had included marketing strategies to sell tourism products more effectively. Key stakeholders have indicated the element of marketing as one of the key issue, therefore; relevant indicators of CBT marketing are addressed and selected. This also applies to Laos and Indonesia cases.
- Each study case emphasised the importance of linkages between objectives, activities and expected outcomes of CBT programmes. Even though in general all study cases have highlighted similar objectives, i.e. strengthening the local

economy and eradicating poverty among rural communities through jobs creation and offering alternative form of incomes, the nature of every community at local level, however, very complex and diversified. The ability of each community to utilise a set of indicators and take on the monitoring process were determined by various factors, which partly discussed at the beginning of the chapter. These factors include:

- i. Local communities' socio-economic status and culture and work ethics among local stakeholders and donor agencies.
- ii. Level of CBT development and local tourism organisations readiness to adopt the indicators in monitoring the progress.
- iii. Level of education, training and understanding of CBT among key stakeholders.

These findings not only show the important roles of indicators for the monitoring of CBT progress, but also the need to recognise other factors such as location setting, vision and objectives of the programme, condition of the communities, and so on, which could influence the process to select and use of indicators. As shown by Twining-Ward study, every CBT site has adopted different sets of indicators (also known as site-specific indicators). Twining-ward's study also stressed on the importance of long-list indicators (set of 302 indicators) with multi-dimensional elements including economic, socio-culture, environment, institutional. The long-list indicators acted as a database, and every CBT site should identify and select the most appropriate and effective indicators to be used based on the key issues, visions setting-up for CBT programmes and extensive consideration by the communities and their stakeholders who involved in the monitoring process.

3.4.3.4 Example 4: Set of indicators of CBT for Malaysia (TPRG, 2009)

The establishment of sustainable tourism indicators is not new to Malaysia. The review of literature has indicated various studies which mainly aim to establish sustainable tourism indicators have been carried out by various researchers such as Mathew (2002), Hassan *et al.*, (2006), and up until recently by TPRG (2009) and Bagul (2009). This present research has selected a study by the Tourism Planning Research Group (TPRG), Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) as an example, which had taken place in the East

Coast region of Malaysia. The study is aimed to formulate business strategy and implementation plan to enhance the economic, social and cultural potential of the homestay/CBT concept as sustainable development tool for the rural communities and their stakeholders. The study had also identified and recommended a potential list of indicators for sustainable CBT (Table 3.13).

Table 3.13: List of CBT indicators in Malaysia proposed by TPRG

Sector	Indicators
Economic	1. Tourist arrival
	2. Market segment
	3. Income
	4. Entrepreneurship
	5. Labour market
	6. Marketing and promotion
Social	7. Population distribution
	8. Pride in community
	9. Safety
	10. Health
	11. Training & course
	12. Information technology
Environment	13. Cleanliness
	14. Activity
	15. Accessibility
	16. Accommodation
Administrative	17. Organisation
	18. Funding
	19. Achievement

Source: adopted from TPRG (2009: Appendix IV)

As shown in Table 3.13, the TPRG study had suggested 19 indicators of sustainable CBT which divided into four main categories of sustainable development i.e. economic (six indicators); Social (six); Environment (four); and Administrative (three). Even though there was no clear indication the extent to which these indicators are being implemented by government agencies and/or the local communities to measure the CBT progress, the TPRG study however, has provided an important step towards identification and development of CBT indicators in Malaysia. Such results have provided useful insights to strengthen this present research.

3.4.3.5 Future considerations

Based on the reviews of selected examples of set of indicators, the research has identified and summarised the following three key findings:

- i. The universal form of indicators proposed by the WTO i.e. a set of baseline indicators could function as a starting point for further works on indicators. However, there is an apparent gap particularly in the indicator set where it does not provide clear guidance to potential users how to select individual indicators and how the stakeholders can participate in the indicators' development processes.
- ii. The work on indicators has also proposed a list of comprehensive indicators, as shown, for in example, by the indicator set developed by Shah *et al.* (2002). Comprehensive indicator sets have the potential to provide more specific and detailed data for its users. Even though some indicators might appear to be very intensive and multidimensional in nature, thus, offering intensive information for the measurement of tourism progress, they also make the monitoring process rather controversial especially when some indicators might not be as easy as it might seem to quantify and to be implemented.
- iii. Other scholars of the sustainable development field such as Twining-Ward (2007), and Valentin and Spangenberg (2000) have explicitly argued that not all indicators are relevant to every community and/or destination. As demonstrated in the Twining-Ward studies of CBT projects in a few South East Asian countries, the site-specific indicator sets have been formulated specially to suit the specific needs of local communities or particular tourism destinations.

Every example of the indicator set which has been previously discussed offered crucial information, which in turn could help to improve research work by identifying a more appropriate choice or method to develop a set of sustainability indicators for community-based rural tourism (CBRT). The indicators, which will be proposed later on by this present research (refer to Chapter 8), should be able to fulfil the criteria of a good indicator as mentioned earlier (Table 3.6).

3.5 KEY CHALLENGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT AND USE OF INDICATORS

There are various challenges relating to the development of sustainability indicators. The review of literature indicates that one of the key challenges is *lack of a clear and simple framework in developing and presenting the indicators* (Krank, *et al.*, 2010; Hilden and Rosenstrom, 2008; Twining-Ward, 2007). When the basis for the development is not clear, or rather contested, it may bring more confusion not only to the responsible agencies that carried out the development agendas, but also may be difficult and complicated for target groups to implement (Nghah *et al.*, 2010; Bell and Morse, 2008). Therefore, the assessment of strengths and weaknesses of indicators, as well as the effectiveness of presenting the indicators to the targeted users was important in the process of selecting the best indicators (Hilden and Rosenstrom, 2008).

There are also cases where the *indicators are highly technical* and can only be understood by the subject experts (Bell and Morse, 2008; Perry and Singh, 2001; Peterson, 2000). The public or local stakeholders, on the other hand are left confused by the technical jargon and this could affect the implementation process (Kamarudin and Nghah, 2007; Perry and Singh, 2001). Nonetheless, the significance of such indicators to the implementation process is not to be denied. In this light, the appropriate measure might be to maintain a set of clearly understandable indicators as the priority indicators and common elements of the monitoring framework, but at the same time provide the opportunity for the establishment of a set of site-specific indicators according to the communities' key issues, local needs and their level of readiness (Irshad, 2010; Twining-Ward, 2007).

Another challenge is *the absence of relevant data and information to support the formulation of sustainability indicators* (Glasson, 2005). As further stated by Glasson, one of the biggest problems in developing sustainability indicators is when the currently available data are least able to measure sustainability, while the best indicators are those which have no data. This in turn may compromised the choice of effective indicators adopted (Glasson, 2005).

The subjectivity of indicators, related to the choice of decision-makers on what to measure, becomes another challenge in the development and use of indicators (TPRG, 2009; Hilden and Rosenstrom, 2008). Frequently, the final decision in determining the set of indicators is made by decision-makers who are mainly national and local authorities and project donors. However, it is very hard to determine the effectiveness of each indicator selected since different norms and nature of communities and geographical differences affect the effectiveness of indicators (TPRG, 2009). This might be the reason why it is difficult to get strong support from the decision-makers on sustainability indicators (Kamarudin and Ngah, 2007).

Making a set of proposed *sustainability indicators accessible to the potential users* also becomes another challenge in developing indicators (Morrone and Hawley, 1998 in Hilden and Rosenstrom, 2008: 237). Because of limited access by the public to this set of indicators, many existing indicators remain unknown, especially to the public and stakeholders in certain subjects (Bell and Morse, 2008; Kamarudin and Ngah, 2007). In response to this challenge, a public delivery system of sustainable development should be improved in order to make sure the potential users (the stakeholders and the public) are given wider access to information about the sustainability indicators (Blackstock *et al.*, 2006; Hezri, 2004).

It is pertinent to note that the development of indicators should involve a two-way process between the decision-makers and potential users (key stakeholders and the public) (Hilden and Rosenstrom, 2008; Bell and Morse, 2008; Kamarudin and Ngah, 2007). Thus, the development of indicators *requires an active engagement from the relevant stakeholders* (Hilden and Rosenstrom, 2008; Bell and Morse, 2008). However, it is not an easy task to gain support from stakeholders because each stakeholder expects their aspirations, visions and opinions to be counted during the process of developing the indicators. Thus, the communication between stakeholders and decision-makers are crucial to enable the decision-makers and stakeholders' views to be heard and discussed.

Finally, there was the issue of *lack of political will and skills* (expertise) among decision-makers (Krank *et al.*, 2010). However, the issue of lack of political will might not be fully attributable to lack of skills or expertise, as Dhakal and Imura (2003 in Krank *et al.*, 2010:740) indicated:

“A political leadership may hesitate to use the indicator system in policy-making as it has the potential to show their inefficiency more visibly”.

Although the development and use of sustainability indicators might be hindered, to some extent, by obstacles as identified in this section, all the stakeholders should continue to embrace the learning processes which involves acquiring appropriate skills and knowledge about indicators.

3.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has, firstly, discussed the definitions of indicator and the need for indicators. There are many different views and definitions on indicators; however, it is agreed that indicators are essential to provide relevant, accurate and reliable information for those who are responsible for making policy decisions. This chapter also discusses the element of “good” indicators based on sets of selection criteria proposed by various agencies. This research proposed the SMART (Simple-Measurable-Accessible-Relevant-Timely) approach which intended to offer a better chance in identifying and selecting indicators considering that the subjects of sustainable development and sustainable tourism always deal with pressure and changes that are affecting the environment and society (refer to Table 3.6).

The review continued with the discussion of the PSR model and the causality chain. The PSR model, popularised by the OECD, gained international recognition as it provides a practical starting point for indicators organisation. The model is developed as an environmental reporting framework with organisation of data to reveal the extent to which human activities exert pressure and induce changes in the state of their environment. Although the model is valued as one of the most effective models developed so far for reporting conditions of the environment, “there is also a common view that the model needs further development to be understandable by lay people, and to be truly effective in communicating what is happening in the environment and why” (Bell, 2000 in Sanusi, 2011:149).

The chapter continues with examinations of selected examples of indicator sets from various literature sources. As presented in Section 3.4.3.4, there is a gap between the actual application of indicators and the desirable results of using the said indicators to measure the progress of tourism programmes in a particular destination. The literature review also emphasized the need to establish a set of site-specific indicators by selecting the right indicators that are the best fit for every baseline issue identified from every study case. Whilst the selection of the right indicators plays an important role to the success of implementation process (White *et al.*, 2006), attaining the right indicators still remains the subject of much debate. Nevertheless, having indicator sets could add new perspectives to the overall monitoring processes via generation of up-to-date information, and the establishment of partnerships with various tourism stakeholders with collective decisions and actions, which might produce better results and information into the overall planning and monitoring processes (WTO, 2004).

The final section of this chapter examined some key challenges in the development and use of indicators. Among the key challenges identified are lack of a clear and understandable framework in developing and presenting the indicators, the technicality of the indicators, lack of data and information to support the formulation of indicators, political interest among decision-makers, amongst others. Similarly with the PSR model, the formulation of indicators also requires that further development and attention should be given to make indicators more user-friendly so they can be understood by potential users (especially the community and the public). With regard to their importance in informing the decision-makers and the public about the progress towards achieving sustainable development, indicators should also be considered as an element in policy consideration.

CHAPTER 4

PLANNING OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN MALAYSIA AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY AREA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The Ninth Malaysia Plan (2006-2010) has suggested the growing commitment to promoting the sustainable tourism agenda within the national development framework:

“A more integrated approach to tourism planning and implementation will be undertaken to ensure sustainable development of the industry. Emphasis will be given to preserving and enhancing existing natural and cultural assets that are susceptible to environmental damage. Local authorities and communities will be encouraged to be more actively involved in project preparation, implementation and maintenance to ensure adverse environmental impact is minimised.” (GOM, 2006: 200).

The plan was given a great emphasis towards preservation and to staying “within the limit of exploitation” of natural resources, and encouraging wider and active involvement both from government agencies and local communities in planning and managing sustainable tourism. In the same section, the report also suggested further strengthening of the roles of State Tourism Action Councils to carry out monitoring, surveillance and regular assessment of tourism project outcomes (GOM, 2006: 200). These procedures require specific criteria, indicators and guidelines to determine whether the sustainable tourism projects are operated within acceptable limits, or whether it is performing better or worse than expected (GOM, 2006) (see Chapter 3 for detailed discussion of sustainability indicators).

The Federal Government is committed to seeing many forms of sustainable tourism being developed within the Ninth Malaysia Plan. This includes developing and promoting

tourism in rural areas (community-based rural tourism and nature-based tourism) which initially were introduced in the Seventh Malaysia Plan (1996-2000):

“...[in which] rural tourism and community-based tourism and nature-based tourism were identified as new tourism products.” (GOM, 1996: 520).

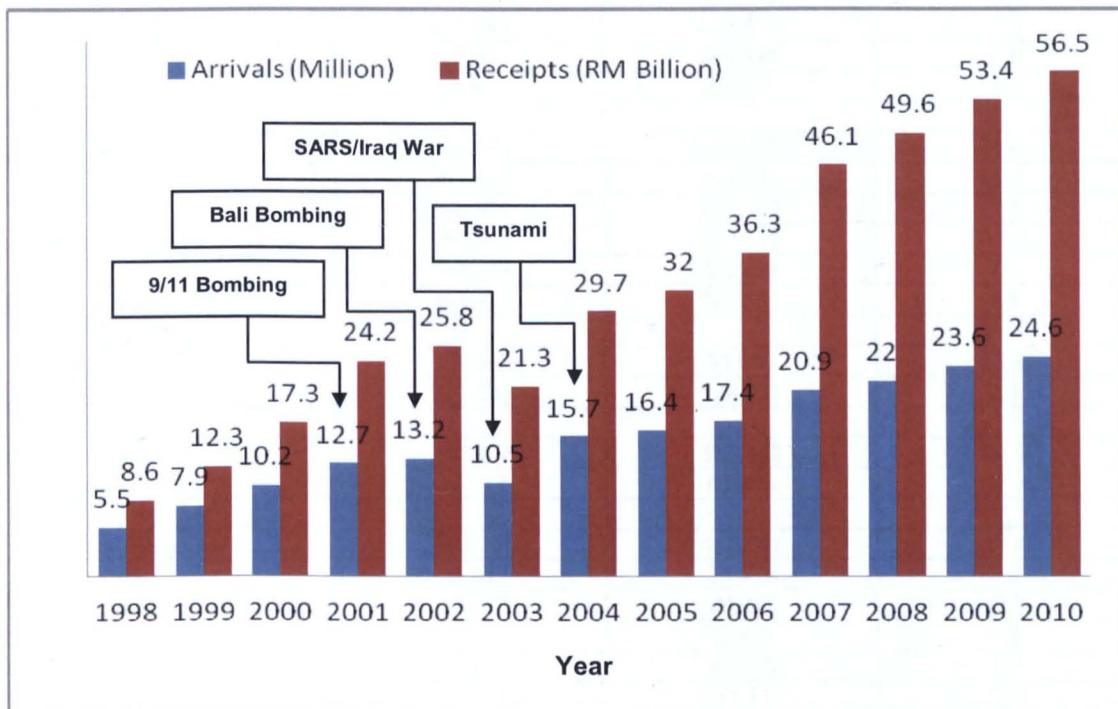
Community-based and nature-based tourism emphasised the rejuvenation of the rural economy with the creation of new jobs and enhancing local businesses, which then help in eradicating poverty among rural communities. Kayat (2010) and Hamzah (2004) have recognized rural tourism as a tool to realise the sustainable development agenda. The Federal Government has also taken this notion into the East Coast Economic Region (ECER) in 2007. This regional economic corridor is a means to increase regional cooperation including developing and promoting a more sustainable form of tourism (especially community-based and nature-based rural tourism) based on unique resources available at the local level (ECERDC, 2008) (refer Sections 1.1 and 4.3 for details).

This chapter is presented in three sections beginning with discussions of Malaysia's efforts in tourism planning, with descriptions of the institutional framework and policy planning initiatives. Secondly, this section also includes discussion of the East Coast Economic Region (ECER) and development of rural tourism in the ECER with regards to the sustainable rural tourism characteristics described in Chapter 2. Finally, the chapter describes the study areas, that is the three CBRT sites selected as case studies

4.2 TOURISM INDUSTRY IN MALAYSIA

According to the Tenth Malaysia Plan (2011-2015), Malaysia ranked 16th in the world in terms of global inbound tourism receipts, capturing approximately 2% of global market share in 2008 (GOM, 2010: 128). In 2008, the industry employed 1.7 million workers or approximately 16% of the nation's total employment and between the years 2006 to 2009 the revenue and tourist arrivals increased 67.1% to RM53.4 billion and 43.6% to 23.6 million respectively (GOM, 2010: 128). In 2010, the industry exceeded the government's target of RM54 billion in tourism revenue with an encouraging figure of RM56.5 billion of revenue (5.8% growth as compared with 2009), followed by higher

tourist arrivals of 24.6 million as compared in 2009 (or 4.2% growth) (NST, 2011; Tourism Malaysia Online Media Centre, 2011) (Figure 4.1). These achievements positioned tourism as the second largest contributor to Malaysia's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) after manufacturing and it has continued to grow since 2000 (NST, 2011; MoF, 2007).



Note: RM (Ringgit Malaysia or the Malaysian Ringgit) is the currency of Malaysia. It is divided into 100 sen (cents). The ringgit is issued by the Bank Negara Malaysia.

Figure 4.1: Tourist arrivals and receipt to Malaysia (1998 – 2010). *Source:* Tourism Malaysia Online Media Centre (2011).

4.2.1 Tourist Arrivals to Malaysia

In 2009, the Southeast Asia region contributed the largest percentage of tourist arrivals to Malaysia (more than 77%), in which Singaporeans formed the largest group of tourists (53.8%), followed by Indonesia (10.2%). Within the period of 2008 to 2009, the number of tourists from Singapore grew by 15.7%, but other South East Asian countries such as Vietnam and Cambodia also showed significant growth by 21.8% and 21.7% respectively. However, the highest increase was recorded by arrivals from France and Australia, which grew by 27.9% and 24.9% respectively (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Tourist arrivals to Malaysia, 2008 – 2009

COUNTRY OF RESIDENCE	JANUARY - DECEMBER		(%) CHANGE JAN-DEC 2009/JAN-DEC 2008
	2008	2009	
<i>South East Asia</i>			
Singapore	11,003,492	12,733,082	15.7
Thailand	1,493,789	1,449,262	-3.0
Indonesia	2,428,605	2,405,360	-1.0
Brunei	1,085,115	1,061,357	-2.2
Philippines	397,884	447,470	12.5
Vietnam	122,933	149,685	21.8
Cambodia	35,464	43,146	21.7
<i>East Asia</i>			
China*	949,864	1,019,756	7.4
Japan	433,462	395,746	-8.7
Taiwan	190,979	197,869	3.6
South Korea	267,461	227,312	-15.0
India	550,738	589,838	7.1
West Asia	264,338	284,890	7.8
<i>North America</i>			
Canada	77,664	88,080	13.4
U.S.A	223,249	228,571	2.4
<i>Australasia</i>			
Australia	427,076	533,382	24.9
New Zealand	56,117	63,004	12.3
<i>Europe</i>			
United Kingdom	370,591	435,091	17.4
Denmark	23,817	25,916	8.8
Finland	23,112	20,912	-9.5
Norway	21,516	22,487	4.5
Sweden	48,649	49,509	1.8
Netherlands	90,802	111,139	22.4
France	86,030	110,054	27.9
Germany	111,525	128,288	15.0
Switzerland	26,489	28,523	7.7
Russia Federation	26,308	29,202	11.0
Poland	11,745	12,544	6.8
Italy	38,945	46,352	19.0
Turkey	8,152	8,265	1.4
<i>Africa</i>			
South Africa	25,437	23,556	-7.4
Others	1,131,140	676,543	-40.2
TO TAL	22,052,488	23,646,191	7.2

(Note: * - including Hong Kong and Macao)

Source: Tourism Malaysia (2011)

The big increase in tourist arrivals from France and Australia is due to the continuous efforts and active involvement of government promotional agencies especially Tourism Malaysia at international tourism promotional events. Statistics also recorded the significant growth in the tourist market from West Asia (Saudi Arabia, UAE and Iran) with 7.8%, surpassing the growth shown by big nations such as China (7.4%) and India

(7.1%), which indicated that Malaysia is still considered as a desirable and safe destination among tourists from other Muslim countries. Overall, the tourist arrivals from the European nations and Scandinavia also experienced growth, except from Finland (-9.5%).

The traditional markets such as the United Kingdom and Australia are still maintaining a healthy number of tourist arrivals with 435,091 tourists (or 17.4% growth in 2009) for the UK and 533,382 tourists (or 24.9% growth) for Australia. With the recent establishment of new routes and direct flights from *AirAsia*, Asia's biggest low-cost carriers from Gatwick Airport and Melbourne Airport to Kuala Lumpur, the number of tourist arrivals to Malaysia is expected to increase in the near future (www.airasia.com, accessed 06/10/11).

4.2.2 Tourist Receipts

The Visit Malaysia Year II campaign in 1994 marked a huge success of tourism as the second major contributor to the nation's economy (Hamzah, 2004). In 1994, the tourist receipts had risen by 84.4% to RM8.3 billion as compared to RM4.5 billion in 1990 when the first Visit Malaysia Year campaign was launched (Tourism Malaysia, 2011; Hamzah, 2004). From 1994 to 2010, the tourism industry in Malaysia only experienced two periods of decrease, which were in the year 1997, mainly influenced by the global economic downturn and in 2003, due to the invasion of Iraq and the SARS outbreak whereby the tourist receipts dropped 6.3% and 17.4% respectively (Tourism Malaysia, 2011; Hamzah, 2004) (Table 4.2).

However, Malaysia's tourism sector responded quickly to these challenges and was able to bounce-back during the following year and remain steady. The resilience of the tourism sector is seen to be contributed by serious efforts put in by the government in developing and promoting tourism. Prior to these efforts, Malaysia had caught up with other "big time" tourism players in ASEAN in terms of the number of tourist arrivals and receipts. Data from the ASEAN Tourism Statistics Database (<http://www.aseansec.org>, accessed 09/03/12) reported in 2010, Malaysia received approximately 24.6 million tourist arrivals, the highest as compared to other ASEAN major tourism players especially Singapore (with 11.6 million tourist arrivals), Indonesia (16 million) and Thailand (7 million).

Table 4.2: Malaysia tourist receipts (1998 – 2010)

YEAR	REVENUE (MYR billion)	GROWTH (%)
1994	8.3	63.8
1995	9.2	10.5
1996	10.3	12.9
1997	9.7	-6.3
1998	8.6	11.5
1999	12.3	43.5
2000	17.3	40.7
2001	24.2	39.7
2002	25.8	6.4
2003	21.3	-17.4
2004	29.7	39.4
2005	32.0	7.7
2006	36.3	13.4
2007	46.1	27.0
2008	49.6	7.6
2009	53.4	7.7
2010	56.5	5.8

Source: adapted Tourism Malaysia Online Media Centre (2011); Hamzah (2004: 3).

4.2.3 Tourism Organisation

As presented in Figure 4.2, the tourism-planning organisation in Malaysia is based on the three-tier form of government, namely the Federal government, State government and Local government.

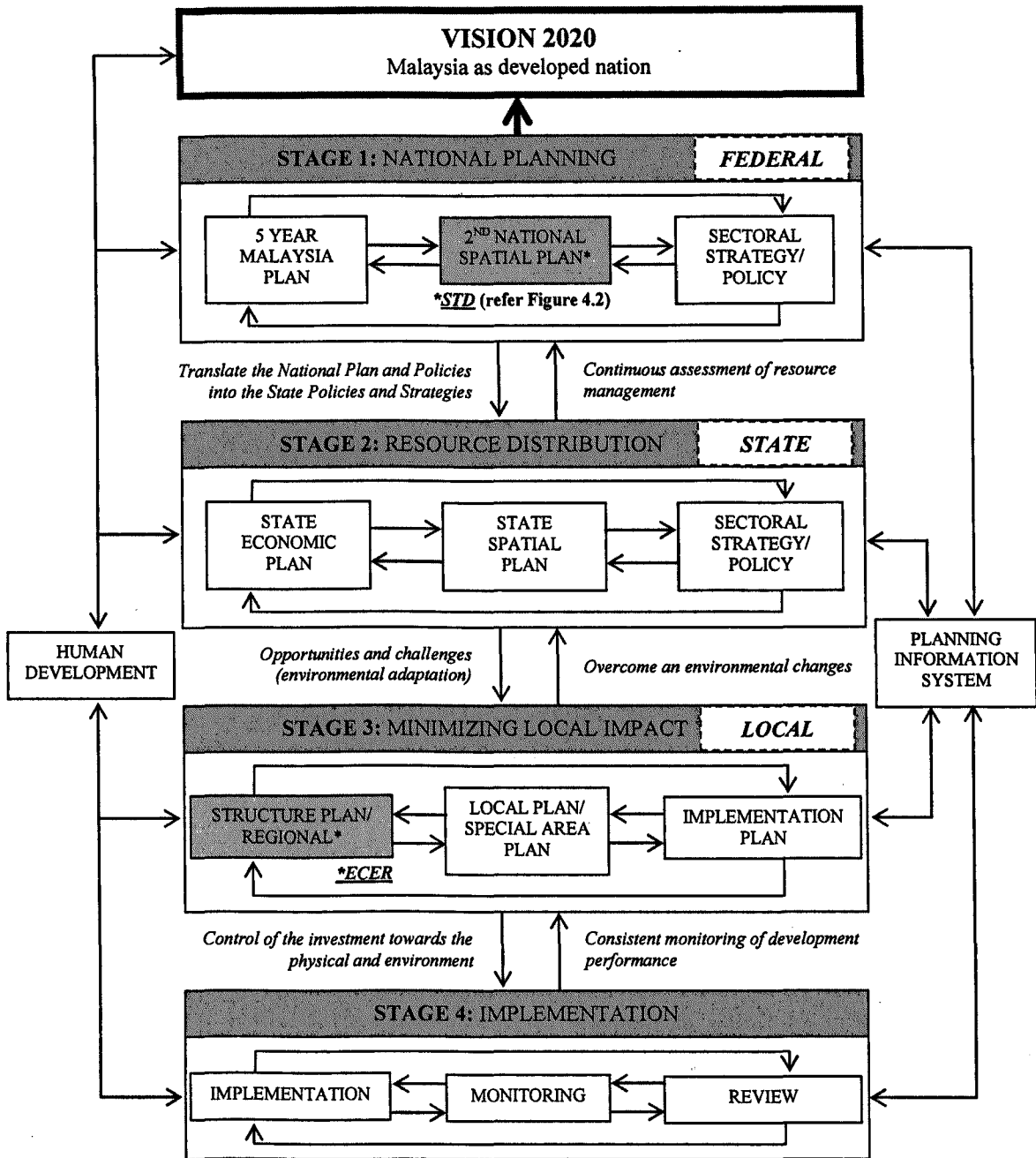


Figure 4.2: Three-tier form of government in tourism policy planning. *Source:* Muhammad (1997: 85); Liu (2006); ECERDC (2008); FTCP (2010)

Note:
STD – Sustainable Tourism Development
ECER – East Coast Economic Region
FTCP – Federal Town and Country Planning
ECERDC – East Coast Economic Region Development Committee

4.2.3.1 The National Tourism Organisation

The overall policy planning for tourism in Malaysia is carried out by the Ministry of Tourism (MOTOUR) since April 2004¹. Meanwhile, the Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (MTPB or Tourism Malaysia) was established as a subsidiary of the MOTOUR to take charge of the marketing and promotional aspects of tourism products (Hamzah, 2004). However, at the Federal level, tourism is not solely managed by MOTOUR or Tourism Malaysia, as this responsibility is also shared by other Federal government agencies, which are involved directly with rural development, agriculture and forestry - often involved directly in tourism development (Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: The Federal government agencies that are involved directly in tourism development

Ministry/Department	Form(s) of tourism
1. Ministry of Tourism (MOTOUR)	Coordinator and facilitator for all types of tourism development
2. Ministry of Rural and Regional Development (MRRD)	Agro-tourism and community based rural tourism
3. Department of Agriculture	Agro-tourism and homestay
4. Department of Wildlife and National Parks	Ecotourism
5. Department of Forestry	Ecotourism and nature-based tourism
6. Department of Fisheries	Coastal tourism and rural tourism
7. Department of Aborigines' Affair	Ethnic tourism and cultural tourism
8. Department of Museums and Antiquities	Heritage or cultural tourism

Source: adapted from Hamzah (2004: 4); Liu (2006); Kamarudin and Ngah (2007).

At first glance, active involvement from the government agencies in planning and developing tourism products is considered as a positive sign considering MOTOUR alone would be incapable of dealing with all demands for tourism development due to financial or budget and personnel constraints. In this light, every government agency actually has diversified their investment, which, in turn, benefits the agencies (in terms of staff training and knowledge transfer), and the people involved in the long-term (receiving funds for tourism projects from various agencies). For example, involvement from the Agriculture Department in Homestay projects has benefited the farmers and local communities (in terms of economic diversification), and directly improved the local interest in continuing the agriculture projects and transforming the revenue to tourism

¹ Prior to 2004, the overall policy planning related with tourism was carried out by the Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism (MOCAT)

products and attractions (activities such as visiting the orchards and plantation areas have been included as tourism activities).

These activities, however, raised an “organisational issue”, involving coordination and cooperation between other government agencies with MOTOUR in setting up future directions for tourism, and in monitoring, assessing and reviewing the “return on investments” made in tourism projects. These issues are treated in greater detail in Section 4.5.

4.2.3.2 The State Tourism Organisation

As all aspects related to land are controlled solely by the State government, any tourism policies formulated by the Federal government require approval from the State Economic Planning Unit (SEPU) (Hamzah, 2004). The SEPU looks into tourism policies and planning recommended by the Federal level including spatial requirements and resources available, besides the economic potentials offered by tourism development (Figure 4.2). In order to assist SEPU in formulating strategies, guidelines and strategic planning for tourism development for the State, another agency under MOTOUR known as the State Tourism Department² was established in each state. The cooperation between SEPU and State Tourism Department in setting up the state’s tourism development can be seen in the Tourism Strategic Planning for Johore State 2011-2015 (TourismJohor, 2010; Bernama, 2008).

The SEPU and the State Tourism Department also work collaboratively with other federal agencies, especially the ones which are involved in rural development such as the Ministry of Rural and Regional Development (MRRD) and the Department of Forestry. The MRRD plays a vital role in developing “hard infrastructures” such as roads and bridges, community and youth halls and the Forestry Department build resting areas and camping sites, etc. The MOTOUR works closely with the Institute for Rural Advancement (INFRA), i.e. a training agency under the MRRD, to design teaching modules and “soft infrastructure” for those who are involved in tourism programmes such as the Homestay operators, caterers, tour guides and front desks staffs.

² All State Tourism Department established in June 1st 2009 after the State Tourism Action Council (STAC) is being closed by the MOTOUR due to financial constraints and total organisational re-structuring to ensure that tourism planning can be communicated more efficiently at the State and Federal level.

The planning and development of tourism at State level also demands a more comprehensive and pragmatic plan because of tight competition from neighbouring states which are aggressive in promoting and marketing their tourism products (Hamzah, 2004). The development of shared-borders tourism is another challenge that must be addressed by parties involved. In the Ninth Malaysia Plan 2006-2010, the Federal government established five economic corridors as strategic actions to address the issue and challenges of share-border development (Figure 4.3) (GOM, 2005; GOM, 2010).

4.2.3.3 Local Tourism Organisations

Integration of the overall tourism planning and products development from the state level into the local level is entrusted to local authorities (Hamzah, 2004). At the local authority level, tourism planning, development and management should be carried out carefully by allowing the local communities to participate and become one of the local stakeholders (GOM, 2006: 200). Meanwhile, the priority of execution of tourism plans must ensure adverse environmental impact on local ecosystems and livelihood is minimised (Figure 4.2).

There are however, some issues related with lack of commitment from local authorities in planning, managing, promoting and monitoring tourism activities. Among the major obstacles are lack of funds and lack of qualified personnel to manage aspects related with tourism (Hamzah, 2004). In this situation, some of the local authorities do not regard tourism as their core business “since their establishment was made under the Ministry of Housing and Local Government (not under MOTOUR) for the purpose of providing and maintaining public facilities such as recreational areas, landscaping and garbage disposal” (Hamzah, 2004: 5).

The failure of some local authorities to allocate specific funding for tourism infrastructure development has down-graded the potential of some tourist attractions and given local investors (chalet operators, craft makers, taxi and bus operators and souvenir stall owners and so on) an uncertain future. For example, the Rengas Hot Spring in Kelantan state is facing serious issues with lack of appropriate tourism infrastructure since the Machang District Office did not have sufficient funding for developing new infrastructure and

upgrading the existing overcrowded facilities such as the public toilets, parking spaces and new stalls (Utusan Malaysia, 2011).

4.2.4 Tourism Policy Planning

As shown in Figure 4.2, tourism policy planning in Malaysia is guided by various plans and development policies, which are included in all three levels of government administration. This section summarises some of the development plans and policies related to tourism and indicates the implications of each plan and policy in relation to Malaysia's strategies to maintain its competitiveness in a challenging global market.

Table 4.4: Malaysia's development plans and policies related to tourism

	Descriptions of development plan
1	<p>Five Year Malaysia Plan</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The five year Malaysia Plan is the major plan at national level which include tourism planning policies and explanation of the relation and contribution of tourism with the other economic sectors. ➤ The Seventh Malaysia Plan 1996-2000 identified rural tourism and community-based and nature-based tourism as new tourism products. ➤ The Ninth Malaysia Plan 2006-2010 highlighted the importance of developing the sustainable tourism products and services. The community-based and rural tourism were acknowledged as sectors that need further attention. ➤ The Tenth Malaysia Plan 2011-2015 aims to strengthen the relationship between sustainable tourism development with the Second National Physical Plan and the 2011 National Budget.
2	<p>Rural Development Master Plan 2010</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The master plan was prepared and published by MRRD in October 2010 and has been regarded as a new blueprint for rural planning and development in Malaysia. ➤ The aspiration is to develop rural areas in a more profitable way (using rural diversification approaches – including the development of rural tourism programmes), and at the same time, sustaining the quality of live of the rural people and its resources. ➤ The implementation is being carried out by MRRD together with the following recommendations: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Establish Rural Consultative Council to formulate strategies, future direction and addressing issues and appropriate measures related with rural development. ○ Prepare the Master Plan Implementation Committee at all levels (National, States and Local). ○ Develop key performance indicators (KPI) for continuous monitoring on implementation performances. ○ Establish rural development database to supply relevant data and information for the monitoring using KPI. ○ Translate the plan into action plans to be used at the local or specific area level.

(Continued).

Table 4.4: Continued.

	Descriptions of development plan
3	<p>National Tourism Policy I & II</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The National Tourism Policy I contained the main thrust of governmental policy on tourism. The report was formulated by the Federal government in 1992 to identify policies related to planning, development and marketing of tourism products. ➤ The report contained the following guiding principles: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Encourage equitable economic and social development ○ Promote rural enterprises ○ Generate employment ○ Accelerate urban-rural integration and cultural exchange ○ Encourage participation in the tourism sector by all ethnic communities ○ Create an improved image of Malaysia internationally ➤ Forge national unity ➤ The National Tourism Policy II report is currently being reviewed and is in the final stage of completion, thus most information is inaccessible. However, it is believed that the focus will be on transforming the low yield tourism to that of high yield through emphasis on the importance for intra-region cooperation.
4	<p>National Ecotourism Plan</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The report was prepared in 1996 by the Worldwide Fund for Nature Malaysia (WWF Malaysia) for MOCAT. ➤ The report recommended the strategies and guidelines for the development of ecotourism in Malaysia based on sustainability principles. There are five sections in this report namely: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Section 1 – issues, strategies and action plans ○ Section 2 – site listing ○ Section 3 – development guidelines ○ Section 4 – status of ecotourism ○ Section 5 – Malaysia’s position in Asia Pacific Region ➤ There was no official statement available as to prove that the MOCAT endorsed this report. However, content of this report especially in Section 3 (development guidelines for ecotourism) has been ‘unofficially’ used by those who venture into ecotourism development projects over the years.
5	<p>Rural Tourism Master Plan 2001</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The report was prepared by Tourism Development International, a consultant team from Ireland on behalf of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) for MOCAT. ➤ The report outlined strategies, also called “The Strategic Vision for Rural Tourism”, which according to the RTMP intended ‘to create a new brand of tourist experience for visitors, particularly long stay and high spend visitors’ via: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Featuring the attractive scenery of lush tropical landscape ○ Presenting activities and amenities to participate in, and enjoy in safety ○ Providing new and improved ranges of accommodation; and ○ Offering a smiling and friendly customer care approach (RTMP, 2001: ii) ➤ The plan has identified the obstacles that need to be removed to prosper rural tourism development including improvement of product quality, beautification of villages, service quality and accelerate the knowledge and skills transfer. ➤ The plan has identified challenges to distinguish between rural tourism from other forms of tourism that also taken place in rural areas such as ecotourism, coastal and islands tourism, cultural tourism and nature based tourism. The report suggested other forms of tourism as an ‘extension’ form of tourism. ➤ The plan recommended an incremental approach in developing rural tourism in Malaysia. ‘Starting small to grow big’ (RTMP, 2001: iii). However, the implementation of the RTMP has been delayed due to financial issues.

Sources: GOM (1996; 2006; 2010); MRRD (2010); Hamzah (2004: 6-10); FTCP (2010)

The above plans and policies suggest that tourism development in Malaysia was only recognised by the Federal government after tourism had already become the second largest contributor to the nation's economy after the manufacturing sector. This is a very remarkable achievement, considering tourism was not regarded as an important economic activity in Malaysia before the 1970s (Hamzah, 2004). Even between the 1970s and early 1990s, the Federal government still did not include a tourism development agenda in mainstream development policy. However, when the Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism, MOCAT was established in 1990, the development of tourism became more organised, governed by specific institutions, and regulated by strategic plan and tourism planning acts and policies. In order to capture international recognition as a popular tourist destination and to 'catch up' with other ASEAN 'big time' tourism players such as Singapore, Thailand and Indonesia, the Federal government has invested heavily in tourism planning and development. Section 4.2.1.1 explained about tourism organisation in Malaysia and its three tiers of government i.e. the Federal, State and Local level. As presented in Figure 4.1, tourism planning and development in Malaysia is comprehensive and top-down in nature. As tourism is regarded as a Federal matter, MOTOUR and other agencies involved with rural development have constructed a framework and set up a future direction for tourism. The State governments, on the other hand, play the role of identifying the state of resources and spatial aspects to be allocated for tourism development purposes in their particular states.

As presented in Table 4.3, various government agencies are involved in carrying out the planning, development and management of tourism activities in Malaysia. The review of literature has identified eight agencies (including MOTOUR) that are directly involved with the development of tourism. The growing interest from related agencies has encouraged the diversification of rural economic activities (as discussed in Section 1.1), and has given an opportunity for the local tourism stakeholders to apply for funds and other forms of assistance (including training, promoting and marketing of tourism products). Despite the positive attitude shown by related agencies in tourism planning and development, the organisation issue is inevitably present (refer to section 4.2.1.1). The main challenges are the overlapping of jurisdictions due to lack of coordination between agencies; and, how to integrate the tourism programmes designed by different agencies under similar (and flexible) values for monitoring purposes.

The policy planning for tourism development in Malaysia can be seen as comprehensively formulated and in concurrence with the spirit of three-tier governments (Figure 4.2). The policy related with tourism has been stressed in various development plans, master plans or blue prints at all levels (refer Table 4.4). The Ninth Malaysia Plan, for instance, demonstrated continuous efforts towards the development and promotion of sustainable tourism activities (GOM, 2006) and during the Tenth Malaysia Plan, the sustainable tourism initiatives were carried further into the regional tourism development (GOM, 2010 and refer to Section 4.3 for details). The formulation of tourism policies and blueprints are also intended to enhance cooperation among related agencies and between states (in the case of regional tourism corridors), hence encouraging tourism development to be more sustainable in future.

4.3 REGIONAL ECONOMIC CORRIDORS IN MALAYSIA AND BACKGROUND OF ECER

This section discusses in brief the five regional economic corridors developed by the Federal government during the Ninth Malaysia Plan (2006-2010) and provides a description of the study areas i.e. the East Coast Economic Region (ECER). The background of ECER is outlined, followed by an assessment of the importance of tourism in the ECER's main corridors and local corridors and finally a discussion of the strengths and challenges for tourism development in the ECER.

4.3.1 Context

As a step towards achieving the nation's vision to become a developed nation by the year 2020, the Federal government has identified and formulated what is called "comprehensive regional planning for the whole country" with its major focus on how to reduce imbalance between the less developed and more developed regions and between the rural and urban areas (GOM, 2010). Five regional economic corridors were established during the Ninth Malaysia Plan 2006 – 2010 to spread economic development opportunities and capture investment at the regional scale (ECERDC, 2008) (Figure 4.3).

Suitable forms of socio-economic development for each corridor were planned and developed based on individual strengths and limitations; for instance, the Sarawak Corridor for Renewable Energy (SCORE) emphasis on the energy sector development. Meanwhile, Iskandar Malaysia development had the aim of becoming a major commercial-hub in the southern region by benefit from its proximity to Singapore. The Northern Corridor Economic Region (NCER), on the other hand, is intended to be the major industrial hub for the northern region utilising the potentials of the Penang industrial zone and the nation's "rice bowl" i.e. paddy fields in the Kedah state. The Sabah Development Corridor (SDC), the newest development corridors is focusing on developing the economic sectors and reducing the socio-economic gap between the urban and the rural communities in Sabah state. However, the planning for SDC is merely at the preliminary stage, hence the lack of information make it difficult to provide detailed explanation on SDC. ECER has initiated its development programme for the East Coast states and the primary focus of socio-economic programmes of ECER is tourism development, which is also the main focus of the present research. The development of tourism in generating regional economic growth is included in every regional master plan, however, ECER has demonstrated a clearer focus and strategies to develop the tourism sector to be more sustainable, in conjunction with the Ninth Malaysia Plan 2006-2010, Rural Development Master Plan 2010 and Vision 2020³.

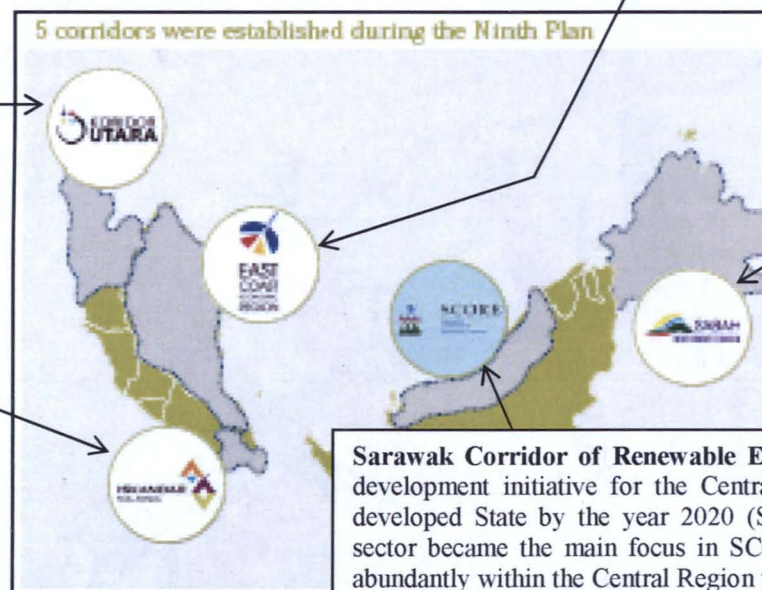
"This regional plan was developed and will be the basis for guiding the development of this region over the next 12 years (2008 – 2020), where it will be transformed into a major international and local tourism destination, an exporter of resource based and manufactured products, a vibrant trading centre, and an infrastructure and logistics hub." (ECERDC online, 2008)

³ Vision 2020 is a Malaysian ideal introduced by the former Prime Minister of Malaysia, Mahathir bin Mohamad during the tabling of the Sixth Malaysia Plan in 1991. The vision calls for the nation to achieve a self-sufficient industrialized nation by the year 2020, encompasses all aspects of life, from economic prosperity, social well-being, educational worldclass, political stability, as well as psychological balance (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wawasan_2020)

Northern Corridor Economic Region (NCER) – established in 2008 to guide the development of the Northern Region i.e. Penang, Kedah, Perlis and Perak states. The NCER plan administered by the Northern Corridor Implementation Authority (NCIA) with objectives to promote and accelerate the development of the NCER to become a world-class economic region and to maintain the sustainable development and social development as priorities in developing and transforming the region (NCIA online, 2008).

East Coast Economic Region (ECER) – established in 2007 with the focus on sustainable regional development and investment in three East Coast states (Kelantan, Terengganu, Pahang and part of Mersing district in Johore). Administered by the East Coast Economic Region Development Committee (ECERDC), the plan was developed to guide the development of the region over the next 12 years (2008 – 2020). ECER covers an area of 66,000 sq km, or more than half of the peninsular Malaysia. The main economic clusters of ECER are tourism, oil, gas and petrochemical, manufacturing, agriculture and education. This region sought to become a major international and local tourism destination, an exporter of resource based and manufactured products, main hub for services and manufactured products by the year 2020.

5 corridors were established during the Ninth Plan



Iskandar Malaysia (IM) – established in 2006 in Johore state and considered as the main southern development corridor. Administered by the Iskandar Region Development Authority (IRDA), the corridor covers an area of 2,217 sq km, approximately is three times the size of Singapore. The IM regarded as one of the high-impact developments during the Ninth Malaysia Plan with the planning focus until the year 2025. This region continues to prosper since it manages to capitalise on its strategic location with Singapore to attract more international investors to the region.

Sabah Development Corridor (SDC) – launched in 2008 with specific objectives i.e. to promote sustainable economic development and improving the quality of life of the people and to promote regional balance and between rural – urban with sustainable management of the state’s resources (SEDIA online 2010). The SDC plan and investments is administered by the Sabah Economic Development and Investment Authority (SEDIA) and guide the development of the region over the next 12 years (2008 – 2020).

Sarawak Corridor of Renewable Energy (SCORE) – established in 2008 as a major development initiative for the Central Region and to transform Sarawak to become a developed State by the year 2020 (SCORE online, 2010). The development of energy sector became the main focus in SCORE plan and three major energy resources found abundantly within the Central Region will be developed i.e. hydropower (28,000 MW, coal (1.46 billion tonnes) and natural gas (40.9 trillion sq cubic feet) (SCORE online, 2010).

Figure 4.3: Malaysia’s economic corridors.

Source: ECERDC (2008); NCIA online in 2008; SCORE online in 2010; IskandarMalaysia online in 2010; SEDIA online in 2010

4.3.2 The Background of East Coast Economic Region (ECER)

In October 2007, the fifth Prime Minister of Malaysia, Abdullah bin Ahmad Badawi, launched the East Coast Economic Region (ECER) plan with a vision for transforming the East Coast region to become a developed region by 2020 (ECERDC, 2008). The development of ECER has not only been guided by a well-defined vision but the master plan formulated for the ECER has positioned this region strategically within the nation's development corridors framework (Figure 4.4).

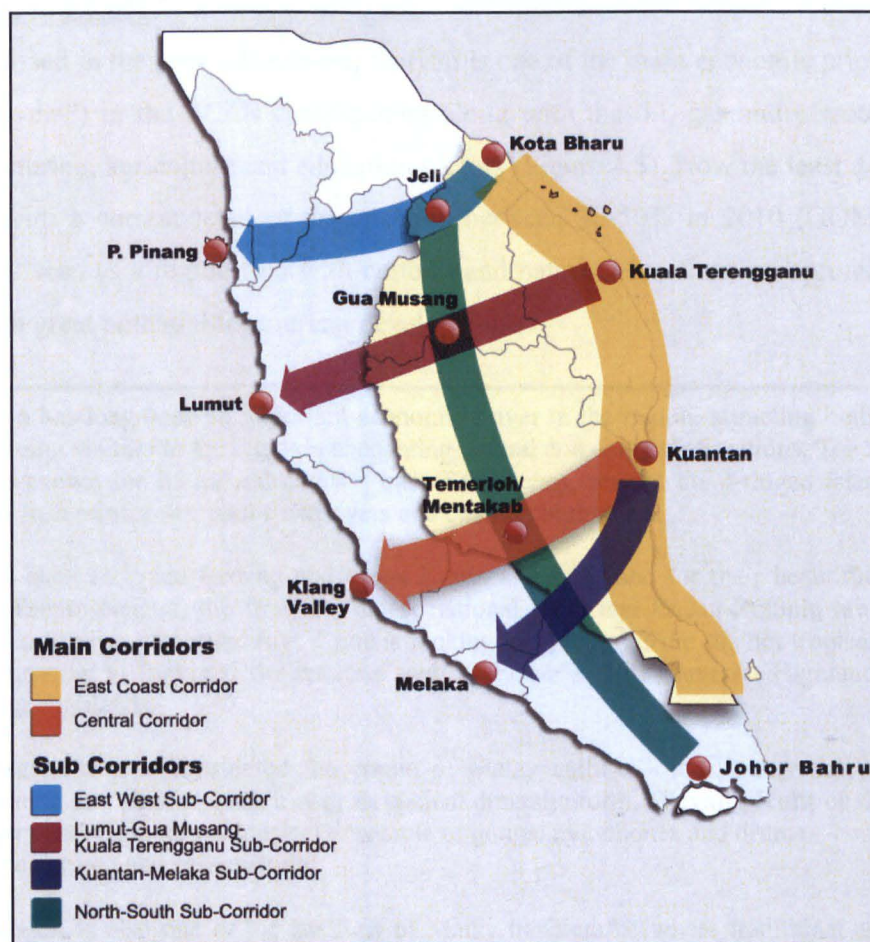


Figure 4.4: The main corridors of the East Coast Economic Region (ECER). *Source:* ECERDC online (2008)

From the above figure, it can be seen that ECER is well connected with other economic corridors, especially from the more developed regions and states in the West Coast of the peninsular:

1. Central corridor (Kuantan to Kuala Lumpur/Klang Valley)
2. East West Sub-Corridor (Kelantan to Penang)

3. Lumut-Gua Musang-Kuala Terengganu Sub Corridor
4. Kuantan – Melaka Sub Corridor

In the long term, the access between ECER and the Central corridor should be further increased since the East Coast Highways are now at the final stage of completion. With improved communication and transportation systems, ECER is expected to attract more investors, local and foreign, to set up their economic activities.

Tourism in ECER

As discussed in the previous section, tourism is one of the main economic priorities (or “key drivers”) in the ECER development along with the oil, gas and petrochemical, manufacturing, agriculture and education sectors (Figure 4.5). Now the least developed region with a current level of urbanisation between 30-50% in 2010 (GOM, 2006), ECER is seen as a region rich with cultural and natural attractions and promise as an area with great potential for tourism development:

Tourism has long been an important economic driver in the region, attracting both local and foreign visitors to the region’s enchanting natural and cultural attractions. The region is well-known for its natural assets - unspoilt beaches, serene, coral-ringed islands as well as lush rainforests, cool clean rivers and calming highlands.

Islands such as Pulau Redang and Pulau Kapas are renowned for their beautiful coral reefs. Taman Negara, the first and oldest national park, and Endau-Rompin are filled with eco-tourism activities. And if one is looking to get away from the hot tropical heat, then runaway to highland destinations such as Fraser’s Hill, Cameron Highlands and Genting Highlands.

The region is also considered the cradle of Malay culture – it is where the ancient performing arts such as **Mak Yong**, an ancient dramatic form, **Wayang Kulit** or shadow puppetry and **Gamelan**, a musical ensemble of gongs, xylophones and drums – continues to be performed and perpetuated.

The region is also one of the bastions of Malay handicrafts, where traditional artisans continue to produce magnificent woven **Songket** textiles, **Batik** and **Tenun Pahang**, intricate silver and brass vessels and magnificent wood carvings using fine-grained local timber.

The list of attractions and activities is long and exciting, but largely remain untapped. The ECER has diverse tourism resources that have the potential to be developed as world-class tourist attractions.

Source: ECER Online (2008).

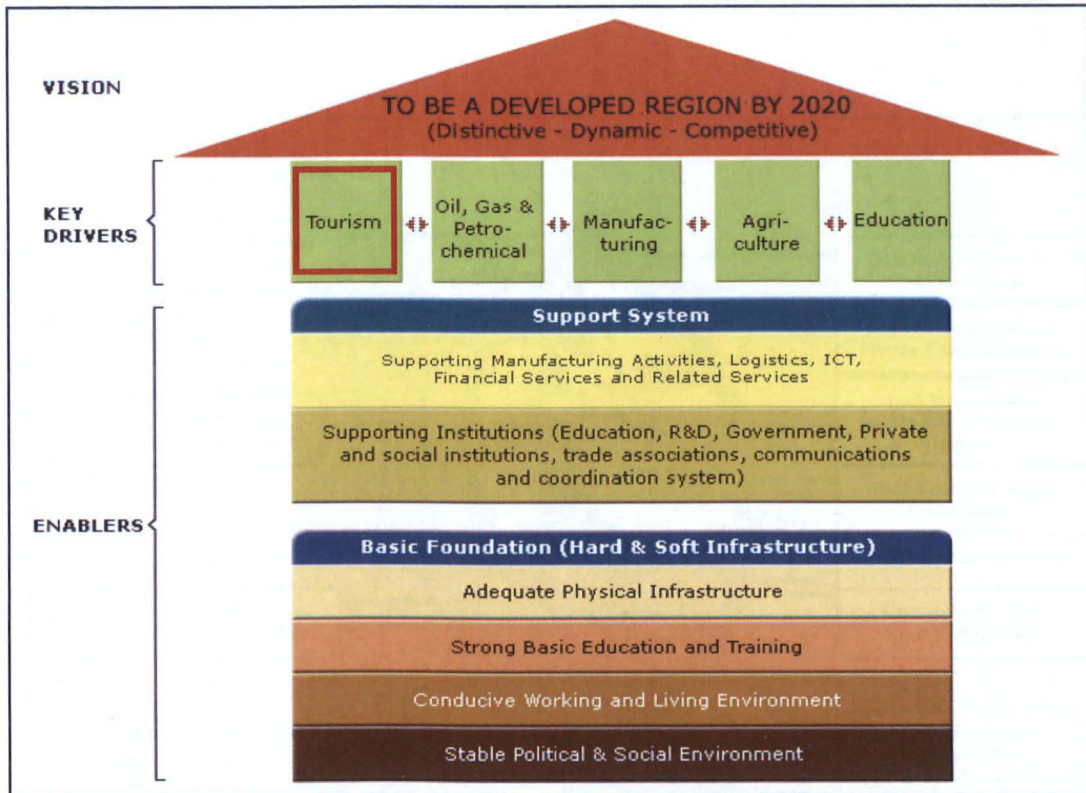


Figure 4.5: Five key economic drivers of the ECER – the importance of tourism.

Source: ECER Online (2008)

It is evident from the above figure that tourism has been prioritised as a key driver for socio-economic progress of ECER. In addition, the future of the tourism sector in ECER seems bright since ECERDC has forecast around 28.8 million tourist arrivals by the year 2020 (ECER Online, 2008). In order to secure the targeted figure, the formulation of natural resources management and tourism development plans must be guided by the concept of sustainable development principles as stressed by the Federal government in the Ninth Malaysia Plan 2006-2010 (Chapter 17: Sustainable Tourism Development). Despite great potential for tourism development, some serious thought on the process of planning and developing sustainable tourism programmes in the ECER is needed since tourism also is a fickle industry that is directly influenced by global events and changes such as wars, political instability and outbreak of communicable diseases (Hamzah, 2004).

The ECER master plan also outlined the local economic corridors and presented in Figure 4.6.

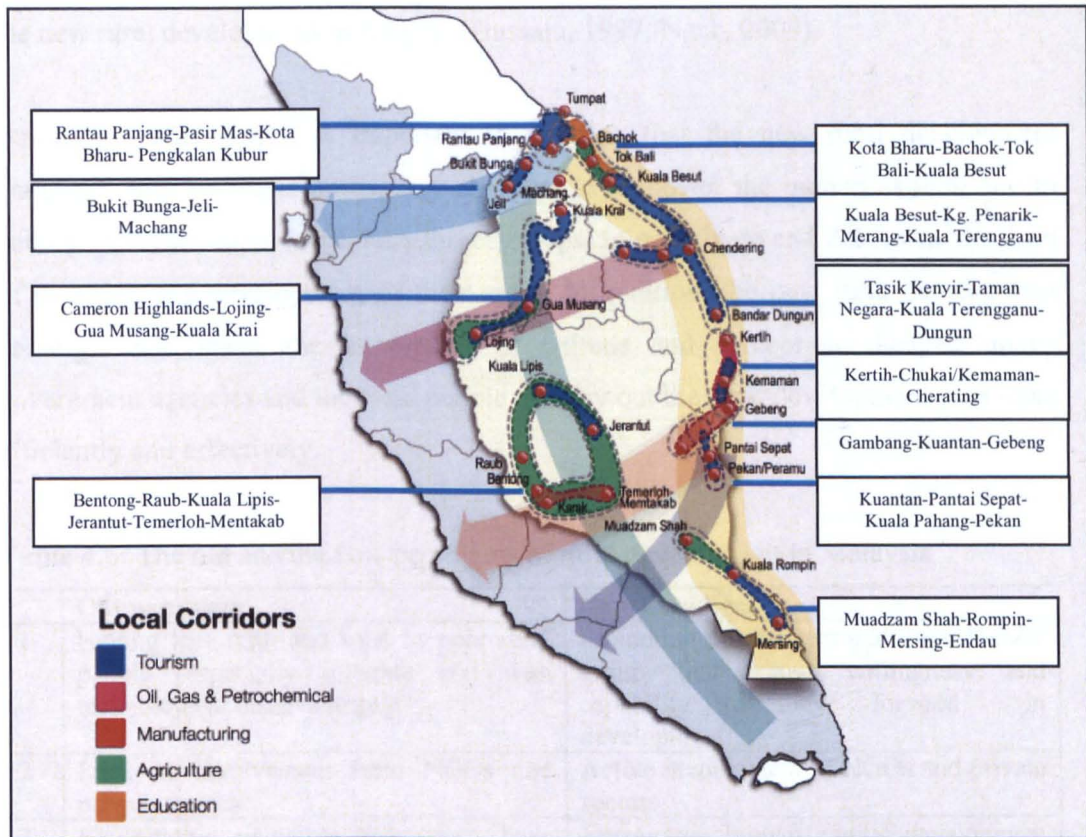


Figure 4.6: Local corridors in ECER. *Source:* ECER online (2008)

Based on the above figure, it can be seen that the local tourism corridors (marked in blue) are highlighted clearly and often are intended to be developed in close integration with the agriculture corridors (marked in green). Hence, the local tourism corridors are also situated within the main corridors of ECER as mentioned in Figure 4.3.

4.3.3 Sustainable Community Based Rural Tourism in ECER

It is estimated that the rural areas represent between 50-70% from the total land of the three East Coast states (Kelantan, Pahang and Terengganu) (GOM, 2006; ECER, 2008). These vast areas with rich content of natural resources might offer greater potential for future development of the region, including for tourism development (Ngah *et al.*, 2010). Nonetheless, there are both local and global urges on conservation and responsible management of the resources for long-term benefits; hence, the Rural Development Master Plan was formulated by the Ministry of Rural and Regional

Development (MRRD) in 2010. The master plan emphasised on strengthening the region's main economic sectors especially agriculture and tourism sectors by adopting the new rural development paradigms (Hussain, 1997; Ngah, 2009).

Based on Table 4.5, it is important to mention that the new rural development paradigm puts emphasis on the key elements to empower the human capital, and to encourage rural people (especially target groups) to participate and determine the form of planning and development of their areas. In addition, the new rural development paradigm also states the importance of attitude and perception changes among government agencies and the local people to carry out the rural development plan more efficiently and effectively.

Table 4.5: The old and the new paradigms of rural development in Malaysia

	Old paradigm	New Paradigm
1	Having less faith and trust in poor rural people (especially illiterate and with technological disadvantages)	Promoting positive attitude towards poor group that show willingness and capability to move forward in development
2	Lack of involvement from NGOs and private sectors	Active involvement of NGOs and private sectors
3	Exploitation on natural resources - have created environmental issues	Encourages human capital development and environmental conservation
4	Organisational structure more rigid with bureaucratic barriers	More flexible organisation structure with learning organisation culture encouragement
5	'Top-down' approach	'Bottom-up' approach in planning and implementation
6	Self-sustain or isolated in nature, often carried out as in a form of project-based.	Projects are developed using integrated approach
7	Authoritative approach and low level of involvement from targeted groups	Participatory approach involving targeted groups for planning and decision-making process
8	Government role as a provider or 'supplier' – heavily dependent on subsidy and government support	Government act as an initiator to 'motivate' the community to be independent

Source: Hussain (1997); Ngah (2008)

In order to achieve the new rural development agenda, the government has identified small-scale rural tourism programmes, which are community based rural tourism (CBRT) as a catalyst for sustainable rural community development, and from then onwards, sustainable CBRT has been promoted and implemented throughout the ECER (ECER, 2008; TPRG, 2009).

The conceptual part of sustainable CBRT has been thoroughly discussed in the literature review (Chapter 2); however, from the point of view of local communities, the sustainable CBRT programmes could be implemented to:

1. Enhance the overall quality of village people's lives.
2. Contribute to the reinforcement and preservation of unique local culture.
3. Empower local people and their stakeholders in decision making and the implementation process about their development path.
4. Contribute to the conservation of natural resources and the environment.

The following section discusses the CBRT sites selected for the detailed study.

4.4 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY AREA

For data collection purposes, this research concentrated only on the CBRT sites that are operated and registered with MOTOUR. In addition, potential sites are listed by the MRRD as their Village Visionary Movement (GDW), which received funding for rural infrastructure development from the ministry. Based on information from MRRD and MOTOUR databases on rural tourism, agro-tourism and homestay and Kampungstay⁴ (<http://www.go2homestay.com/>, accessed 06/10/11), there are 25 registered CBRT sites in Kelantan, Pahang and Terengganu states (Table 4.7). The list, however, is too large for this research to cover given the lack of funding, time and manpower to carry out the detailed studies. Therefore, a set of criteria were proposed for the selection of cases as shown in Table 4.6. Selection criteria were formulated based on inputs from discussions with academics from local universities and tourism research groups (Tourism Planning Research Group, TPRG UTM), Institute for Rural Advancement (INFRA), MOTOUR and ECERDC.

⁴ Kampungstay offered the village (Kampung) living experience – it has been widely promoted as a new product of sustainable CBRT, which offer holistic and activity-packed package of tourist experience rather than homestay projects.

Table 4.6: Criteria used to select cases

Label	Criteria
C1	A Village Visionary Movement (GDW) under MRRD and registered with MOTOUR
C2	Currently part of ECER key projects for tourism
C3	CBRT activities contributed significantly to local economy and household income
C4	Having a clear and workable organisation together with active community participation in planning and managing the CBRT.
C5	The sites have implemented CBRT initiatives including the provision of 'hard infrastructures' and 'soft infrastructures'

Source: personal communications with officials from TPRG, MRRD, INFRA, MOTOUR and ECER in 2009.

Each site was then assessed based on the above criteria and as a result, the three CBRT sites chosen fulfilled all the criteria and were selected as the cases studies for the research namely (1) Seterpa Village in Kelantan, (2) Teluk Ketapang village in Terengganu; and (3) Kuala Medang village in Pahang (Table 4.7 and Figure 4.7).

Table 4.7: CBRT sites selection sheet

List of potential CBRT sites	Selection Criteria				
	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5
KELANTAN					
Jelawang village					
Pantai Suri village					
Renok Baru village					
Bukit Jering village					
Seterpa village*					
Kubang Telaga village					
Batu Papan village					
TERENGGANU					
Pasir Raja village					
Rhu Spuluh village					
Teluk Ketapang village*					
Buloh village					
Felda Selasih village					
Pulau Duyong village					
PAHANG					
Kuala Medang village*					
Desa Murni village					
Sungai Pasu village					
Rumpun Makmur village					
Jengka 25					
Kampong Baru Salong village					
Leban Chondong village					
Felcra Sri Makmur					
Taman Sedia					
Pantai Sepat village					
Janda Baik village					
Sungai Lembing village					

Source: adapted from Pilot survey in 2009

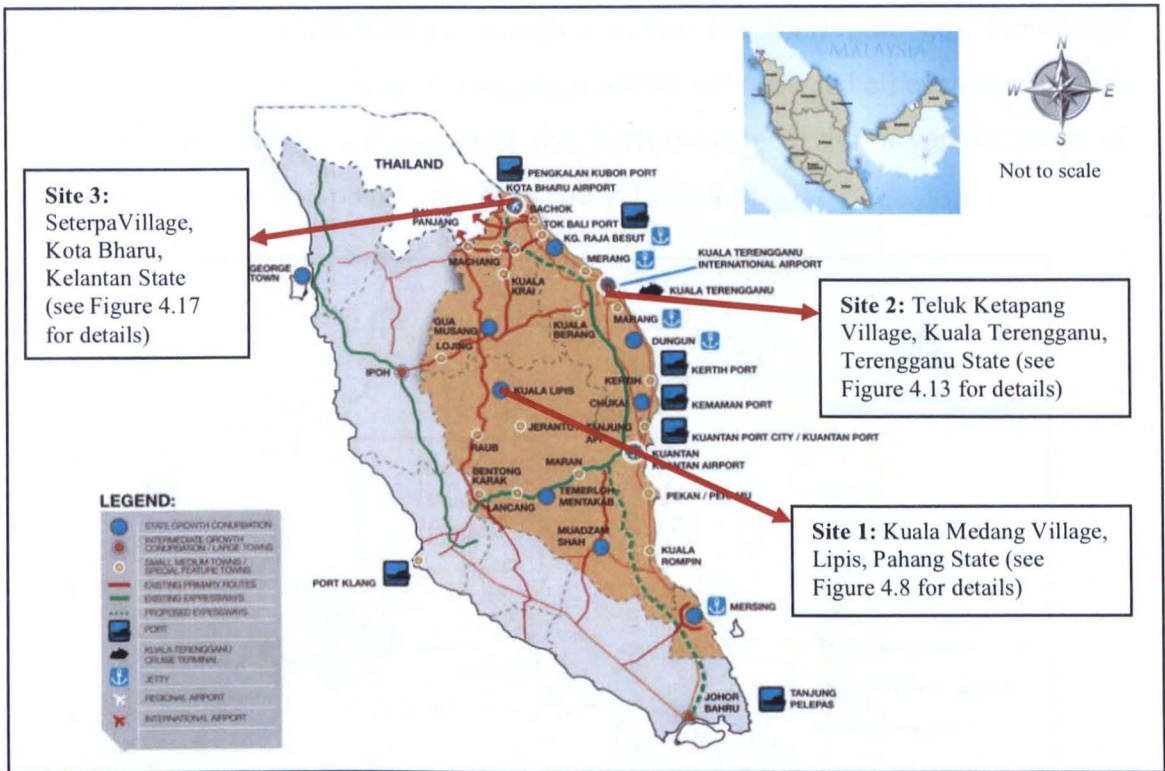


Figure 4.7: The three villages or CBRT sites selected for the study. Source: adapted from ECERDC (2008)

The following section describes the background of the CBRT sites selected for this research. The information regarding sustainable CBRT for every site is derived from a series of 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.

4.4.1 Kuala Medang Village

The Kuala Medang village is said to have been founded by the Semai* (an aboriginal tribe) in the year 1900. The village is located in Mukim Ulu Jelai, Lipis District, in the state of Pahang. There are five smaller settlements that formed the Kuala Medang namely Banjir, Termoi, Pulau Badak, Ketuyong and Kuala Jelai. The village is located about 49 km from the nearest town of Kuala Lipis and 56 km from the town of Raub (the capital of the neighbouring district). The distance between Kuala Medang and the

nation's capital city, Kuala Lumpur, is approximately 150 km (Figure 4.8). The village has an area of 3,176 ha., houses a population of 840 villagers and all of the population are Malays. The village's vicinity has also been developed with a various range of basic infrastructures and public amenities (refer Table 4.8).

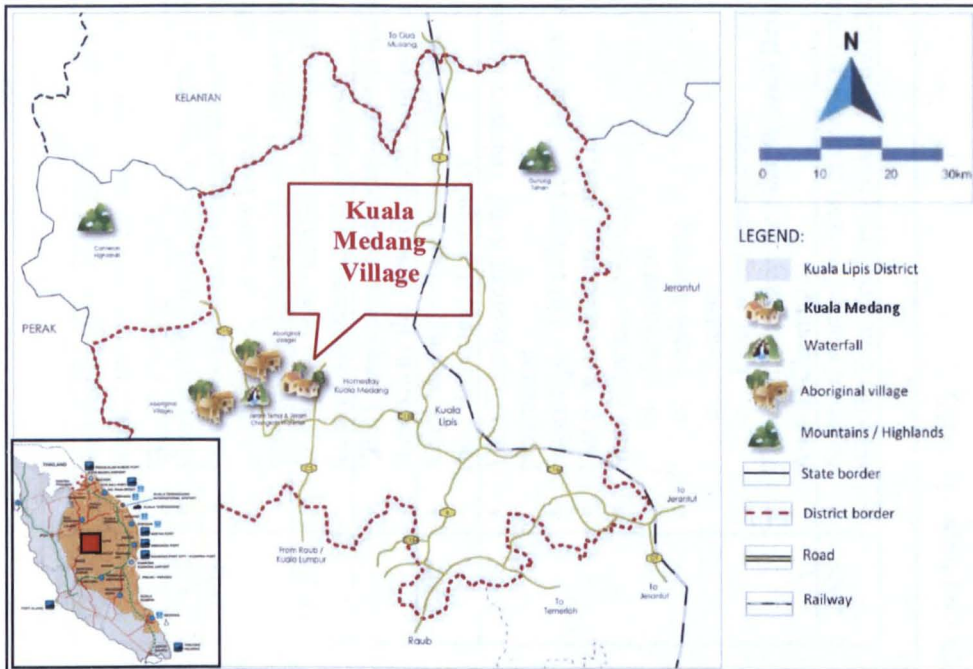



Figure 4.8: Location of Kuala Medang⁵ village in Pahang state. *Source:* adapted from TPRG (2009)

⁵ Refer to Figure 4.7 (page 136) for location of Kuala Medang village in the ECER

Table 4.8: Inventory of infrastructures and public amenities of Kuala Medang village

Basic facilities		Village profile																		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mosque • Primary School • Community hall • Rural clinic • Multipurpose hall • Youth hall • District officer's office • FELCRA Bhd. Office • UMNO Hall • Camping site • Farm products hall • Kindergarten • SME workshops • Rural library • Village Information Centre • Cultural hall • Tourism Information Centre • District Officer Office • Youth workshop • Women Development Groups workshop • Kuala Medang FELCRA Bhd. Participants Cooperation Office 		<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Year</th> <th>Event</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>1900</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Founded by the Orang Asli (Semai) community • Name derived from a big tree called "the Medang tree", which grew at river confluence </td> </tr> <tr> <td>1972</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flood Re-Settlement Scheme was opened by the Pahang State </td> </tr> <tr> <td>1986</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • District political leader suggested the Pahang State government to open Low Cost Housing Scheme for Government Officers in Kuala Medang village </td> </tr> <tr> <td>1997</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community based rural tourism have been operated – main focus on agrotourism and ecotourism </td> </tr> <tr> <td>2002</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CBRT programme (Homestay project) had been officially launched by the State Exco for Tourism </td> </tr> <tr> <td>2005</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kuala Medang village had won Malaysia Tourism Award (best Homestay) (Champion) </td> </tr> <tr> <td>2008</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village is under Rural Visionary Movement (GDW) programme • Population – 840 villagers (160 families) • Full time occupation – farmer • Main economic activities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Agricultural ○ Cattle farming ○ Tourism ○ Fresh water aquaculture • The village had won the State Women Development Groups Award (Champion) </td> </tr> <tr> <td>2009</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achieved targeted number of tourist arrivals of 3000 persons • Won the State Best Countryside Award (Champion) </td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Year	Event	1900	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Founded by the Orang Asli (Semai) community • Name derived from a big tree called "the Medang tree", which grew at river confluence 	1972	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flood Re-Settlement Scheme was opened by the Pahang State 	1986	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • District political leader suggested the Pahang State government to open Low Cost Housing Scheme for Government Officers in Kuala Medang village 	1997	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community based rural tourism have been operated – main focus on agrotourism and ecotourism 	2002	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CBRT programme (Homestay project) had been officially launched by the State Exco for Tourism 	2005	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kuala Medang village had won Malaysia Tourism Award (best Homestay) (Champion) 	2008	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village is under Rural Visionary Movement (GDW) programme • Population – 840 villagers (160 families) • Full time occupation – farmer • Main economic activities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Agricultural ○ Cattle farming ○ Tourism ○ Fresh water aquaculture • The village had won the State Women Development Groups Award (Champion) 	2009	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achieved targeted number of tourist arrivals of 3000 persons • Won the State Best Countryside Award (Champion)
Year	Event																			
1900	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Founded by the Orang Asli (Semai) community • Name derived from a big tree called "the Medang tree", which grew at river confluence 																			
1972	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flood Re-Settlement Scheme was opened by the Pahang State 																			
1986	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • District political leader suggested the Pahang State government to open Low Cost Housing Scheme for Government Officers in Kuala Medang village 																			
1997	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community based rural tourism have been operated – main focus on agrotourism and ecotourism 																			
2002	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CBRT programme (Homestay project) had been officially launched by the State Exco for Tourism 																			
2005	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kuala Medang village had won Malaysia Tourism Award (best Homestay) (Champion) 																			
2008	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village is under Rural Visionary Movement (GDW) programme • Population – 840 villagers (160 families) • Full time occupation – farmer • Main economic activities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Agricultural ○ Cattle farming ○ Tourism ○ Fresh water aquaculture • The village had won the State Women Development Groups Award (Champion) 																			
2009	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achieved targeted number of tourist arrivals of 3000 persons • Won the State Best Countryside Award (Champion) 																			
 <p>Mosque</p> <p>Tourism Information Centre</p> <p>Rural library</p> <p>Village Information Centre (MID)</p> <p>Multipurpose Hall</p> <p>Cultural Hall</p>																				

Source: adapted from JKKK Kuala Medang (2009); TPRG (2009); Research Fieldwork in 2010.

4.4.1.1 Background of sustainable CBRT programme

The sustainable CBRT programme in Kuala Medang village was established in 1999 when the village committee began to embark on homestay projects⁶. After three years of operation, the village was finally certified for CBRT by the MOTOUR in 2002. Approximately 71 participating households were involved in CBRT, namely from Kuala Medang, Kuala Serau and Tanjung Gahai.

1. Tourist arrivals

Kuala Medang CBRT has been receiving tourists for many years as the village is located near to Malaysia's National Park. Before the year 1990s, Kuala Medang was the one stop centre for tourists to acquire assistance and support in relation to their trips to the National Park. Since the development of tourism at that time was not properly planned, therefore no record of tourist arrivals was available (JKKK Kuala Medang, 2009). However, the situation was slightly changed after the year 2002 when Kuala Medang was officially certified as a CBRT operator. A sustainable CBRT committee was established, with Tuan Haji Razaki Razak as the programme coordinator (Figure 4.9). The planning, management and promotional and marketing of Kuala Medang CBRT programme was handled by a committee consisting of members from the community including the CBRT participants, women and youth groups. The committee consist of a coordinator, a deputy coordinator, a secretary, a treasurer and 10 committee members. In addition, the committee was responsible for keeping the details of sustainable CBRT aspects including the number of tourist arrivals.

In year 2002, Kuala Medang recorded 397 tourist arrivals to the village. The tourist arrivals figure increased slowly and steadily for the next 3 years until 2006, when 2,040 tourist arrivals were recorded, a significant increase over the previous year's arrivals of 600 tourists. Figure 4.10 indicates the numbers of tourist arrivals to Kuala Medang village between the years 2002 – 2010.

⁶ The Homestay programme is regarded as a sustainable CBRT product by Bernardo, 2011; Mapjabil *et al.*, 2011; Twinning-Ward, 2007)

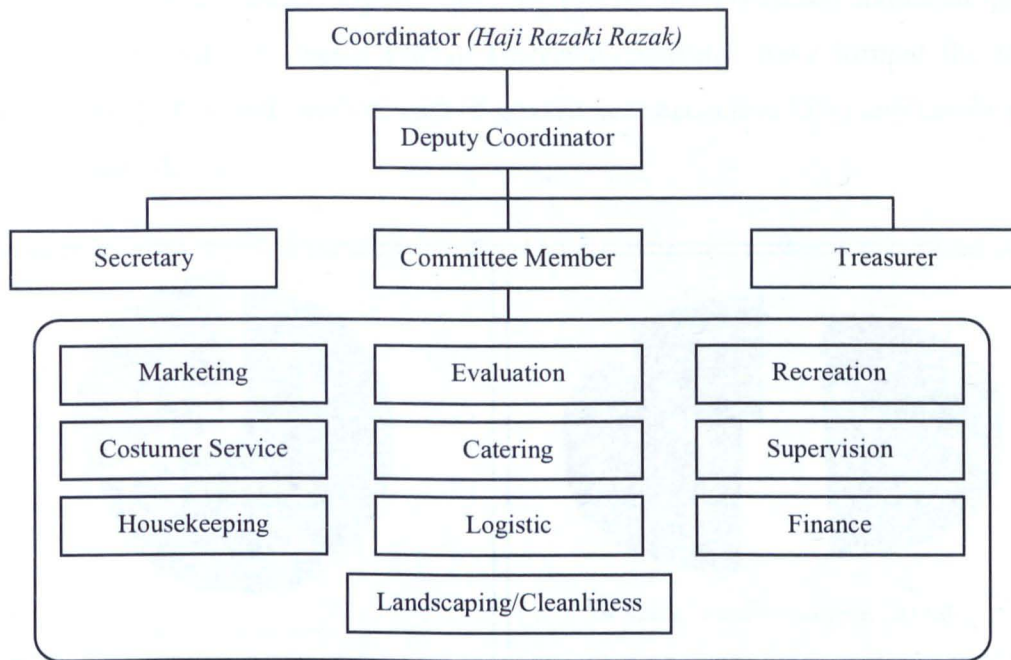


Figure 4.9: Sustainable CBRT committee of Kuala Medang. *Source:* adapted from JKKK Kuala Medang (2009)

It can be seen from Figure 4.10, that there was a significant increase of approximately 300% (or 1440 tourist arrivals) recorded between 2005 and 2006. According to Haji Razaki (personal communication, 2010), the increased number of tourist arrivals during that period was triggered by two factors, (1) development of new CBRT products to complement the existing homestay projects including agro-tourism (enjoying farming life) and nature based (river rapid challenges); and (2) increased number of CBRT participants making the CBRT expansion possible.

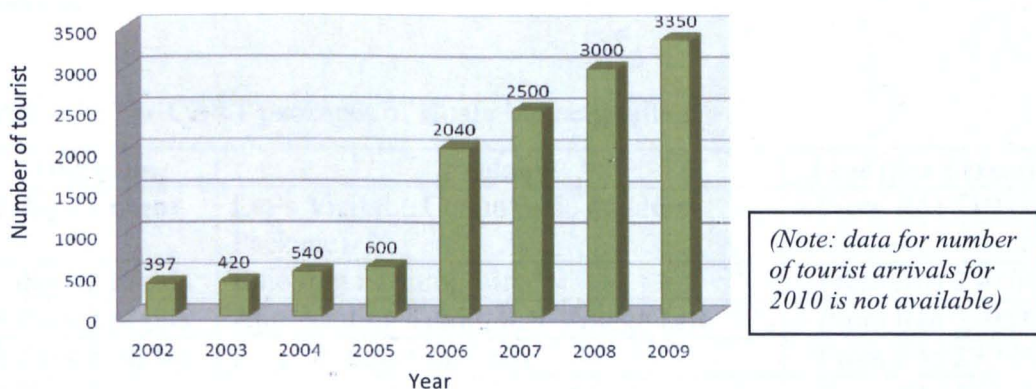
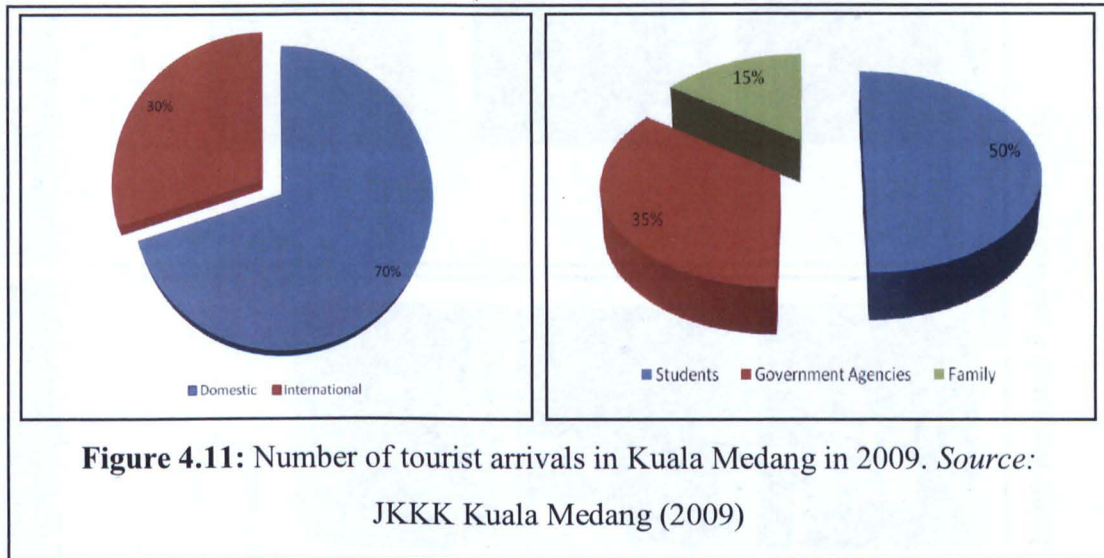


Figure: 4.10: Tourist arrivals to Kuala Medang, 2002 – 2009. *Source:* JKKK Kuala Medang (2009); Research Fieldwork in 2010.

Based on the JKKK annual report 2009, the tourist arrivals record indicated that the majority of tourists are locals (70%). University students have formed the largest tourist group (50%), followed by staff of government agencies (35%) and family group (15%) (Figure 4.11).



2. Programme and Attractions










The CBRT programme of Kuala Medang offers six different packages with each offering different themes and activities for particular groups of tourists to experience (Table 4.9). The packages offered ranged from a two-day/one-night programme for students to a four-day/three-night Islamic festivals (*Qurban and Aqiqah*) programme. Each package offers a range of activities specifically tailored to give tourists a unique experience.

Table 4.9: The CBRT packages of Kuala Medang village

Duration	Package	Fees (per person)
2 days/1 night	Let's Visit the Countryside (student Package)	From RM 110.00
3 days/2 nights	Enjoying Farming Life	From RM 250.00
3 days/2 nights	Appreciating Traditional Village Life	From RM 250.00
3 days/2 nights	River Rapids Challenge	From RM 270.00
4 days/3 nights	Appreciating the Beauty of Nature	From RM 350.00
4 days/3 nights	Islamic Festival (Qurban & Aqiqah Package)	From RM 480.00

Source: JKKK Kuala Medang (2009) (note: rate of exchange GBP1 = RM4.90)

Table 4.10: Inventory of CBRT resources and attractions of Kuala Medang village

Main Tourism Resources		Supporting Tourism Resources	Surrounding Tourism Attractions									
<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Type</th> <th>Activities</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Agro-tourism</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Visitation, demonstration and tasting <i>salak</i> fruit • Rubber tapping demonstration • Mat weaving demonstration • Sweet making demonstration • Palm juice extraction demonstration • Fishing (pond) • River fisherman activities • Traditional food preparation and tasting (<i>dodol</i>, <i>sambal hitam</i>, <i>lemang</i>, etc) </td> </tr> <tr> <td>Ecotourism</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • River cruise by boat • Rafting and Canoeing • Visit to <i>Kelah</i> fish sanctuary • 4-wheel challenges • Cave exploration • Visit to aboriginal (Orang Asli) villages • Flying fox • Jungle trekking </td> </tr> <tr> <td>Traditional Culture</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional dance (<i>Tarian Pelanduk</i>, <i>Joget Pahang</i>) • Orang Asli performance (<i>Sewang</i>) </td> </tr> <tr> <td>Games</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional games (<i>Gasing</i>, <i>Batu Seremban</i> and <i>Congkak</i>) • Orang Asli games (Blowpipes demonstration and relay games) </td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Type	Activities	Agro-tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Visitation, demonstration and tasting <i>salak</i> fruit • Rubber tapping demonstration • Mat weaving demonstration • Sweet making demonstration • Palm juice extraction demonstration • Fishing (pond) • River fisherman activities • Traditional food preparation and tasting (<i>dodol</i>, <i>sambal hitam</i>, <i>lemang</i>, etc) 	Ecotourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • River cruise by boat • Rafting and Canoeing • Visit to <i>Kelah</i> fish sanctuary • 4-wheel challenges • Cave exploration • Visit to aboriginal (Orang Asli) villages • Flying fox • Jungle trekking 	Traditional Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional dance (<i>Tarian Pelanduk</i>, <i>Joget Pahang</i>) • Orang Asli performance (<i>Sewang</i>) 	Games	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional games (<i>Gasing</i>, <i>Batu Seremban</i> and <i>Congkak</i>) • Orang Asli games (Blowpipes demonstration and relay games) 	<p>Small & Medium Enterprises (SMEs)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Noodle-processing • Boat-making • Turmeric powder processing • <i>Salak</i> juice making • Rubber leaf product making <div style="display: flex; flex-wrap: wrap;"> <div style="width: 50%; text-align: center;">  <p>Boat-making</p> </div> <div style="width: 50%; text-align: center;">  <p>Making noodles</p> </div> <div style="width: 50%; text-align: center;">  <p>Rubber leaf products</p> </div> <div style="width: 50%; text-align: center;">  <p>Turmeric Powder Making</p> </div> <div style="width: 50%; text-align: center;">  <p>Jus salak making</p> </div> <div style="width: 50%; text-align: center;">  <p>Dodol making</p> </div> </div>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Jeram Tema</i> Waterfall (5km from Kuala Medang village) • <i>Changkoh Pasir</i> Rapids (9km from Kuala Medang village) <div style="display: flex; flex-direction: column; align-items: center;"> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Water Rafting</p> </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Cave exploration</p> </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>River cruise</p> </div> </div>
Type	Activities											
Agro-tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Visitation, demonstration and tasting <i>salak</i> fruit • Rubber tapping demonstration • Mat weaving demonstration • Sweet making demonstration • Palm juice extraction demonstration • Fishing (pond) • River fisherman activities • Traditional food preparation and tasting (<i>dodol</i>, <i>sambal hitam</i>, <i>lemang</i>, etc) 											
Ecotourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • River cruise by boat • Rafting and Canoeing • Visit to <i>Kelah</i> fish sanctuary • 4-wheel challenges • Cave exploration • Visit to aboriginal (Orang Asli) villages • Flying fox • Jungle trekking 											
Traditional Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional dance (<i>Tarian Pelanduk</i>, <i>Joget Pahang</i>) • Orang Asli performance (<i>Sewang</i>) 											
Games	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional games (<i>Gasing</i>, <i>Batu Seremban</i> and <i>Congkak</i>) • Orang Asli games (Blowpipes demonstration and relay games) 											

Source: adapted from JKKK Kuala Medang (2009); TPRG (2009); Pilot Study in 2009; Research Fieldwork in 2010.

3. Tourist receipts

A survey conducted by TPRG UTM in 2009 indicated that the Kuala Medang sustainable CBRT programme had achieved growth in tourist receipts from 2002 to 2009. The gross income reached RM500,000 in 2007 and this figure has been surpassed in 2008 (RM850, 000) and breached RM1 million by the end of 2009 (Figure 4.12).

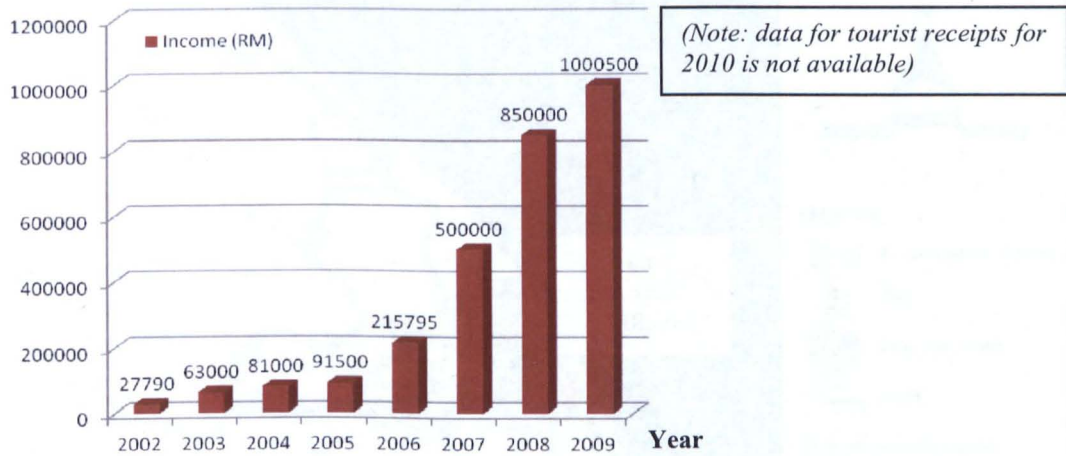


Figure 4.12: Tourist receipts for Kuala Medang, 2002 – 2008. *Source:* TPRG (2009)

The sustainable CBRT committee has developed a unique system to ensure an equitable distribution of income among CBRT participants. All income generated is channelled and kept by the central committee and by the end of the month, each participant receives payments; for instance, every homestay operator will receive RM50/guest/night and the final amount of payment will depend on the numbers of guest and nights spent (Haji Razaki Razak, personal communication, 2010).

In addition to the direct income from CBRT, the community in Kuala Medang had also received funding and financial assistance from government agencies at the Local, State and Federal levels to enhance their local small and medium enterprises (SMEs) and to upgrade tourism infrastructures (refer Table 4.10). Furthermore, Kuala Medang has also obtained grants and financial rewards from national and state competitions, which are also used for various purposes (refer Table 8.7 in Chapter 8).

4.4.2 Teluk Ketapang Village

The Teluk Ketapang village is a modern fishing village located in the fringe of Kuala Terengganu, the capital state and about 5 minutes from the Sultan Mahmud Airport in Terengganu (Figure 4.13). The strategic location of Teluk Ketapang village i.e. near the capital state and airport has offered this village an advantage in terms of marketing the local tourism products.

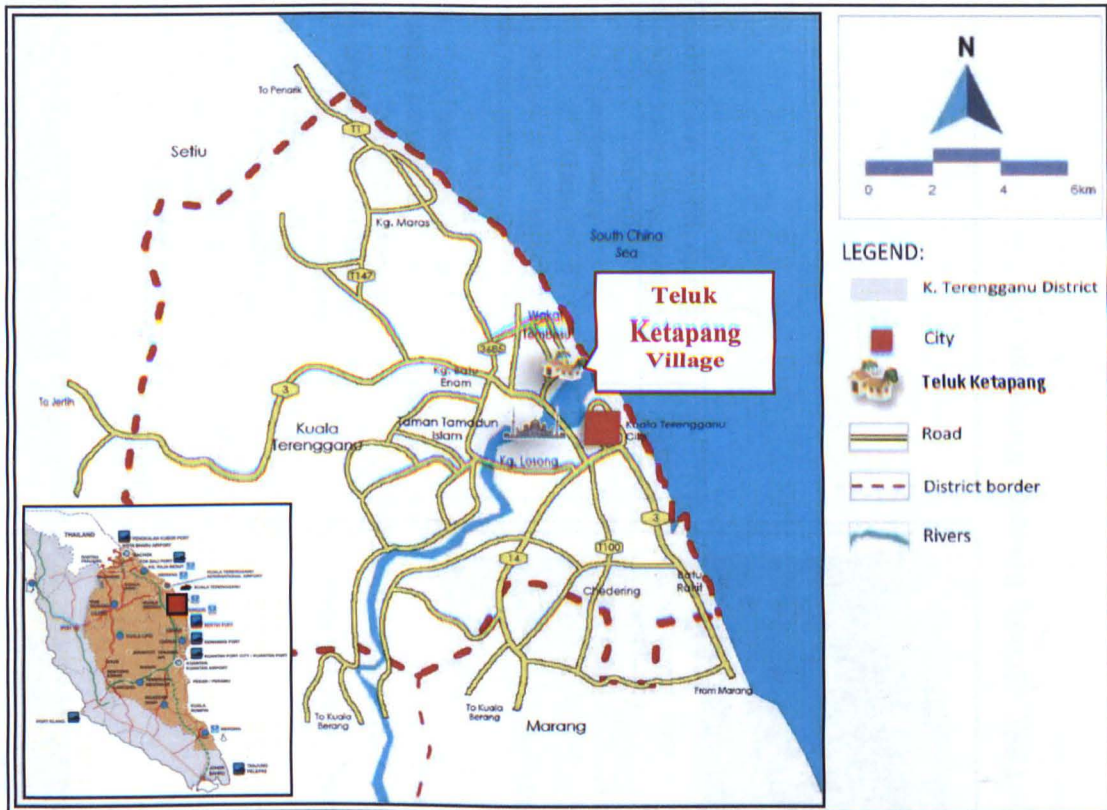



Figure 4.13: Location of Teluk Ketapang⁷ village in Terengganu state. *Source:* adapted from TPRG (2009)

The Teluk Ketapang village has an area of 520 ha. that houses a population of 1,830 villagers who are mostly government employees (JKKK Teluk Ketapang, 2009). The population are mainly Malays and as mentioned in Table 4.11, the village's vicinity has been developed with various ranges of basic infrastructures and amenities.

⁷ Refer to Figure 4.7 (page 136) for location of Teluk Ketapang village in the ECER.

Table 4.11: Inventory of infrastructures and public amenities of Teluk Ketapang village

Basic facilities		Village profile											
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mosque • Secondary School • Community Hall • Clinic • Multipurpose Hall • Youth Hall • Village Information Centre • Bus Stop • Mini Police Station • Recreational Area • Kindergarten • Public Telephone • SME Workshops • Craft Centre • Market • Women Development Groups Workshop 		<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Year</th> <th>Event</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>1900</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Name derived from a tree called Ketapang, a large and old tree located at the bay that is said to be mystical </td> </tr> <tr> <td>2007</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teluk Ketapang village had won the MEPS Award (Entrepreneurships) </td> </tr> <tr> <td>2008</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village is under Rural Visionary Movement (GDW) programme • Population – 1,830 villagers (305 families) • Full time occupation: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Government sector ○ Fisherman ○ Farmer ○ Self Employed / businessperson • Main economic activities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Fishery ○ Agricultural ○ Tourism </td> </tr> <tr> <td>2009</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Won the State Best Countryside Award (Runners- up) • Established the new partnerships with Russian tour operators </td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		Year	Event	1900	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Name derived from a tree called Ketapang, a large and old tree located at the bay that is said to be mystical 	2007	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teluk Ketapang village had won the MEPS Award (Entrepreneurships) 	2008	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village is under Rural Visionary Movement (GDW) programme • Population – 1,830 villagers (305 families) • Full time occupation: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Government sector ○ Fisherman ○ Farmer ○ Self Employed / businessperson • Main economic activities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Fishery ○ Agricultural ○ Tourism 	2009	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Won the State Best Countryside Award (Runners- up) • Established the new partnerships with Russian tour operators
Year	Event												
1900	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Name derived from a tree called Ketapang, a large and old tree located at the bay that is said to be mystical 												
2007	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teluk Ketapang village had won the MEPS Award (Entrepreneurships) 												
2008	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village is under Rural Visionary Movement (GDW) programme • Population – 1,830 villagers (305 families) • Full time occupation: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Government sector ○ Fisherman ○ Farmer ○ Self Employed / businessperson • Main economic activities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Fishery ○ Agricultural ○ Tourism 												
2009	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Won the State Best Countryside Award (Runners- up) • Established the new partnerships with Russian tour operators 												
 <p>The image contains six photographs arranged in a 2x3 grid, each with a caption below it:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Clinic: A modern building with a covered entrance and a white van parked in front. Craft centre: A traditional structure with a thatched roof and open sides. Secondary school: A large, multi-story building with a sign that reads 'SEKOLAH KEMERDEKAAN TELUK KETAPANG'. Sewing workshop: An indoor space with several sewing machines and people working. Bus stop: A simple shelter with a corrugated metal roof and wooden posts. Market: An outdoor area with several stalls under colorful umbrellas. 													

Source: adapted from JKKK Teluk Ketapang (2009); TPRG (2009); Research Fieldwork in 2010.

4.4.2.1 Background of sustainable CBRT programme

The tourism programme began in 2007, the year in which Teluk Ketapang won the Entrepreneurship Project Award (MEPS) (JKKK Teluk Ketapang, 2009; TPRG, 2009). In 2008, the village decided to implement sustainable CBRT programmes, starting with a Homestay project (TPRG, 2009). Later in 2009, the CBRT programmes in Teluk Ketapang (especially their Homestay and Kampungstay) then became a successful model for other villages in prospect of embarking on and managing Homestay and Kampungstay. By 2008, twenty-four providers offering 26 rooms were registered with MOTOUR (TPRG, 2009).

The sustainable CBRT committee was established with Md Azmi Aziz appointed as coordinators by the committee to plan, coordinate, promote and market the CBRT products of Teluk Ketapang (JKKK Teluk Ketapang, 2009). The CBRT organisation structure includes various ranges of local stakeholders, especially youth groups and women. The committee consists of a chairman (the village chief), a manager or coordinator, a secretary, a treasurer and four committee members that represent a women's association (welcoming event and catering) and a youth organisation (cultural and event coordination) (refer Figure 4.14).

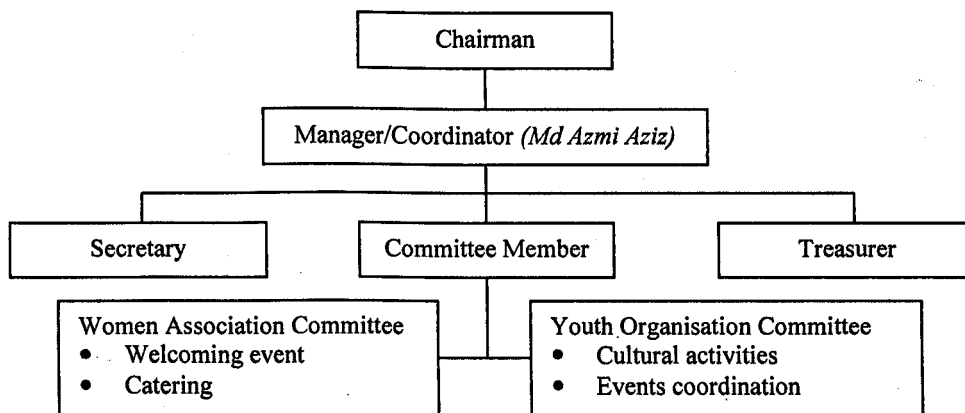


Figure 4.14: Sustainable CBRT committee of Teluk Ketapang. *Source:* adapted from JKKK Teluk Ketapang (2009)

1. Tourist arrivals

The total tourist arrivals at Teluk Ketapang village for three years (from the year 2007 to 2009) were approximately 2,038. The year 2007 saw 622 tourists while in 2008, 482 tourist arrivals were recorded and the number had increased to 934 tourists by the end of 2009 (Figure 4.15).

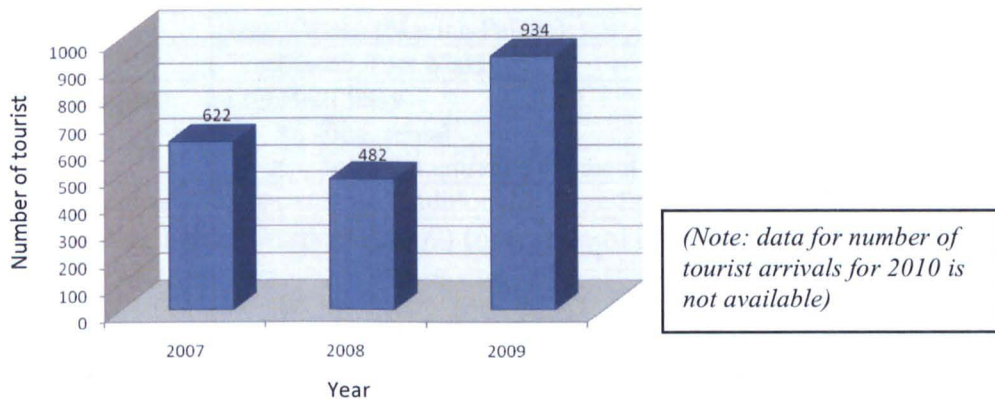


Figure 4.15: Tourist arrivals to Teluk Ketapang, 2007 – 2009. *Source:* JKKK Teluk Ketapang (2009); Research Fieldwork in 2010.

Teluk Ketapang experienced a slight decrease in the numbers of tourist arrivals in year 2008 despite the aggressive Visit Terengganu Year (VTY) campaign by the State's Government (Bernama, 2009). This issue was raised during the meeting with Md Azmi Aziz (extended field survey, 2010). Apparently, the VTY campaign was mainly focused on selected events, which were held quite far from the state capital (or specifically, Teluk Ketapang) such as Royal Endurance in Setiu District and the Rain Forest Challenge in Hulu Dungun District. Based on the JKKK annual report 2009, the tourist arrivals record indicated that local tourists made up the majority of tourists in Teluk Ketapang village with 65% as compared to 35% made up by international tourists. In addition, the tourist groups were formed by university students (40% of total tourist arrivals), followed by government agencies (30%) and families (30%).

2. Programme and attractions

Teluk Ketapang village offers six packages of CBRT programmes, ranging from one-day visits to 3 days/2 nights (Table 4.12). Each package offered ranges of activities

specifically tailored based on local resources and attractions to give tourists a unique experience (Table 4.13).

Table 4.12: The CBRT packages of Teluk Ketapang

Duration	Package	Fees (per person)
1 day	Squid fishing	From RM 110.00
1 day	River cruise to Crystal Mosque (Islamic Civilisation Park)	From RM 10.00
1 day	State Palace (Maziah Palace)	From RM 5.00
1 day	Traditional Boat Making	From RM 2.00
2 days/1 night	Light and Easy <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Boat rental • Museum entrance payment 	Fees may vary (depending on itinerary)
3 days/2 nights	Appreciating Traditional Village Life	RM180.00

Source: JKKK Teluk Ketapang (2009) (note: rate of exchange GBP1 = RM4.90)

3. Tourist receipts

Based on the village’s Annual Report 2009 and inputs from the research fieldwork in 2010, tourist receipts of Teluk Ketapang showed a steady growth from 2007 to 2010 (Figure 4.16). For instance, between 2007 and 2008, tourism receipts rose by 78%, and increased by 46% from 2008 to 2009 and recent data has also shown that tourist receipts remained strong with a further 23% growth.

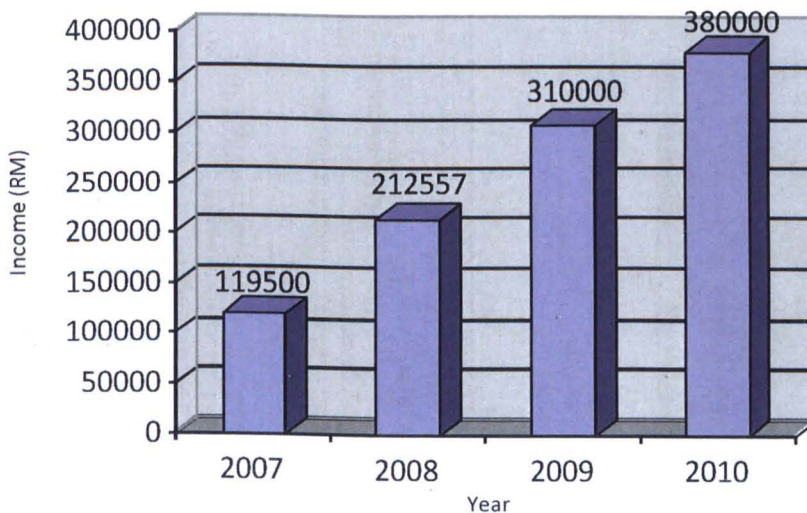












Figure 4.16: Tourist receipts for Teluk Ketapang, 2007 – 2010. Source: JKKK Teluk Ketapang (2009); Research Fieldwork in 2010

Table 4.13: Inventory of CBRT resources and attractions of Teluk Ketapang village

Main Tourism Resources		Supporting Tourism Resources	Surrounding Tourism Attractions							
<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Type</th> <th>Activities</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Cultural tourism</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural show: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ <i>Kompang</i> (instrumental performance as a welcome greeting) ○ Traditional dance ○ Poem ○ <i>Silat</i> (Malay martial art) ○ Choir ○ Traditional wedding ○ Coconut picking by monkeys • Visit to handicraft centre (<i>Batik</i> chanting, kite making) • Friday night market • <i>Keropok</i> (fish crackers) making demonstration • Basket weaving demonstration • Fisherman activities (fish net making, traditional fishing and squid catching) • Visit to old city of Duyung Island </td> </tr> <tr> <td>Ecotourism</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • River cruise by boat </td> </tr> <tr> <td>Games</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Folk games: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ <i>Congkak</i> ○ Stilt walk ○ Elephant steps ○ Giant clog </td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Type	Activities	Cultural tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural show: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ <i>Kompang</i> (instrumental performance as a welcome greeting) ○ Traditional dance ○ Poem ○ <i>Silat</i> (Malay martial art) ○ Choir ○ Traditional wedding ○ Coconut picking by monkeys • Visit to handicraft centre (<i>Batik</i> chanting, kite making) • Friday night market • <i>Keropok</i> (fish crackers) making demonstration • Basket weaving demonstration • Fisherman activities (fish net making, traditional fishing and squid catching) • Visit to old city of Duyung Island 	Ecotourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • River cruise by boat 	Games	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Folk games: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ <i>Congkak</i> ○ Stilt walk ○ Elephant steps ○ Giant clog 	<p>Small & Medium Enterprises (SMEs)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Keropok</i> (fish crackers) and salted fish processing • Coffee and chilli sauce processing • Food catering • Catfish aquaculture • Sewing and <i>Batik</i> workshop <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around;"> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Sewing workshop</p> </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Batik demonstration</p> </div> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around;"> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Keropok processing</p> </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Enjoying local cuisine</p> </div> </div>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Islamic Civilisation Park (6km from Teluk Ketapang village) • The Old City of Duyung Island (4km from Teluk Ketapang village) • Kuala Terengganu city tour (10km from Teluk Ketapang village) <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Crystal mosque</p> </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>River cruise by boat</p> </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Trishaw ride</p> </div>
Type	Activities									
Cultural tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural show: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ <i>Kompang</i> (instrumental performance as a welcome greeting) ○ Traditional dance ○ Poem ○ <i>Silat</i> (Malay martial art) ○ Choir ○ Traditional wedding ○ Coconut picking by monkeys • Visit to handicraft centre (<i>Batik</i> chanting, kite making) • Friday night market • <i>Keropok</i> (fish crackers) making demonstration • Basket weaving demonstration • Fisherman activities (fish net making, traditional fishing and squid catching) • Visit to old city of Duyung Island 									
Ecotourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • River cruise by boat 									
Games	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Folk games: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ <i>Congkak</i> ○ Stilt walk ○ Elephant steps ○ Giant clog 									
<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around;"> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Playing congkak</p> </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Making of fishing nets</p> </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Monkey picking coconut</p> </div> </div>										

Source: adapted from JKKK Teluk Ketapang (2009); TPRG (2009); Pilot Study in 2009; Research Fieldwork in 2010

4.4.3 Seterpa Village

The Seterpa village, which also known as Pak Rahmat village was said to be founded by a traveler named Pak Rahmat in the year 1890 (JKKK Seterpa, 2009). The name “Seterpa” is derived from the Kelantan dialect of “Serepak”, meaning a meeting place i.e. between the army of Raja Limbat, under the command of Long Ghafar and the army of Raja Jembal from a place called Kedai Lalat (JKKK Seterpa, 2009). The village is located in the Mukim Seterpa, Banggul Disctrict, and approximately 16 km from the state capital of Kota Bharu (Figure 4.17).

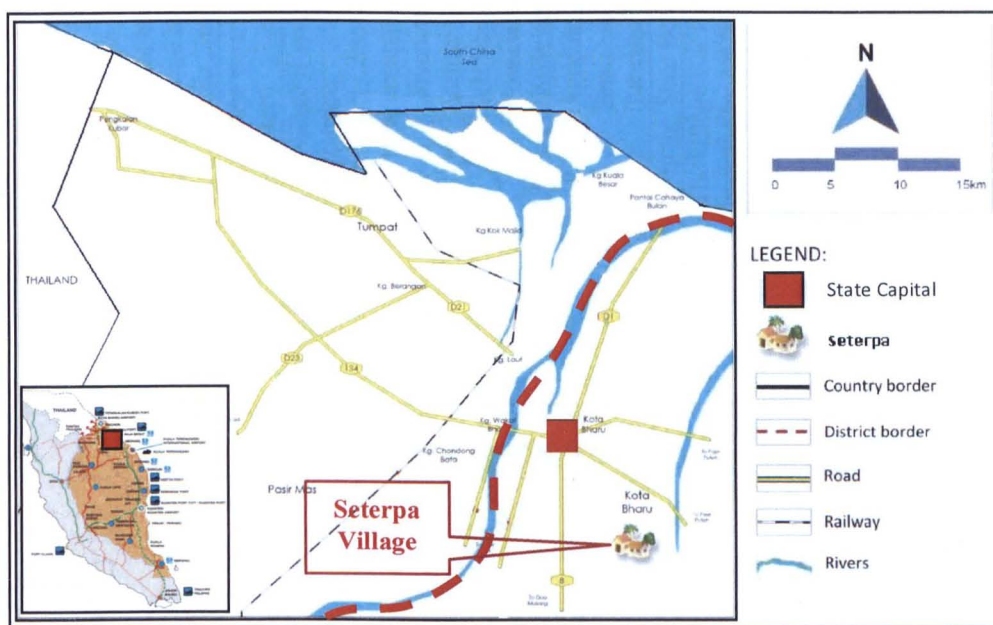





Figure 4.17: Location of Seterpa⁸ village in Kelantan state. *Source:* adapted from TPRG (2009)

The Seterpa village has an area of 374 ha. (67 ha. allocated for housing, 170 ha. for orchards, 90 ha. of paddy fields, 90 ha. of rubber plantations and 7 ha. were kept as reserve land). The village houses a population of 656 villagers and all the population are Malays (JKKK Seterpa, 2009). Besides tourism, the majority of the residents work in agriculture-based activities such as rubber tapping and small-scale paddy farming. The village’s surrounding have been developed with various ranges of basic infrastructures and public amenities (Table 4.14).

⁸ Refer to Figure 4.7 (page 136) for location of Seterpa in the ECER.

Table 4.14: Inventory of infrastructures and public amenities of Seterpa village

Basic facilities	Village profile												
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mosque • Community Hall • Kindergarten • Recreational Area • Rural Library • Youth Hall • Village Information Centre • Women Development Groups Workshop <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around; align-items: flex-end;"> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Mini Market</p> </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Kindergarten</p> </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  <p>Public field</p> </div> </div>	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="width: 15%;">Year</th> <th>Event</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>1890</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A traveller names ‘Pak Rahmat’ founded this village. Later, this village had become a meeting place (Serepak, as known in local dialect) between the army of Raja Jembal and the army of Raja Limbat </td> </tr> <tr> <td>2001</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village won ILHAM DESA Award (East Region – Champion) </td> </tr> <tr> <td>2008</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village is under Rural Visionary Movement (GDW) programme • Population – 656 villagers (85 families) • Full time occupation: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Government sector ○ Farmer ○ Self Employed / businessperson ○ Housewives • Main economic activities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Agricultural ○ Business/Trading ○ Tourism </td> </tr> <tr> <td>2009</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Won the State Best Countryside Award (Runners- up) </td> </tr> <tr> <td>2010</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village was included in the Malaysia Rail Tourism tour package by MOTOUR </td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Year	Event	1890	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A traveller names ‘Pak Rahmat’ founded this village. Later, this village had become a meeting place (Serepak, as known in local dialect) between the army of Raja Jembal and the army of Raja Limbat 	2001	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village won ILHAM DESA Award (East Region – Champion) 	2008	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village is under Rural Visionary Movement (GDW) programme • Population – 656 villagers (85 families) • Full time occupation: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Government sector ○ Farmer ○ Self Employed / businessperson ○ Housewives • Main economic activities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Agricultural ○ Business/Trading ○ Tourism 	2009	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Won the State Best Countryside Award (Runners- up) 	2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village was included in the Malaysia Rail Tourism tour package by MOTOUR
Year	Event												
1890	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A traveller names ‘Pak Rahmat’ founded this village. Later, this village had become a meeting place (Serepak, as known in local dialect) between the army of Raja Jembal and the army of Raja Limbat 												
2001	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village won ILHAM DESA Award (East Region – Champion) 												
2008	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village is under Rural Visionary Movement (GDW) programme • Population – 656 villagers (85 families) • Full time occupation: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Government sector ○ Farmer ○ Self Employed / businessperson ○ Housewives • Main economic activities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Agricultural ○ Business/Trading ○ Tourism 												
2009	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Won the State Best Countryside Award (Runners- up) 												
2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The village was included in the Malaysia Rail Tourism tour package by MOTOUR 												

Source: adapted from JKKK Seterpa (2009); TPRG (2009); Research Fieldwork in 2010.

4.4.3.1 Background of sustainable CBRT programme

The planning for a sustainable CBRT programme for Seterpa village was initiated by a group of committed individuals (mostly the JKKK committee members) in October 2007 (Dr. Mohd Saad, personal communication, 2010). As a first step towards funding application and registration with MOTOUR, the tourism committee was established (Figure 4.18). In comparison with Kuala Medang and Teluk Ketapang, whose CBRT programmes were overseen by the JKKK, the CBRT committee of Seterpa appointed an advisor from RISDA⁹.

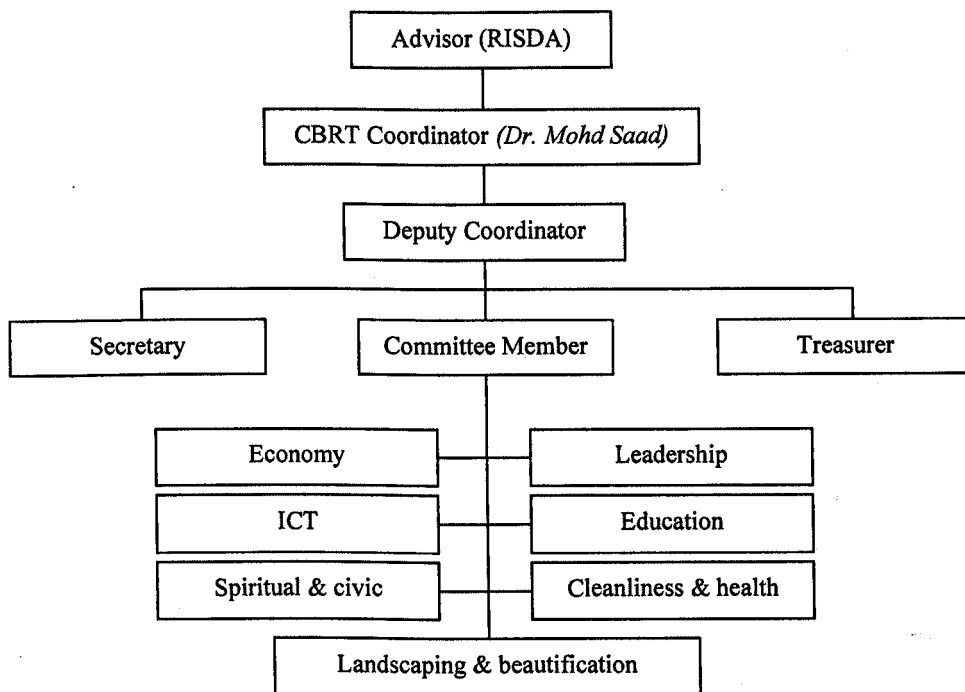


Figure: 4.18: Sustainable CBRT committee of Seterpa. *Source:* adapted from JKKK Seterpa (2009)

The village tourism programme was certified for CBRT by MOTOUR in early 2008. Currently, there are 30 households participating in sustainable CBRT, offering 45 rooms as tourists' accommodation (JKKK Seterpa, 2009).

⁹ RISDA (Rubber Industry Smallholders Development Authority) is one of the Federal Statutory Bodies under the MRRD and was established on 1 January 1973 with an objective to enhance the Smallholders Sector as one of the most important yield production sectors of the national economy (risda.gov.my).

1. Tourist arrivals

In 2008, Seterpa recorded 145 tourist arrivals to the village. The tourist arrivals have steadily increased by 71% (to 305 tourists) in 2009 and 132% (540 tourists) in 2010 (Figure 4.19). In addition, domestic tourists formed the largest share of tourist arrivals (75%) while the remaining 25% were international tourists (Research Fieldwork in 2010).

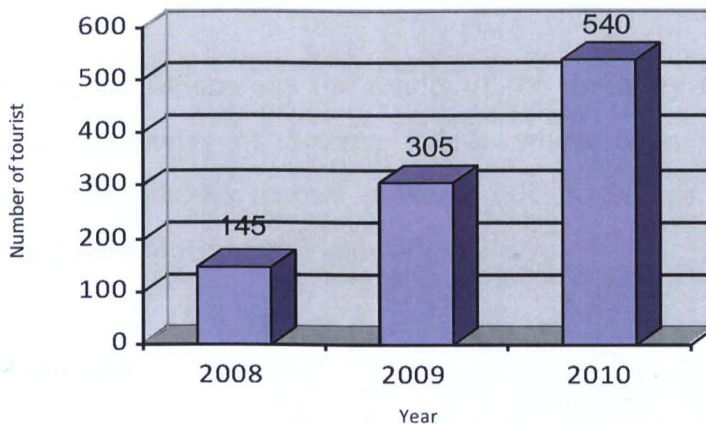


Figure 4.19: Tourist arrivals to Seterpa, 2008-2010. *Source:* JKKK Seterpa (2009); Research Fieldwork in 2010

According to Dr. Mohd Saad, one of the great strengths of the tourism committee in Seterpa is their active involvement in promotional and marketing events usually held in Kuala Lumpur and Singapore. The increases in numbers of tourist arrivals were also influenced by the MOTOUR and Malaysia Rail (KTM) promotion which included the Seterpa's tourism products in the *Malaysia Railway Explorer* website (<http://www.discoverymice.com/MalaysiaRailExplorer/seterpa.htm>, accessed 23 Sept, 2011). KTM is the national rail operator and offers travel all over the country, including the train service from Woodlands station in Singapore to Kota Bahru in Kelantan state.

2. Programme and attractions

The sustainable CBRT programme of Seterpa offers three different packages with each one offering different themes and activities that particular groups of tourists would like to experience (Table 4.15). The packages offered range from a day visit programme for students to three-days/two-nights for appreciating traditional village life.

Table 4.15: The CBRT packages of Seterpa village

Duration	Package	Fees (per person)
Day visit	Visit the Countryside (student package)	From RM 40.00
2 days/1 night	Enjoying Farming Life	From RM 130.00
3 days/2 nights	Appreciating Traditional Village Life	From RM 180.00

Note: all packages require a minimum of 30 visitors

Source: JKKK Seterpa (2009); www.go2homestay.com, assessed 22 Sept 2011. (note: rate of exchange GBP1 = RM4.90)

Table 4.16 overleaf summarises the results of the inventory of sustainable CBRT resources and attractions of Seterpa village which have been integrated into formulation of the village’s tourism packages (JKKK Seterpa, 2009; TPRG, 2009; Pilot Study in 2009 and Research Fieldwork in 2010).

3. Tourist receipts

Based on information derived from the JKKK Annual Report 2009 and research fieldwork in 2010, tourist receipts of Seterpa had achieved steady growth from 2008 to 2010 (October) (Figure 4.20). From 2008 to 2009, tourist receipts rose by 120% to gave gross income of RM33,000 before further increasing to RM47,000 (42%) by the end of October 2010. Based on the present tourist arrivals pattern, Seterpa could achieve their initial target of RM 60,000 by the end of the year (Dr. Md Saad, personal communication, 2010).

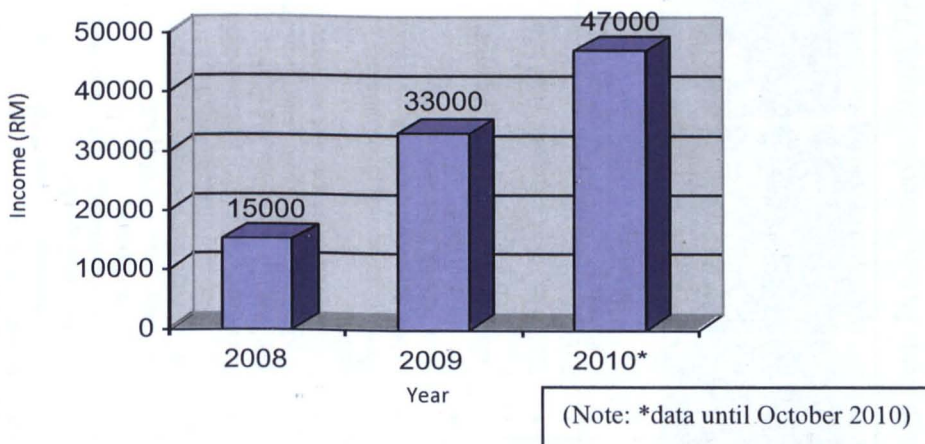













Figure 4.20: Tourist receipts for Seterpa, 2008 – 2010. Source: JKKK Seterpa (2009); Research Fieldwork in 2010

Table 4.16: Inventory of CBRT resources and attractions of Seterpa village

Main Tourism Resources		Supporting Tourism Resources	Surrounding Tourism Attractions
Type	Activities		
Cultural tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural show: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ <i>Kompang</i> (instrumental performance as a welcome greeting) ○ Traditional dance and <i>Dikir Barat</i> performance ○ <i>Silat</i> (Malay martial art) ○ Traditional wedding ○ Coconut picking by monkeys • Handicraft making and demonstration • Traditional kite making and demonstration 	Small & Medium Enterprises (SMEs) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Kerepek</i> (banana crackers) and traditional cookies (<i>kuih bahulu</i>) processing • <i>Salak</i> plantation • Fruits and vegetables stalls • Salted duck eggs processing • Food catering • Handicraft centre (<i>Batik canting</i>) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Siti Khadijah market (16km from Seterpa village) • Wakaf Che Yeh night market (8km from Seterpa village)
Ecotourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional fishing (catch and release hand fishing) 	 <p><i>Kuih Bahulu Making</i></p>  <p><i>Fruits & Vegetables Stall</i></p>	 <p><i>Siti Khadijah Market</i></p>
Argitourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Farming activities (paddy cultivation using buffalo) • Tobacco processing demonstration • Rubber tapping demonstration • Duck farming visitation • Visit to fruit farm • Palm juice extraction demonstration • Paddy field picnic • Traditional food preparation and tasting (<i>tepung pelita</i>, etc) 	 <p><i>Food catering</i></p>  <p><i>Visiting salak farm</i></p>	 <p><i>Wakaf Che Yeh night market</i></p>
Games	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Folk games: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Pole racing ○ <i>Gasing</i> (spinning top) 	 <p><i>Making of Cookies</i></p>  <p><i>Salted duck eggs</i></p>	
	 <p><i>Tobacco processing</i></p>  <p><i>'Hand' fishing</i></p>  <p><i>Pole racing</i></p>		

Source: adapted from JKKK Seterpa (2009); TPRG (2009); Pilot Study in 2009; Research Fieldwork in 2010

4.4.4 Brief Comparison of Three Sites

Previous sections have described the three villages on the characteristics and identities of each village possess which are relevant to this research. In this section, this information is summarised and assessed to provide better understanding on general condition and specifically current CBRT performance of each village. Such understanding is important for this research, to identify and suggest indicators and implementation strategies, which are relevant according to the villages. The table below summarises the assessment of the performance of three sites based on nine elements of comparison.

Table 4.17: Summary of assessment of three sites

	Kuala Medang village	Teluk Ketapang village	Seterpa village
1. Total population	840 villagers (160 families)	1,830 villagers (305 families)	656 villagers (85 families)
2. Total land area (hectare)	3,176 ha. (31.76 km ²)	520 ha. (5.2 km ²)	374 ha. (3.74 km ²)
3. Location (landscape and geography)	150 km from Kuala Lumpur (three hours driving) 49 km from the nearest of Kuala Lipis	5 minutes driving from the Sultan Mahmud Airport	16 km from the state capital of Kota Bharu
4. Main economic activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Agricultural ▪ Cattle farming ▪ Tourism ▪ Fresh water aquaculture 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Fishery ▪ Agricultural ▪ Tourism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Agricultural ▪ Business/Trading ▪ Tourism
5. Year of CBRT programme initiated	1999	2008	2007
6. Number of CBRT participant	100 families	40 families	41 families
7. Tourist arrivals since introduction of CBRT	12,847 tourists	2,038 tourists	990 tourists
8. Composition of tourists (%)	70% Domestic : 30% International	65% Domestic : 35% International	75% Local : 25% International
9. Tourist receipts from CBRT (in RM) (between 2008-2009)	RM 1,850,500 (between 2006 – 2008)	RM 522,557 (between 2008 – 2010)	RM48,000 (between 2008 – October 2010)

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

As shown in Table 4.17, Teluk Ketapang has the biggest population size of 1,830 persons, followed by Kuala Medang (840) and Seterpa (656). The calculation of population density (total people/total land area) shows Teluk Ketapang village has the highest population density of 352 people/km², followed by Seterpa (175 people/km²).

Meanwhile, Kuala Medang shows the lowest population density of 26 people/km². The population density differences between villages are mainly due to proximity of Teluk Ketapang and Seterpa to state airport and state capital city whilst Kuala Medang is located in interior rural area (i.e. palm oil plantation).

In terms of main economic activities, all villages still maintain agricultural-based activities and tourism to stimulate local economy. Seterpa village has just started to venture into CBRT in 2007, hence existing commercial trading and businesses such as hardware stores and wholesale merchants still considered as one of the main economic activities. As shown in Table 4.17, Kuala Medang village has the highest number of participants (100 families) which more than double the number of families that participated in CBRT programme of Seterpa (41 families) and Teluk Ketapang (40). In terms of percentages of total families participated per total population families (between elements 6 and 1), nearly 63% of families of Kuala Medang are CBRT participants, again the highest compared to Seterpa (49%) and Teluk Ketapang (13%) which is the lowest. This substantial difference is again due to the villages' locations. Most of Seterpa and Teluk Ketapang population have full-time jobs in public and private sectors outside the villages due to their proximity to the state capital city. Kuala Medang, on the other hand, is located in palm-oil plantation settlements and the nearest city is 49km away, thus the villagers are very much depended on local agriculture and tourism activities.

Kuala Medang is the earliest among the three villages to initiate the CBRT programme (since 1999), followed by Seterpa in 2007 and Teluk Ketapang which initiated the programme just a year after Seterpa, in 2008. Assessment on the numbers of tourist arrivals since the beginning of the CBRT programme showed that Kuala Medang village receives the highest number of tourist arrivals (12, 847 tourists) after more than ten years of operation. In comparison, two other villages that considerably new players of CBRT programme showed relatively lower number of tourist arrivals: Teluk Ketapang (2,038 tourists) and Seterpa (990). Prior to introduction of CBRT in Teluk Ketapang, the village has been receiving tourists due to its 'batik-making' activity; hence, the higher number of tourists compared to Seterpa.

In terms of tourist composition, domestic tourists represent the majority of tourist arrivals for all three villages. However, Teluk Ketapang shows slightly higher percentage in number of international tourist arrivals compared to two other villages based on their strong linkage with international travel agencies mainly in Europe.

The final element is the amount of tourist receipts from year 2008 to 2009 for the three villages. This specific period is chosen since both Teluk Ketapang and Seterpa just started their CBRT programme in 2008 and 2007 respectively whilst Kuala Medang has well ahead in CBRT having started in year 1999. As shown in the above table, between 2008 to 2009, Kuala Medang received an income of more than RM1.8 million which also the highest compared to Teluk Ketapang with RM522,557 and Seterpa with RM48,000. It can be seen from the tourist receipts data, both Kuala Medang and Teluk Ketapang performed better than Seterpa. CBRT in Seterpa has yet to become the main economic activity hence the significant difference in tourist receipts as compared to the other two villages.

4.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter has highlighted the state and performance of the tourism industry in Malaysia, which is now becoming the second largest contributor to Malaysia's economy. With a record of 24.6 million tourist arrivals and with approximately RM56.5 billion tourist receipts pouring into the national economy; the planning, development and management aspects of tourism are now drawing much attention from various parties. The chapter also discussed aspects of tourism organisation in Malaysia vis-à-vis its three-tier form of government. Figure 4.2 shows that tourism planning and development in Malaysia is comprehensive, yet maintains a top-down approach. The development of tourism planning policy is very much a Federal matter while the state governments are involved in the execution of policies and frameworks at the local and regional levels. The formulation of various policies and development strategies especially related with sustainable tourism development during the Ninth Malaysia Plan (2006-2010) has created the overall framework and direction for

developing a more sustainable form of tourism in Malaysia both by Federal and by State governments.

This chapter then described and discussed the five major regional economic corridors in Malaysia and specifically the ECER, which has been selected for detailed studies. To summarised, ECER is the biggest of the regional economic corridors in the country, covering the East Coast, a less developed region yet blessed with a great range of natural resources and unique traditional cultures that can be promoted and marketed as sustainable tourism products.

The final part of the chapter discussed in detail three CBRT sites (Kuala Medang, Teluk Ketapang and Seterpa village), selected as the research's case studies. For every CBRT site, the background, the current scenario (two inventories: i.e. on the local infrastructures and public amenities and on the local CBRT resources and attractions) and achievement (tourist arrivals, tourist programme and tourist receipts) were discussed in detail. For every CBRT site, the background, current scenario (two inventories: i.e. on the local infrastructures and public amenities and on the local CBRT resources and attractions) and achievement (tourist arrivals, tourist programme and tourist receipts) are discussed in detail. It can be concluded that all sites selected for this research prior fulfil the selection criteria. All the study cases also share common qualities such as strategic location (near to district growth centre, surrounded by many tourism resources), workable organisation and received strong support from members of the community including women and youth groups to participate in the sustainable CBRT programmes.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapters have explored the concept of sustainable tourism development in general and the concept of sustainable community-based rural tourism (CBRT) in particular, including reviews of development of indicators of sustainable CBRT. The literature reveals that there are obvious distinctions between the concept of sustainable CBRT and other forms of tourism activities taking place in rural areas, and also that there are ways of improving the pressure-state-response (PSR) model as discussed in Section 3.3.3 which could contribute towards better understanding on the process of constructing and developing indicators of sustainable CBRT.

The objectives of this research have been explained in Chapter 1. Its main aim is to explore the potential of sustainability indicators for monitoring CBRT development, and to apply this to the East Coast Economic Region (ECER) in Malaysia. Such measures have been developed in other countries such as New Zealand, in Taiwan and in the island nation of Samoa, which might have value in Malaysia where the Ministry of Tourism Malaysia (MOTOUR), the Ministry of Rural and Regional Development (MRRD) and other agencies, may find them useful to achieve their goals of achieving and monitoring sustainable CBRT programmes. After exploring the concept of such indicators and investigating their application elsewhere, the indicators appropriate to the Malaysian situation were identified and evaluated both by experts and by local participants. The selection of indicators based on

the SMART concept (Table 3.6) should be simple and suitable for implementation by identified agencies and local task forces to monitor and mitigate, and enhance where appropriate, impacts of sustainable CBRT programmes. At the end of this research, a framework of implementation of indicators is formulated. Formulation of the framework of implementation began with the identification of key elements (enablers, barriers and a set of relevant indicators) based on a review of sustainable CBRT research work by leading countries and other developing countries. Consultation with experts through Delphi survey were carried out to assess and revise the preliminary set of indicators of sustainable CBRT based on their professional opinion. A wider survey of local communities are sought to provide the 'bottom-up' input for a more holistic approach in determining indicators and later on the implementation framework for sustainable CBRT.

This chapter presents the research methods, which are used to generate the key elements of sustainable CBRT (enablers, barriers and revised set of indicators) for ECER in general, and the sustainable CBRT participants under study here. These methods include the use of case study, the Delphi application, survey of local stakeholders, the use of Research Assistant (RA), limited participant observation and photography.

5.2 APPROACH TO IDENTIFYING THE LIST OF INDICATORS FOR SUSTAINABLE CBRT

There is still, to date, no specific set of indicators to measure the level of sustainability for sustainable CBRT, especially within the Malaysian context, and the researcher has reviewed various literature sources in order to gather and construct a preliminary set of indicators of sustainable CBRT. Results from secondary resources reviewed (journal, government documents and unpublished PhD theses) have been summarised in Table 5.1. This list however functions only as preliminary list which later was sent to an expert panel for validation, modification and improvement using the Delphi consensus to produce a "revised set of indicators". As shown in Table 5.1, the determination of criteria and indicators have

been carried out by regrouping every criteria and indicators into the four main elements of sustainable CBRT (environment, social and institution and economic).

Table 5.1: Organisation of criteria and indicators into the four major components of sustainable CBRT

Element	Criteria	Indicators
Environment	i. Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality	<i>(refer to Table 5.2 for full list of indicators)</i>
Social	ii. Local communities' well-being	
	iii. Community participation in sustainable CBRT development	
	iv. Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values	
	v. Visitors' safety	
	vi. Consumer / Tourist satisfaction	
Economy	vii. Economic benefits to the local communities and sustainable CBRT participant	
Institution	viii. Sustainable CBRT planning and management	

Source: review of literature (mentioned in Table 5.2)

Table 5.1 shows there are five criteria representing social aspect of sustainable CBRT, and only one for economic, environmental and institutional aspect. Review of literature (see Jamieson and Noble (2000 in Hassan and Che Lah, 2007:7) and McKercher (2003:4-5) highlighted social elements often in more stronger position to be included as main motivation for the communities in tourism, compared to economy and environment aspects (including host communities' well-being, cultural conservation and tourist satisfaction). The situation leads to the issue of imbalance distribution of numbers of indicators which evidence in Table 5.2, hence may influence the following stages, i.e. evaluation and selection of priority indicators by the experts (Chapter 6) and by the local stakeholders (Chapter 7).

Table 5.2: Summary of literature reviews on indicators to evaluate sustainable CBRT. (Note: tick indicates that indicator is covered in source cited).

Criterion	Indicators	Source of indicators												
		WTO (1995)	Ratz & Puczko (1998)	Zaaba (1999)	McKercher (2003)	Fraser <i>et al.</i> (2006)	Clark (online)	Blackstock <i>et al.</i> (2006)	Sebele (2010)	Robert & Tribe (2008)	Logar (2010)	Castellani & Sala (2009)	UNEP (2002)	Dymond (1997)
<i>Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality</i>	♦ Environmental carrying capacity	✓	✓				✓							
	♦ Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity	✓	✓			✓				✓				
	♦ Management of household and tourism waste	✓	✓				✓					✓		
	♦ Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials						✓			✓				
	♦ Environmental impact assessment appraisal in SCBRT programmes				✓					✓		✓		
	♦ Changes in environmental quality (water and air)	✓				✓		✓						
	♦ Management plan for sustainable CBRT changing hotspots				✓			✓						
	♦ Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour				✓			✓						
<i>Local communities' well-being</i>	♦ Access to local amenities						✓			✓				
	♦ Population trends and stability			✓		✓					✓			
	♦ Housing quality for sustainable CBRT /Homestay participants					✓		✓			✓	✓		
	♦ Report or feedback on crime rate			✓		✓	✓			✓				
	♦ Anti-social related stress/ vandalism			✓			✓			✓				
	♦ Education of local communities			✓		✓						✓		
	♦ Communities' health status			✓			✓							
	♦ Local share in the use and enjoy the sustainable CBRT activities		✓					✓						
	♦ Presence of indigenous / minority groups in sustainable CBRT			✓				✓		✓				

(Continued)

Table 5.2: Continued.

Criterion	Indicators	Source of indicators												
		WTO (1995)	Ratz & Puczko (1998)	Zaaba (1999)	McKercher (2003)	Fraser <i>et al.</i> (2006)	Clark (online)	Blackstock <i>et al.</i> (2006)	Sebele (2010)	Robert & Tribe (2008)	Logar (2010)	Castellani & Sala (2009)	UNEP (2002)	Dymond (1997)
<i>Community participation in sustainable CBRT development</i>	♦ Local control over sustainable CBRT development		✓		✓									
	♦ Operation of tourism businesses by locals and their contribution to the locals' well-being			✓										
	♦ Equitable distribution of benefits in all supply chains			✓					✓					
	♦ Financial incentives for local people to participate in tourism sector			✓										
	♦ Improvement of local human capital				✓				✓					
	♦ Community acceptance over sustainable CBRT programmes	✓	✓		✓				✓					
	♦ Involvement of women and minority groups					✓	✓							
	♦ Local community ownership over sustainable CBRT projects				✓									
	♦ Local understanding / awareness of sustainable CBRT issues				✓	✓		✓						
<i>Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values</i>	♦ Respect towards land and property right of local hosts				✓									
	♦ Conservation of local cultural diversity				✓									
	♦ Encouragement of the continuity of traditional skills				✓									
	♦ Local attitude towards cultural change							✓			✓			
	♦ Ability of local communities to maintain native language							✓						
	♦ Use of local resources / materials for handicraft production							✓						
	♦ Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion				✓			✓						
	♦ Conservation of local architecture identity				✓			✓						
	♦ Establishment of education and training programmes – improvement in knowledge of socio-cultural resource management			✓	✓						✓	✓		
♦ Promotion of local culture, events and history in sustainable CBRT programmes							✓		✓					

(Continued)

Table 5.2: Continued.

Criterion	Indicators	Source of indicators												
		WTO (1995)	Ratz & Puczko (1998)	Zaaba (1999)	McKercher (2003)	Fraser <i>et al.</i> (2006)	Clark (online)	Blackstock <i>et al.</i> (2006)	Sebele (2010)	Robert & Tribe (2008)	Logar (2010)	Castellani & Sala (2009)	UNEP (2002)	Dymond (1997)
<i>Visitors' safety</i>	♦ Provision of medical facilities in sustainable CBRT programmes			✓			✓							
	♦ Capability of sustainable CBRT programmes in conducting 'search and rescue' for visitors			✓										
	♦ Complaint/feedback on visitors' safety			✓								✓		
	♦ Standard of environmental hygiene			✓			✓							
	♦ Availability of safety notice and publication			✓				✓						
	♦ Feedback on tourism-related accident in sustainable CBRT programmes													
	♦ Capability of SCBRT in prevention of infectious diseases			✓			✓							
	♦ Education for tourists to learn local desirable and acceptable behaviour							✓						
<i>Consumer / Tourist satisfaction</i>	♦ Quality of facilities, services and activities		✓	✓				✓						
	♦ Tourists' perception on sustainable CBRT programmes		✓	✓				✓						
	♦ Willingness to return as repeating tourist		✓	✓				✓						
	♦ Expenditure by tourists		✓	✓						✓				
	♦ Number of complaints / suggestions by tourists							✓						
	♦ Tourists' willingness to pay for sustainable CBRT facilities, services, products and activities		✓											
	♦ Tourists' satisfaction of the overall tourism experience							✓						
	♦ Improvement in tourists' understanding and knowledge about other cultures, communities and environment							✓						

(Continued)

Table 5.2: Continued.

Criterion	Indicators	Source of indicators												
		WTO (1995)	Ratz & Puczko (1998)	Zaaba (1999)	McKercher (2003)	Fraser <i>et al.</i> (2006)	Clark (online)	Blackstock <i>et al.</i> (2006)	Sebele (2010)	Robert & Tribe (2008)	Logar (2010)	Castellani & Sala (2009)	UNEP (2002)	Dymond (1997)
<i>Economic benefits to the local communities and sustainable CBRT participant</i>	♦ Diversification of tourism activities and products		✓		✓									
	♦ Provision of funding for training, marketing and product development		✓		✓					✓				
	♦ Economic performance – improvement of average earnings					✓		✓						
	♦ Local employment in sustainable CBRT programmes				✓		✓	✓		✓		✓		
	♦ Patterns of ownership in sustainable CBRT programmes		✓											
	♦ Investment in sustainable CBRT projects									✓				
	♦ Domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors				✓				✓	✓				
	♦ Changes in domestic prices (services and products)								✓					
<i>Sustainable CBRT planning & management</i>	♦ Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas			✓				✓	✓					
	♦ Land use planning for sustainable CBRT and their surrounding areas			✓				✓	✓					
	♦ Partnership in sustainable CBRT planning and management process							✓						
	♦ Development control in sustainable CBRT projects				✓									✓
	♦ Improvement of local transportation quality and services					✓		✓				✓		
	♦ Practice of sustainable design in sustainable CBRT projects							✓					✓	
	♦ Provision of planning and management of sustainable CBRT				✓					✓				

Source: Review of literature

5.3 RESEARCH TOOLS FOR DATA COLLECTION

As explained in the introduction chapter, the goal and objectives of this research are to formulate indicators with general applications for monitoring the progress in sustainable CBRT development in ECER in particular and in rural Malaysia in general. Hence, reliable tools and methodology have been rationally chosen for data collection and analysis based on the stated goal and objectives of the research. The following section will explain various research tools that have been used during the data collection stage: the use of multiple case studies and the Delphi exercise.

5.3.1 Multiple case studies

The previous chapter has discussed the selection of case studies, i.e. the three villages with CBRT programmes in the East Coast of Malaysia, using a set of selection criteria. In this chapter, the discussion continues with the theoretical aspect of the application of multiple case designs. This research acknowledged the fact that to sustain the reliable function of the case study method in addressing research goals and objectives and to focus on identifying indicators and framework of sustainable CBRT, the case study method of communities need to be thoroughly understood. According to Berg (2004: 261), case studies of communities can be defined as:

“The systematic gathering of enough information about a particular community to provide the investigator with understanding and awareness of what things go on in that community; why and how these things occur; who among the community members take part in these activities and behaviours, and what social forces may bind together members of this community.”

The definition by Berg demonstrates how case study method is capable of capturing and describing essential information of the community through a systematic and in-depth approach, which further assists judgement and the decision-making process. Therefore, the use of multiple-case studies for this research seems more desirable as compared to single-case designs. Yin (2009) pointed out that multiple cases could potentially increase chances

for the research to generate a greater and variety of interpretation, which leads to greater chances for generalisation of research outcomes (Yin, 2009), while the research outcomes derived from a single case would be difficult to generalise (Wisker, 2008).

Yin (2009: 60-61) has made comparison on the potentials for research work to adopt either single-case or multiple-case designs.

“The first word of advice is that, although all designs can lead to successful case studies, when you have the choice (and resources), multiple-case design may be preferred over single-case design. Even if you can do a “two-case” case study, your chances of doing a good case study will be better than using a single-case design. Single-case designs are vulnerable if only because you will have put “all your eggs in one basket”. More important, the analytic benefits from having two (or more) cases may be substantial.”

In the above statement, Yin has stressed that the main constraint of using single-case designs is the element of risk by putting everything under one endeavour. Issues of unpredictability (when a single case turns out not to be a unique case) and change of work plan (due to new information received after initial data collection), would result in resorting to the use of multiple-case design as the other alternative. The decision to adopt multiple-case studies also made after considerations of the limitations (see Section 1.5, Chapter 1) of this research (e.g. data collection method, time and respondents).

5.3.2 The Delphi application

According to Iqbal and Young (2009), Landeta *et al.*, (2008) and Yeung *et al.*, (2008), the Delphi method was originally developed for the American defence industry by the Research and Development (RAND) Corporation US Air Force in the early 1950s before it became popular in various knowledge disciplines. The Delphi method is the best-known qualitative and structured technique for predicting future events by reaching consensus (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006). Landeta (2006: 468) has defined Delphi method as a “social research technique which aims to gather consensus opinion of a group of experts who can contribute in solving complex problems”. The Delphi method involves the selection of procedures for a group of suitable experts (known as panellists), followed by development of appropriate

questions to be put to them and analysis of their responses (Iqbal and Young, 2009; Yeung *et al.*, 2008).

The process is typically carried out by remote correspondence (e.g. mailed questionnaire and email), rather than gathering panellists for group discussion. This enables all participants to respond individually and reduces the impact of group dynamic (e.g. inhibition, dominant personalities, etc.) on the resulting consensus (Landeta *et al.*, 2008; Landeta, 2006; Manoliadis *et al.*, 2006). The method is based on the judgement of the selected experts on the specific subject area, rather than producing a quantitative measure or result. Delphi survey does not rely on previous historical data being available which suggests that this method can easily work well in new areas that are frequently subject to unpredictable forces, which are not easily quantifiable in most of the cases (Manoliadis *et al.*, 2006). Table 5.3 summarised the advantages and disadvantages of the Delphi method.

Table 5.3: Advantages and disadvantages of the Delphi survey method

Advantages	Disadvantages
1. Very flexible methodology that can accommodate many variations and applications.	1. Method suffers from a lack of guidance and agreed standards regarding interpretation and analysis of results, universally agreed definitions of consensus, as well as criteria for how panellists should be selected.
2. Draws together existing knowledge and pinpoints areas of agreement/ disagreement.	2. Less efficient as a means of generating or testing new knowledge and theories.
3. Enables a group communication that otherwise might have been impossible due to geography, time or other constraints.	3. Generalisations are limited: another panel may reach different conclusions, and it cannot be concluded that the only or correct issues have been identified.
4. Economical in terms of financial outlay and participant time. Potentially rewarding research process for participants with multiple inbuilt opportunities for feedback.	4. High levels of commitment required from panellists: drop-out levels often high.
5. Makes the potentially confounding interpersonal processes often occurring in 'live' groups less likely (e.g. conformity to the dominant view).	5. May lack some of the richness and depth found in 'live' groups.
6. Anonymity between panellists can encourage creativity, honesty and balanced consideration of ideas.	6. Anonymity may produce less 'ownership' of ideas. Delphi process assumes panellists are willing or able to elucidate issues individually and respond honestly.

Source: Iqbal and Young (2009: 600).

Based on Table 5.3 and for the purpose of this research, the Delphi method was selected for the following reasons:

1. The study is an investigation of measures that would be relevant and important in formulating sustainable CBRT indicators, and later on in pilot testing of the suggested indicators. These issues are relatively new and less explored by tourism researchers, particularly in the Malaysian context; therefore, they require knowledge from a group of people who understand and are experts (via qualification and experience) in matters regarding the concept of sustainable development, sustainable tourism development and sustainable CBRT. Thus, the Delphi method could offer answers to research questions more appropriately through generation of new ideas and knowledge based on experts' participation (Iqbal and Young, 2009).
2. A panel study most appropriately answers the research questions better than any individual expert's responses. Therefore, the rationale for the utilisation of the Delphi technique in this research is based on the need to engage effectively with a range of sustainable CBRT experts.
3. Among other group-decision analysis methods, Delphi is desirable, as it does not require physical interaction between the experts, which could be impractical for geographical-dispersed expert selection (Landeta *et al.*, 2008). This non-physical engagement is necessary to obtain input during the process of evaluation and selection of relevant indicators for sustainable CBRT programmes and as far as possible to gain consensus on the process of developing a framework for implementing the proposed indicators in the future. This approach also could protect the identity of panellists (anonymous) involved and at the same time enhance good practice in management of research data and information in more secure ways.
4. The Delphi study is flexible in its design and can be amended after follow-up interviews (Iqbal and Young, 2009). This permits the collection of richer data leading to a deeper understanding of the fundamental research questions.

5. The Delphi approach can also serve the dual purpose of soliciting opinions from experts on the relevant indicators and having them rank these according to their importance (Kamaraswamy and Anvuur, 2008).

The utilisation of the Delphi method for gathering experts' opinion in selecting the priority indicators in this research has also included the selection criteria of the expert panel and the format of Delphi rounds.

5.3.2.1 Selection of the expert panel

In order for the researcher to produce reasonably defensible findings, the way the research is carried out (sampling procedure, data collection techniques, development of questionnaire, arrangement of interviews and so on) must be repeatable and transparent. Therefore, identification and selection of a good expert panel is considered as the essence of this research.

Participation was solicited from the key stakeholder groups of relevance to this area. These include academics, government agencies officers which engage with tourism works in general and in sustainable CBRT works in particular, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and consultants in the field of tourism in order to draw upon a cross-section of expertise within the subject area. After identifying key experts and the relevant agencies to become respondents, the next step was to identify the requisite size of the expert panel which could be a very difficult task. Iqbal and Young (2009) suggest that the number of experts on the panel depends very much on the topic area, time and resources constraint. Skulmoski *et al.* (2007: cited in Barzekar *et al.*, 2011: 133) recommends expert panels of between 10 to 50 as an appropriate number, given the amount of data, time constraint during the survey being conducted (to avoid fatigue and drop-out) and the subsequent analyses each panellist generates. The Taiwan ecotourism association, on the other hand, recommends twelve expert panels (Tsaor *et al.*, 2006: cited in Barzekar *et al.*, 2011: 133). Meanwhile, Yong *et al.* (1989: cited in Briedenhann and Butts, 2006: 175) assert that a minimum of 15 to 20 experts is necessary in order to obtain sufficient balanced and wide-ranging opinions. For the purpose

of this research, the decision was taken to gather between 10 to 20 expert panellists in order to ensure the inclusion of a diverse range of expertise drawn from academics, government officials, NGOs and tourism consultants and with acceptable allowance for potential dropout (**Appendix 1**).

Selection of experts for this research was based on the following criteria:

1. Practitioners are to have extensive working experience in the tourism industry in Malaysia.
2. Experts are to be currently or recently directly involved in the management of tourism projects in the study area.
3. Experts are to have a detailed knowledge of all aspects of sustainable tourism development, sustainable CBRT and of developing sustainability criteria indicators.

Based on the above selection criteria, this research utilized a directory of academic profiles (<https://www.mohe.gov.my/malimsarjana/>), developed by the Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia, and information from Tourism Planning Research Group (TPRG), Universiti Teknologi Malaysia to identify and select potential academicians. Meanwhile, eight experts were government officers directly involved in sustainable CBRT programmes in Malaysia and authority for sustainable CBRT programmes in study area. Three experts from Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) were identified by accessing the official website of Malaysia NGOs at: <http://www.mycen.com.my/malaysia/ngo.html>. The age range of all experts was from 35 to 60 years old. In terms of the gender, the proportion between male and female was 15:5. The issue of gender inequality is discussed in Section 6.3.1.

5.3.2.2 Format of Delphi round

There are mixtures of opinions about the ideal number of rounds in a Delphi survey (Briedenhann and Butts, 2006). From at least two rounds of Delphi survey as emphasized by Pan *et al.*, (1995: cited in Briedenhann and Butts, 2006: 182), it could increase to as many as three (Landeta, 2006), or four rounds (Yeung *et al.*, 2007; Briedenhann and Butts, 2006) or even more than that. The utilisation of a certain number (of Delphi rounds) could be

influenced by various factors such as richness in feedback information, wealth of additional comments and changes in responses (Pan *et al.*, 1995: cited in Briedenhann and Butts, 2006: 182). This research has adopted two stages of Delphi survey based on the following reasons:

1. This research began with the pilot round of the Delphi exercise. An invitation letter was dispatched via email (in early August 2009), to 20 prospective participants representing tourism academics, government officers, the Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and tourism consultants. Out of 20 prospective participants, five (academics) were selected as respondents to pre-test the questionnaire. Initially, the researcher planned to include other experts, especially government officers and key personnel from the Ministry of Tourism Malaysia (MOTOUR) for this pre-test stage. However, due to bureaucratic limitations and other formalities, which could delay the process, only academics were chosen for the pre-test stage. Based on personal communication with these academics, flexible time and self-interest were often considered as willingness to participate in this research. During the pre-test stage, experts were requested to answer by ticking boxes, to identify and select relevant indicators of sustainable CBRT based on their knowledge and experience in this subject. Results from the pre-test were used to improve the survey questionnaire and prepare for the next stage.
2. **Stage One** of the Delphi method was simple in nature, though time-consuming. At this stage, first, experts were asked to rank each criterion, followed by selecting all important and significant indicators of sustainable CBRT based on the given questionnaire. After their answers during Stage One: Round One of this Delphi exercise, experts were given the chance to refine or re-consider their answers during the next round of this iterative process (Stage One: Round Two). The consensus among experts on the list of "Important" indicators has been reached after Round Two of the process and therefore, the research proceed into the next stage i.e. Stage Two.

3. **Stage Two** sought responses from experts to rank the “Important” indicators identified in Stage One of the Delphi process. Experts were again given the chance to refine or re-consider their answers from Stage Two in the next iterative process (in a month’s time). The consensus on the ranking of indicators has been reached after Round Two of the process and therefore, the research proceed with the data analysis and formulation of a final list of sustainable CBRT indicators.

Delphi, as other research method, is not without methodological weaknesses (as shown in Table 5.3). Among the challenges that were encountered during the Delphi process was the lack of richness and in-depth data, which leads to limited generalisation of the experts’ responses (Fieldwork in 2010). This issue of methodological weakness is not unique to the Delphi method alone, as Geist (2009) points out that all research methodologies have the tendency and risk of careless execution, poorly selected panellists and poorly designed questionnaires. Nevertheless, the Delphi method is still widely used and considered as a valid instrument for supporting decision-making processes (Iqbal and Young, 2009; Geist, 2009; Landeta, 2008, 2006; Yeung *et al.*, 2008). It is also used as a method in developing indicators of sustainable tourism and sustainable CBRT (de Sausmarez, 2007; Briedenhann and Butts, 2006; Blackstock *et al.*, 2006; Twining-Ward and Butler, 2002; Miller, 2001; Zaaba, 1999; Dymond, 1997).

In dealing with the encountered shortcomings during the Delphi exercise, the researcher had conducted extended interviews with the experts i.e. via telephone calls to gather in-depth comments and feedbacks particularly on how they evaluate and select the indicators. The use of follow-up interviews with the experts, as suggested by Landeta (2006), could improve the quality of information provided through conventional rounds of the Delphi exercise. Curtis and Curtis (2011) note that the follow up process also opens up discussions of topics whilst the interviewer can focus more on discussing the feedbacks from the Delphi questionnaires. It was evident that through the conversations that experts were able to give extensive explanations and information, which is not apparent in the questionnaires of Delphi process.

5.3.3 Fieldwork: Survey of Local Stakeholders

The survey of the local stakeholders played a vital role throughout the data collection process. This approach involved an iterative sampling of opinions of local stakeholders on the concept of sustainable CBRT and the identification and ranking of indicators to assess the sustainability of CBRT programmes in the study areas. Since the communities are directly involved with CBRT operations as well as other types of tourism-related activities, their opinions and inputs should be included in the survey process. The theoretical and conceptual aspects of CBRT have been covered in the Delphi exercise; hence, the local stakeholders' survey is aimed to gather the extensive local knowledge derived from 'hands-on' experience in developing and sustaining CBRT programmes within the communities.

The local stakeholders' involvement, as pointed out by Aref (2011), is a key component in tourism development, as a strong sense of community towards CBRT planning, development and management can make it possible for the community and tourism activities to move towards sustainability. Obtaining the local stakeholder's perceptions on matters relating to sustainable CBRT indicators can also potentially increase people's sense of control over issues that affect their lives and the development of CBRT in their locality (Manyara and Jones, 2007).

The communities are the major stakeholders in CBRT, hence their participations are critical to this research. Other justifications for the selection of this method are as follows:

1. It is important that the indicators selection process should try to create a balance between theoretical appraisals (the top-down approach through Delphi exercise) and experience from the field (the bottom-up approach through involvement of the local stakeholders). The survey of local stakeholders approach might not demonstrate an intensive display of theoretical understanding of CBRT, nevertheless, a group of people at the local level with their direct experience in planning, developing and sustaining the tourism activities should be included in the process of formulating sustainable CBRT indicators.

2. Through early engagement in developing CBRT indicators process, local stakeholders, especially the local leaders and CBRT organisations could expand their learning curve and acquire new knowledge and experience. Eventually, the local stakeholders will be the ones who would be utilising the proposed list of indicators for monitoring and assessing the performance of CBRT. By contributing inputs in this research, Aref (2011) highlighted that the local stakeholders could improve communication between decision makers and local stakeholders and/or between stakeholders in the interest of facilitating a better decision-making process.
3. Engaging the people in the survey of local stakeholders is also a way to uphold the locals' right to participate in the indicators development process regardless of their status within the community (Okazaki, 2008; Marzuki, 2008). The data obtained from the survey of local stakeholders can create an in-depth analysis, which is useful for this research. It can also enable voices of all categories of people within the community to be heard and might improve long-term support and commitment towards this research i.e. CBRT indicators development process.

Stakeholders from each study area were divided into two sample populations, namely villagers who do participate in sustainable CBRT programmes and who do not (non-participants). These groups of people are the sample units from which the researcher obtained information on their knowledge of tourism activities taking place in their village, perception and understanding of the sustainable CBRT concept and their choices of sustainable CBRT indicators. Since two local groups were studied in every village (participants and non-participants), stratified random sampling survey design was applied. The justifications and details on sampling method and calculations are explained in the following section.

The surveys of local stakeholders are conducted in three locations or villages (Figure 5.1). The survey period coincided with the national school holiday starting mid November 2009

until early January 2010. For each village, questionnaire interview for local people took place in the village community hall (*Balai Raya*) and took approximately two hours (including introduction and feedback session). To encourage greater participation, especially among women (housewives and female entrepreneurs), the elderly and those who were working whilst the survey was conducted, the local sustainable CBRT coordinator made the necessary arrangements for survey sessions (door to door) at different times when these people were more available and willing to answer the questionnaire. In total, this research managed to reach all 85 respondents and solicit their feedbacks.

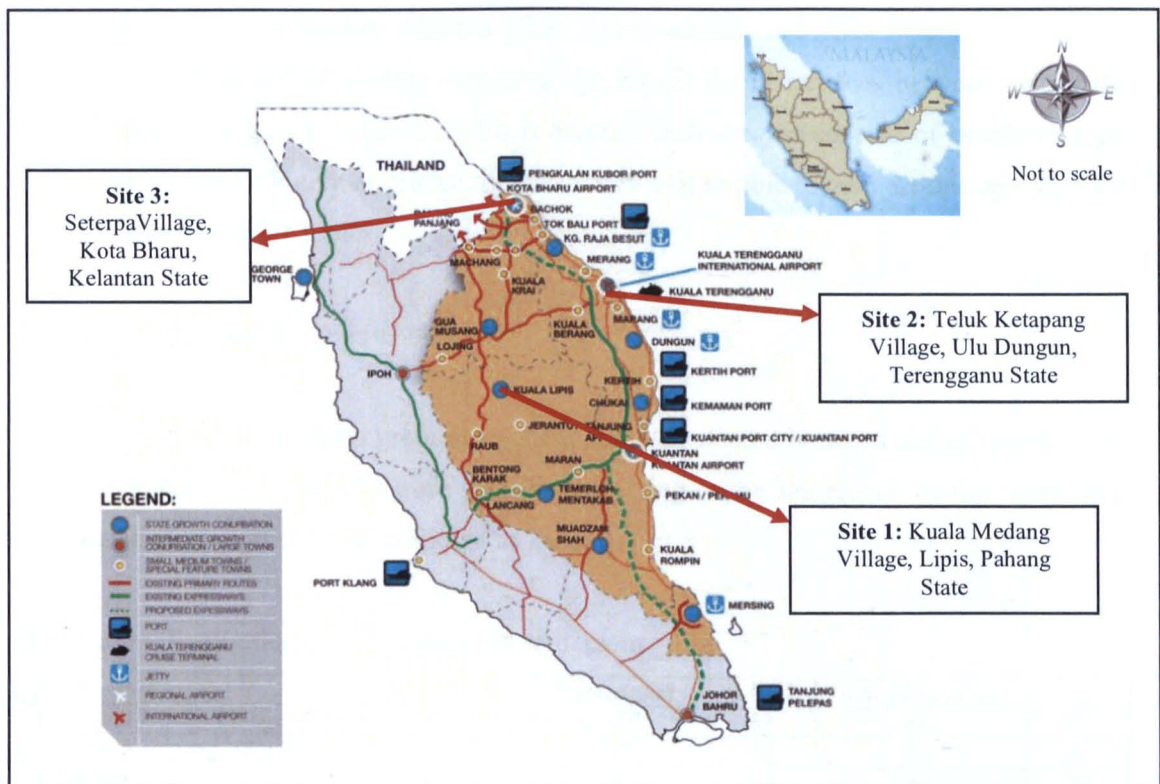


Figure 5.1: Villages or CBRT sites selected for the survey of local stakeholders. *Source:* adapted from ECERDC (2008)

5.3.3.1 Sampling method

As mentioned in Section 5.3.3, the stratified random sampling method was applied for this research. The reasons for selecting stratified random method are as follows:

1. Data for each *stratum* (sub-groups within community) can be analysed separately. These sub-groups are the CBRT participants and non-participants.
2. This sampling method could provide better coverage than simple random sampling – it covers opinion and increases the right to participate of less powerful or marginalized groups within each community.
3. This method can assist administrative work, especially in training a research assistant (RA). Researcher and RA can be more focused since they will be dealing with a particular group of people (sub-groups within community), or sustainable CBRT participants, or local sustainable CBRT entrepreneurs.
4. Through stratified random sampling, the bigger the differences between *strata*, the greater the gain in precision. This is because each *stratum* consists of people who are experts in their area or related topic and they will be able to give precise opinions and ideas on certain topics.

Calculation on sample size is as follows:

Based on data gathered from preliminary field visits conducted between end of October and November 2009, 550 families were identified as living in the settlements in the study area, with detailed proportions (%) as shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Distribution of respondents by settlement

Settlements	Num of families	Participants	%	Non-participants	%
1) Kuala Medang Village	160	100	63	60	37
2) Teluk Ketapang Village	305	40	13	265	87
3) Seterpa Village	85	41	48	44	52
TOTAL	550	181	33	369	67

Source: Research Fieldwork in 2009

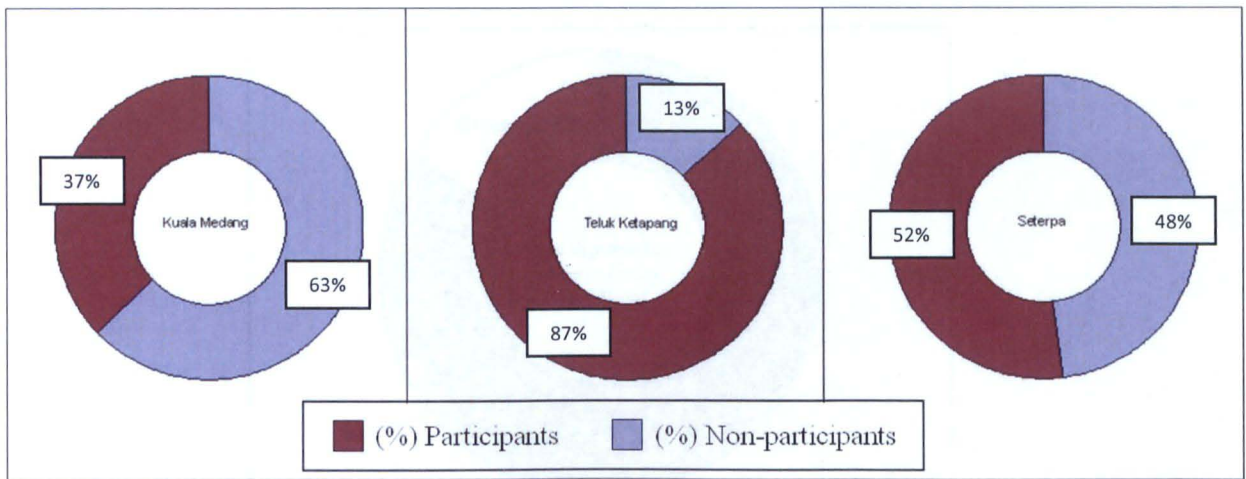


Figure 5.2: Distribution of respondents within sub-groups (participant and non-participants) by settlement. *Source:* Research Fieldwork in 2009

Using the formula to calculate the sample size (with 90% confidence level or 10% error), the number of respondents required are as follows:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{550}{1 + 550(0.1)^2}$$

$$n = \underline{85 \text{ respondents}}$$

Note:
 n – Sample size
 N – Population size
 e – Level of error

Table 5.5: The distribution of respondents between the three settlements

Settlements	Num of families	% for each settlement	Distribution (n=85)
1) Kuala Medang Village	160	29	$(29/100) * 85 = 25$
2) Teluk Ketapang Village	305	55	$(55/100) * 85 = 47$
3) Seterpa Village	85	16	$(16/100) * 85 = 13$
TOTAL	550	100.0	85

Source: Research Fieldwork in 2009

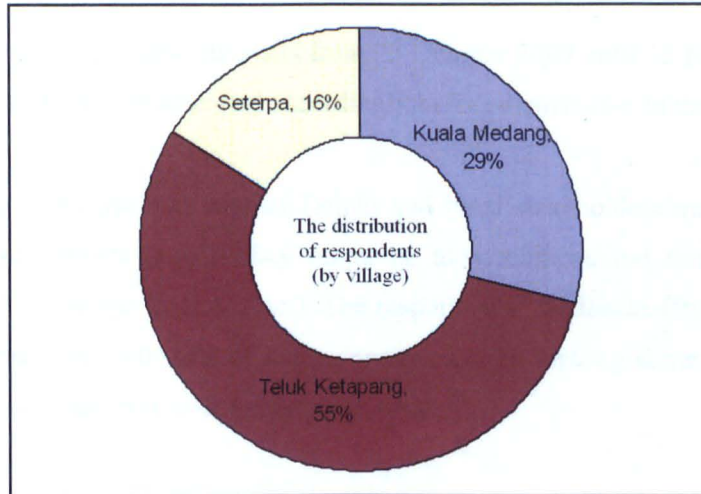


Figure 5.3: The distribution of respondents between the three settlements.

Source: Research Fieldwork in 2009

In terms of age, respondents could range between 18 years old to over 60 years old (18 years old is the age, which indicates they have completed secondary education, and can work legally).

5.3.4 The Design of Questionnaire

The structured Delphi and of the local stakeholder's questionnaires (both in English and Bahasa Malaysia) were applied as the principal survey instruments to obtain responses from experts and the local communities. The development of survey contents was based on in-depth review of the subject and information from previous studies and through a series of discussions with research supervisors. To support the secondary sources of information, this research also gathered additional information and input from other tourism researchers, academicians and key tourism coordinators in the study areas.

Both sets of questionnaires were also tested to check their reliability and validity (Table 5.6). A pilot study was conducted via email with five participants of the expert panel between 15 August 2009 until 15 September 2009 and for local stakeholders, the pilot study was

conducted during preliminary site visits from 23 October 2009 until 15 November 2009. The survey questions were then amended accordingly before distribution in the next stage.

The main purpose of the pilot test of Delphi and local stakeholders questionnaires was to identify any weaknesses (e.g. if they might be too technical, too time-consuming to be completed, lack of answer choices, etc.). The respondents' feedbacks (from the pilot studies) were used to improve both sets of questionnaires i.e. by making some questions easier to understand, shorter and as user-friendly as possible.

5.3.4.1 Questionnaire for expert panel

The questionnaire for expert panels is divided into three sections (see **Appendix 2** for details). The first section is for personal information background. Three main questions are asked in this section, namely gender of the expert, their age and years of working experience. The second section is the major part of this questionnaire whereby expert panels are asked, based on their knowledge and experience, firstly to rank each criterion as useful in assessing sustainable CBRT, followed by a second task, to choose indicators for each criterion, which the experts perceive important to assess sustainable CBRT programmes. In doing so, the expert panel members are asked to:

- ♦ For each criterion, select indicators (by ticking boxes) either as “Important” or “Not important”.
- ♦ Offer reasons why they feel each indicator to be important or not important against each criterion.

In a third section of the questionnaire, experts are asked to give any further feedback or comments regarding any matters related with the questionnaire.

5.3.4.2 Questionnaire for local stakeholders

The questionnaire for local stakeholders is divided into four sections (see **Appendix 3** for details). The first section requires respondents to include their personal background and information on sustainable CBRT activities. The second section asks respondents to state

their opinions on tourism programmes in their village. The third section includes questions on sustainable the CBRT concept and section four requires respondents to identify and rank indicators of sustainable CBRT. To obtain a higher rate of feedback return, this research has adopted the face-to-face questionnaire-based interview process. The survey research process stressed the element of voluntary cooperation. Therefore, in order to recruit potential participants, respondents firstly were informed of what it is they are volunteering for. Before agreeing to participate in the survey, each respondent was given the following information:

1. The name of the organization that was carrying out the research (Oxford Brookes University), name and profile of principal researcher.
2. The researcher's affiliations - Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia and Universiti Teknologi Malaysia as sponsorship bodies.
3. Brief description of the purpose of the research, the topic which this research is designed to cover and possible commitment required from the participants (willingness to allocate specific time to participate in a few rounds of questionnaire interview).
4. An accurate statement of the extent to which answers or comments would be protected with respect to confidentiality.
5. Assurance that cooperation is voluntary and potential respondents can choose not to entirely participate in the survey and even for those who have initially agreed, they may withdraw at any time throughout the survey period.

This information was faxed to the local CBRT coordinator at each village in advance (a month before the survey was carried out). A follow-up process (using phone calls) with the local CBRT coordinators were established from time to time to set up the date and time for the surveys.

After the research sample size had been identified, a data collection process was executed using face-to-face questionnaire-based interviews, which was carried out by the researcher and the research assistant (RA). As a part of the RA's formal training process, the questionnaire was presented in three selected villages in the East Coast Economic Region

(ECER) during the preliminary visit. Fifteen respondents (5 respondents for each village) involved in sustainable CBRT were interviewed during the pilot survey. Based on the pilot survey, the questionnaire was improved or modified accordingly (wherever necessary) to accommodate the feedback received from the respondents.

These modifications then were used for the main study fieldwork. The two rounds of the questionnaire-guided interview process were conducted about the same time as the Delphi process. During Round One of the interviews, respondents were asked to provide information on their personal backgrounds, perceptions of local tourism development and the concept of sustainable CBRT and later to select the best indicators for sustainable CBRT. Answers from Round One were analysed and one month later (approximately) a second round of the interview survey was conducted. The purpose of Round Two was to provide the opportunity for the respondents to re-consider (or change where necessary) previous answers during Round One of this iterative process.

The process of interviews in the village was held in the village community hall or *Balai Raya* and conducted in Malay language. Each questionnaire took approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete. A majority of the respondents were interviewed in the presence of their immediate family members such as spouses and children. During the interview process, respondents were allowed to confer among themselves on critical value estimation such as details of their tourism activities, incomes and experience in CBRT programmes. The presence of the family members provided a comfortable and conducive environment for the respondents, as they were able discuss the options and perhaps reach consensus on the selection of indicators. This could also minimise bias towards certain values which might be influenced by an individual's perception and understanding.

In order to maintain the validity of data collected, the researcher held meetings with local coordinators and the CBRT committee of each village. This meeting helped both parties (researcher and local representatives) to raise potential issues and concerns regarding the formulation of sustainable CBRT indicators. The responses collated were useful for the researcher to make the necessary improvement for the next round of survey. In addition, the

local stakeholders also might be able to put forward ideas on how to facilitate the implementation of proposed indicators in future.

These meetings established a good relationship between the researcher and RA with local coordinators and other stakeholders, especially for follow-up visits. The researcher and RA were able to re-visit respondents who were absent and those who were not able to complete the questionnaire during the first round of survey. This ensured not only a good or better response rate, but also enriched the quality and reliability of information.

5.3.5 The Roles of the Research Assistant (RA)

As part of the research objectives (to gain local stakeholders opinions in the formulation of indicators of sustainable CBRT), a household survey was conducted. Therefore, to assist the researcher throughout the fieldwork stage, especially in conducting interview-guided questionnaires, a research assistant was appointed. Using a research assistant (RA) is an important part of the survey process. Fowler (2002) has strongly argued that it is vital for particular attention to be given to the process of selection of RA in order to attain the quality of data and information.

Appointing a good RA is never an easy task as without proper training and management it could result in various errors and later on jeopardise the outcome of the research. Among those errors, according to Fowler (2002: 121) are that the survey sample could lose its credibility, and reduce the precision of survey estimates and lead to a tendency for the research to attain biased or inaccurate response due to failure of the RA in motivating respondents during interview-guided questionnaire sessions.

The recruitment process was done with facilitation and recommendation by the Head of Urban and Regional Planning Department (URPD), Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. The RA who was hired was a recently graduated student in URPD who had previous experience in conducting household surveys organised by URPD and other agencies, having some ideas and general knowledge on the idea of sustainable CBRT and also the study areas.

To monitor the conduct of the research project, a briefing and preliminary practical exercise session was conducted with the appointed RA. The training session included:

1. Explanation on specific purposes of the project and the research objectives; that is, conducting household surveys to identify, from local stakeholders' point of view, what would be the most preferable indicators for sustainable CBRT programmes in the villages.
2. Clarification of the scientific approach which would be employed for the research; that is, sampling methods and how to attain satisfactory answered-questionnaire returns.
3. Explanation of the steps of data management with respect to anonymity and confidentiality.
4. Working through every question (in the survey questionnaire) with the RA for him to understand the questions and later on carry out questionnaire-guided interview during the actual fieldwork.

It is important to stress that roles of the RA during the survey of local stakeholders were to assist the researcher in dealing with large crowds. The RA, however, had a limited knowledge about the research and therefore was not entitled to made decisions on behalf of the researcher and the respondents. In many occasions, the RA sought opinion from the researcher. In order to maintain integrity of the data collection process, the researcher and RA did not engage in person or interfere with the respondents' opinions in answering question sessions, nor provide guiding responses.

The preliminary site visit (before end of October 2009) was intended to train the RA on how to maintain working ethics when conducting the survey, and ensure correct research procedures were followed with respect to local values and customs. As for actual fieldwork, the principal researcher himself was present personally to monitor every venue (village), supervise and hold discussions with the local CBRT coordinators in every village to obtain their feedback.

The appointed RA was paid approximately RM600.00 (GBP100.00) per month (for 2 months) by the researcher. This amount excludes costs for travelling, accommodation, mobile phone top-up cards and meals, which was be fully covered by the researcher. In order to comply with health and safety protocol, mobile phones were used to maintain constant communication between the researcher and the RA.

5.3.6 Limited Participant Observation

Observation through participation is one of the methods in qualitative research whereby the researcher observes closely a particular aspect within his or her field of study interest (David and Sutton, 2004). In common anthropological practice, anthropologists often apply the method of participant observation (David and Sutton, 2004). This method has been used widely by anthropological researchers around the world in the study of people in their naturally occurring settings, or in this research, in their villages. In this research process, the use of participant observation technique plays a vital role as a supportive technique and used to verify and make cross reference with responses from questionnaire interviews (Kamarudin and Ngah, 2007). Data collection derived from this method seek more towards capturing their social meanings and daily life activities related with sustainable CBRT practices (outside the formal questionnaire survey period), where the researcher voluntarily participates in the settings and in the local tourism activities, in order to collect data. Field observation also assisted the researcher in assembling an inventory of resources (natural and socio-cultural) which are developed and promoted as CBRT products. The inventory of CBRT resources is presented in detail in Section 4.4 of Chapter 4.

However, due to some research constraints such as time, funding and researcher's capabilities, the extent of participant observation technique has been reduced to "limited participant observation", whereby the researcher acted both as the observer and participant to carry out the CBRT activities in order to attain better in-depth coverage of information from host communities. The use of limited participant observation has allowed the researcher to gather as much first hand information as possible within a limited timeframe from the local communities' point of view. In addition, many communal socio-cultural values demonstrated

by traditional rural communities are difficult to interpret objectively, unlike questionnaire survey forms.

Like other ethnographic methods, the limited participant observation technique is also not without criticism. Dola (2002) perceived this technique as being too subjective and its validity and final results could be challenged. It is worse when the result is derived from the research being mixed with biased opinions and emotional ideas in the writing process (Bala, 2002). Merriam (1998) however argued that the participant observation technique used in the research process is far more complex than basic daily observation. This is because participant observation for research purposes is conducted with specific purposes based on the research objectives. There are also some concerns or issues related with adaptation of limited participant observation. Not all aspects of life are open to routine observation, so this information is not documented. Therefore, it raises concern, whether during the limited period of participant observation the communities are actually behaving naturally in their everyday circumstances even with the presence of a researcher. Therefore, a preliminary field visit was carried out to expose the researcher to actual phenomena on the ground while opening opportunities for establishment of contact and rapport with key personal in CBRT programmes and other stakeholders in general. Based on the researcher's own experience, establishment of good rapport provided a better chance for both the researcher and the research assistant to carry out the actual fieldwork.

According to David and Sutton (2004), participant observation techniques should begin with the researcher identifying the settlements to be studied, the gatekeepers and the local informants in each settlement selected. These informants are represented by the locals such as CBRT coordinators, heads of villages or key personnel with experience in dealing with local communities such as state tourism officers and local authorities' public relation managers. Limited participant observation technique as adopted in this research required the researcher to spend at least three days (and two nights) living with a foster family in each village being studied. During that time, the researcher observed and recorded all information related with CBRT activities and involved in tourism-related activities with the locals. These include cultural (e.g. traditional events and festivals), agricultural (e.g. working in farms) and

tourism (e.g. jungle trekking and camping) activities. The time allocated for stay in each settlement was short; nevertheless, much vital information needed for this research was gathered and recorded by the researcher.

5.3.7 The Use of Photography

Previously discussed techniques of data collection (questionnaire interview and limited participant observation) should produce information in a more fixed written form, as resulting data and information are transformed into written transcripts (Silverman, 2005). Photography is another important technique in a data collection process whereby photos have been used as evidence in supporting data collection from interview-guided questionnaires and from the limited participant observation and inventory of CBRT resources. Photos helped the researcher to capture CBRT activities and the surrounding environment and cultural resources of the study areas (traditional shows and festival, rivers, mountains, rainforest, and so on) for future research and investigation. Photographs were also used as supporting evidence to signal any further physical changes such as development of new tourism infrastructure (e.g. construction of new roads and buildings).

5.4 PROCEDURE AND METHODOLOGY IN CONDUCTING FIELDWORK AND DATA COLLECTION

There were three crucial stages in conducting the research, namely the pilot study and site visit, followed by the field survey and data analysis, and finally, the SWOT analysis and field-test of proposed indicators. These three stages are summarised in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: Scope and methodology in the fieldwork and data collection process

Step	Scope	Explanation	Methodology
(1) <i>Pilot study and site visit</i>	Formulation of preliminary list of indicators	To construct a base for the study questionnaire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Review of literature (books, journals and reports, etc.)
	Preliminary site visit	Meet heads of villages and local key informants in each village.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Meetings with the village heads and members of the Village Central Committee
		To establish good rapport with CBRT members and the community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Visit to each village and observing resources that related to CBRT
		To identify and to select study cases/villages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Short briefing and discussions with CBRT committee members on issues relating to CBRT programme. ▪ Selection criteria to select study cases (as presented in Section 4.4)
	Pilot Study	Collect information and basic profile of each village	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Collect information from secondary sources including internal circulation, annual reports ▪ Take photographs
		Delphi exercise: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ To test the study questionnaire ▪ To revise the questionnaire (according to the respondents' feedbacks) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Email survey form to every potential expert. ▪ Five experts agreed to participate
(2) <i>Fieldwork and data analysis</i>	Fieldwork and data collection	Survey of local stakeholders: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ To test the study questionnaire ▪ To revise the questionnaire (according to the respondents' feedbacks) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Calculation of sample size ▪ Interview-guided survey using questionnaire. ▪ Five respondents from each village participated
		Delphi exercise: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Twenty experts were identified as respondents of this survey ▪ Closed-ended questions ▪ To select of "important" and "not important" indicators ▪ Follow up phone interview for in-depth information 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Survey form was emailed to every potential expert. ▪ Reminders sent to increase feedbacks via emails and telephone calls
		Survey of local stakeholders: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Profile of respondents ▪ Respondents' perception on surrounding and local tourism development ▪ Respondents' perception on sustainable CBRT indicators 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Survey of local stakeholders using questionnaire: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ (CBRT and non-CBRT participants) ▪ Respondents gathered at the community hall. Door-to-door interviews conducted for respondents who cannot attend the gathering with assistance from RA.

(Continued)

Table 5.6: Continued

Step	Scope	Explanation	Methodology
(2) <i>Fieldwork and data analysis (continued)</i>	Fieldwork and data collection (continued)	To identify resources and existing CBRT products in each village	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Inventory of existing resources (natural, socio-cultural and economy) and CBRT products ▪ Take photographs ▪ Supported by secondary sources (village's annual reports, etc)
		To identify local issues and challenges relating to CBRT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Informal interviews and discussions with key informants, CBRT participants, local entrepreneurs and the non-participants
	Extended fieldwork and stakeholders' meeting	Follow up survey and interview with the experts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Six experts participated in survey through email ▪ Five experts participated in phone interview
		To gather their comments on assessment of indicators during the previous Delphi exercise	
		To present some of the preliminary results from previous fieldwork	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Meeting with local stakeholders in each village
	To gather input especially on current progress of CBRT		
	To conduct an extended field survey: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ranking of indicators 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Survey of local stakeholders using questionnaire ▪ Send questionnaires to the experts via emails 	
(3) <i>SWOT analysis and field test of indicators</i>	Synthesis and Emerging Context	To produce a final set of indicators: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ List of indicators which agreed only by the experts ▪ List of indicators which agreed only by the local stakeholders ▪ List of indicators with consensus among experts and local stakeholders 	Index score approach
		To assess the strengths and weaknesses of the three villages, as well as the opportunities and threats, in relation to improving understanding about the key factors in developing, applying and sustaining CBRT programmes in future	SWOT analysis
	Conducting a series of field test to assess uptake of sustainability practices using proposed indicators	To test the applicability and suitability of each indicator in the field To assess uptake of sustainability practices of CBRT program in three villages	Survey using questionnaire to local stakeholders of the three villages (50 respondents were interviewed) Index score approach

Source: Author (2009; 2010 and 2013)

Stage 1: Pilot study and site visit

- ◆ Prior to preliminary site visits, a set of criteria for selection of case studies i.e. CBRT sites or villages are adopted for the research and data collection process. As presented in Figure 5.1, three villages are selected for detail studies i.e. Kuala Medang village in Pahang state; Teluk Ketapang village in Terengganu state; and Seterpa village in Kelantan state.

- ◆ This stage sets up the foundation for this research by producing a long list of potential indicators for sustainable CBRT through review of literature from various sources. At this stage, 67 potential indicators are identified and grouped according to eight criteria namely:
 - i. Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality
 - ii. Local communities' well-being
 - iii. Community participation in sustainable CBRT development
 - iv. Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values
 - v. Visitors' safety
 - vi. Consumer / tourist satisfaction
 - vii. Economic benefits to the local communities and sustainable CBRT participants
 - viii. Sustainable CBRT planning and management

- ◆ Conduct series of preliminary site visits to potential villages. Preliminary field visits were carried out to expose the researcher to actual phenomena on the ground as well as opening opportunities to establish contacts and rapport with key personnel in CBRT programmes and other stakeholders in general. Information on the village development in general and the local CBRT programme in particular, were also collected through secondary sources (brochure, internal reports, etc), field observation and photographs of surrounding resources and CBRT products.

- ◆ A month after the preliminary site visit, a pilot study is conducted on five experts (for the Delphi method) and five respondents for each village to test the questionnaires respectively. Respondents were asked to evaluate each indicator by indicating

“important” or “not important”, and state the reasons for their selections. Indicators which were selected by >50% of respondents are confirmed as “important” and later used to construct a revised list of indicators. Feedbacks and suggestions from the pilot study have been used to revise and improve the study questionnaire.

Stage 2: Fieldwork and data analysis

- ◆ The survey questionnaires (as revised based on the pilot survey results) are distributed to two groups of respondents; that is, 20 experts (consisting of academics, government officers, tourism consultants and NGOs) and a total of 85 respondents in three settlements as identified in Figure 5.5. Both groups are asked to rank the indicators according to the Likert Scale from (1= not important to 5= very important). The aim of this process (ranking the indicators) is to take into account the aspirations and opinions of both experts and stakeholders by providing wider chances for participation in the process of indicator development.
- ◆ Concurrent with the questionnaire survey, a series of inventory of resources and products of CBRT is established including the natural resources, socio-culture and economy resources through field observation. Photographs of the activities and products also captured images and information as supporting evidences. The inventory tables are presented in Chapter 4. Fieldwork also included the identification of local issues and challenges related to CBRT including organisational issues, leadership, entrepreneurships, marketing and promotion.
- ◆ Feedback and answers gathered from this process are analysed using frequency analysis to identify consistent (and/or contradictory) answers between experts and local communities. Indicators that consistently rank as “important” by both groups are automatically included in the final list. The indicators that did not reach consensus of the majority (where the two groups have different opinions), are sent back to both experts and local stakeholders during the extended fieldwork and they are asked to re-evaluate and re-consider previous answers based on the feedback given by the stakeholders.

Stage 3: SWOT analysis and field test of indicators

- ◆ In this stage, the final set of indicators is produced from the Delphi exercise and the local stakeholders' survey findings (as illustrated in Chapter 8). The formulation of this list also demonstrated the extent to which both the experts and the local stakeholders managed to reach a certain level of consensus in identifying the indicators, which might be considered in measuring the sustainable CBRT progress in the study areas.

- ◆ A SWOT analysis is carried out to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the study cases as well as the opportunities and threats against improving understanding of the key factors in developing and sustaining sustainable CBRT. The inputs generated from SWOT analysis are also crucial, particularly for the next task, i.e. the pilot test of proposed indicators.

- ◆ The field test of indicators, as mentioned in the introduction chapter and as further discussed in Section 9.2, is important to analyse the applicability and suitability of the indicators proposed by this research in assessing the uptake of sustainability practices in CBRT in three study cases.

5.5 TECHNIQUES IN DATA ANALYSIS

Analysis of data from the Delphi process and surveys of local stakeholders were treated as an ongoing process at the conclusion of each round of survey. Each stage required the researcher to calculate and revise the answers and ratings given by expert panels and local stakeholders. For the interview-guided questionnaire, descriptive statistical tests were employed in analysing the data using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software Version 17.0. For Stage one (production of a revised list of indicators of sustainable CBRT), assessment of each variable involved the use of frequency distribution tables and mean values to identify percentages of choices given by the expert panel for each indicator. At this

stage, deductive analysis was used whereby only indicators selected by over half (>50%) of respondents were considered as “Important” and therefore accepted to be used for the next stage (stage two) of the research (ranking of indicators).

In stage two, respondents both from experts and from local stakeholders were required to identify and rank each indicator based on the Likert Scale, from rating 1 (Not Important) to rating 5 (Very Important). The ranked list of indicators was sorted in descending order of importance based on the index score approach of the overall selection frequency (refer to Section 7.6 for detail discussions). Qualitative input from discussions with the respondents and limited participant observation villagers were also incorporated to support data analysis processes and discussions of results.

For the field test of indicators, the data collected are analysed using an index score approach supported by qualitative input from discussions with the respondents and limited participant observation while conducting the field tests. The respondents were asked to rank a list of indicators which consist of economic, socio-cultural, environmental and institution indicators. Each indicator is given an index value of “1” if answers given by respondents fulfil the proposed answer criteria and “0” if answers did not match proposed answer criteria. The total sum index values of indicators are then classified into three levels of sustainability, namely low sustainability, moderate sustainability and high sustainability. These index values indicate that where the respondents believed that a low proportion of the indicators could be said to have been achieved by the village, then the overall response is shown as indicating low rates of uptake so far, and the village CBRT program is said to have low sustainability (refer to Section 9.2 for detail discussions).

5.6 BARRIERS IN THE DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

The utilisation of mix methods in the data collection processes however, is not without challenges. A few issues or barriers were identified and faced. The following section

will elaborate further on types of data collection barriers and measures taken to overcome the identified barriers.

5.6.1 Barriers at Stages of Data Collection

There were two main barriers encountered during the data collection process namely: slow feedback from experts and lack of understanding among local stakeholders regarding the concept of sustainable development and CBRT.

5.6.1.1 Slow feedback from experts

One of the main barriers during the data collection process was to attain feedback from experts within the given period. As the process of getting and assembling a group of experts can be very time-consuming, preliminary work needed to be carried out as soon as possible. Stage One of the data collection process was carried out (approximately one month before the preliminary site visit), using emails as the means of communication to establish rapport with experts and local CBRT coordinators. Feedback from experts (using the Delphi process) was obtained after sending off the research questionnaire via email, with two weeks (approximately) for the experts to answer and return them. As for local CBRT coordinators, telephone calls were made and formal intention letters posted to inform them about the survey. The process of obtaining feedback from experts showed mixed results, though most experts, especially the academics, responded within the given time. However, responses from government agencies and non-governmental bodies (NGOs) were relatively slow and exceeded the given period.

Based on interviews with the experts, the reason for the slow feedback was because communication via emails (in this research, the questionnaires were sent out as attachments) is not widely used in Malaysia especially in surveys involving government officers. Such officers prefer a conventional approach, that is face-to-face interview. Meanwhile experts from NGOs have commitments to their full-time jobs (working for the NGOs on part-time basis) and therefore have limited time to check emails and participate in the survey.

5.6.1.2 Some confusion on the idea of sustainable CBRT among locals

The local communities or stakeholders gave positive responses during the data collection process. Both CBRT participants and non-participants showed interest in the research and were willing to spend time to answer the questionnaire. There were some concerns on the lack of understanding of the general concept of sustainable development and CBRT by the local communities. In order to address this issue (which can potentially lead to confusion and misunderstanding), initial visits were carried out before the actual survey. The researcher arranged to meet local CBRT committees and participants (on one or two occasions) and explained the general idea of sustainable development and CBRT, and how these concepts fit into the research.

5.6.2 Overcoming the Barriers

Two alternative solutions have been formulated by this research to overcome such barriers including the use of telephone calls and office visits for improving response from experts and the use of visual presentation to describe the background of the research during the meeting with local stakeholders.

5.6.2.1 The use of telephone calls and office visits

In order to overcome the issue of delayed response by the experts, the researcher had prepared an alternative mode of communication to obtain a better response (to act as a safety net in cases where emails could not be delivered or experts were having difficulty accessing their emails). Several reminders via telephone calls and the short messaging system (SMS) were made to the experts informing them about the questionnaire and the value of their input for the research. When communication via emails was not possible, the researcher conducted office visits to the agencies to distribute questionnaires. Most agencies were not ready to answer the survey questions straightaway; however the meetings showed a positive outcome. The researcher was able to benefit from critical discussions and knowledge sharing on the issue of sustainable CBRT and better yet agree with offers on future cooperation. There was no doubt that even with the use of the safety net, the communication barrier with the experts

was still not fully resolved. Having an alternative solution, however, has improved chances for communication, and for obtaining better responses (survey questions returned with the answers).

5.6.2.2 The use of visual presentation

There were initial concerns of lack of understanding about the idea of sustainable CBRT by local communities. Short briefing sessions were conducted before the actual survey took place to address this issue during the data collection process. During the preliminary site visits, briefing sessions were conducted in a more casual manner where the focus was to gather basic information including background of the study areas and explain the purpose of the research. There was evidence of encouraging support from both CBRT committees and local stakeholders towards the research study; however, personal observation revealed that there were still some grey areas (especially lack of understanding on the concept of sustainable CBRT), and especially among locals who were non-participants in CBRT programmes. This situation encouraged the researcher to prepare more interactive briefing sessions. During the second visits, the researcher used visual presentation (using A3 papers to draw conceptual diagrams and charts) (see Photo 5.1) to provide a better explanation of sustainable development and CBRT concepts. Judging from local community responses during feedback sessions, the use of visual aids had improved their understanding of the research.



Photo 5.1: Use of visual presentation during the survey of local stakeholders.

Source: Research Fieldwork in 2009

5.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented, firstly, the approach adopted in identifying and formulating the preliminary list of indicators through reviews of relevant literature. The list was then validated through two rounds of Delphi consensus (refer to Chapter 6 for details). Discussion continued with explanations on the research approaches, including the use of the case study method (multiple-case design), the use of Delphi method to gain information from experts, local community survey and the role of a research assistant (RA) in the data collection process. The subsequent section further described how the research instruments fitted into the overall research scope and context; the fieldwork procedure, that is, the processes and stages involved right from the beginning (formulation of list of indicators); conducting field survey; data analysis; and formulation of the final list of indicators.

The chapter has also demonstrated how quantitative techniques in data collection (use of questionnaires) have been incorporated with qualitative techniques (i.e. interviews, limited participant observation and photography) to increase reliability of data derived from the experts group and local communities and stakeholders. Discussions then further explain data analysis procedures where statistical analysis (e.g. frequency analysis) have been applied to calculate the indicator selection rates in obtaining a revised list and ranking of indicators. Finally, issues and barriers in the data collection process have been identified and explained. The issues are mainly experts failing to respond within the time given and the lack of understanding of sustainable development and sustainable CBRT by local communities. The researcher took the necessary action to address these issues (such as continuing communication with the experts through telephone calls and office visits, and conducting briefing sessions accompanied with visual aids with local stakeholders) to ensure that the aim and objectives of the data collection process were achieved as far as possible.

CHAPTER 6

ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS: DELPHI CONSENSUS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses and presents the findings of the Delphi exercise in relation to selecting and formulating an agreed set of indicators of sustainable CBRT and their ranks based on priorities. The analysis and presentation of results have been divided into three sections as follows:

- i. Review of the procedures in conducting the survey of experts and general description of the experts' panel.
- ii. Discussion of the Delphi consensus analysis (Stage One results) that is the selection of priority criteria and indicators of sustainable CBRT.
- iii. Discussion of the Delphi consensus analysis (Stage Two results) that is the ranking of indicators of sustainable CBRT.

The chapter will also include a section (Section 6.5) of discussion of findings and highlighted on how the outcomes of the Delphi exercise (a set of priority indicators) could be put together with the outcome from the survey of local stakeholders in the subsequent chapter.

6.2 PROCEDURE IN CONDUCTING DELPHI EXERCISE

This section will review the procedure in conducting the Delphi exercise including the selection of experts' panel, distribution of survey questionnaire and stages of Delphi exercise. These are presented in Figure 6.1. Detailed explanations on research methodology and the procedure of the Delphi method in developing and validating the agreed set of sustainable CBRT indicators have been discussed in Section 5.3.2 (or refer to Figure 5.2).

6.2.1 Selection of Experts' Panel

Participation was solicited from key stakeholders who are active in this area. These include academics, government agencies officers who are engaged in tourism and sustainable CBRT work in particular, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and consultants in the field of tourism in order to draw upon a cross-section of expertise within the subject area.

The selection of experts for this research has been carried out based on the following criteria:

1. Practitioners with extensive working experience in the tourism industry in Malaysia.
2. Experts currently or recently directly involved in the management of tourism projects in the study area.
3. Experts with extensive knowledge of sustainable tourism development, sustainable CBRT and development of sustainability criteria indicators.

Based on the above selection criteria, this research has utilised a directory of academic profiles developed by Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia, and information from Tourism Planning Research Group (TPRG), Universiti Teknologi Malaysia to identify and select potential academics. The federal government staff directory has been used to identify government agencies, local authorities and potential officers who directly involved in tourism and sustainable CBRT programs and authority for sustainable CBRT programs in the study area. Experts from Non-Governmental Organisations

(NGOs) have been identified by accessing the official NGOs website of Malaysia. The task of assembling potential experts' panel was done in the UK from the beginning of August 2009 until end of October 2009. Despite some issues related with delayed response from experts and their willingness to participate in the Delphi process, and drop-out of experts during the survey period, in Stage One twenty (20) experts were involved in the Delphi process (refer to **Appendix 1** for the list of experts).

6.2.2 Questionnaire Distribution

The main technique in data collection used in this research was questionnaire survey. Questionnaires were distributed via experts' email account (60%) and by post (40%). Both techniques were used based on respondents' requests and preferences. Some of them preferred to answer the questionnaires online, while others, especially those who have issues with access to the internet, the questionnaires were sent in printed versions via post.

6.2.3 Developing and Validating the Agreed Set of Indicators

6.2.3.1 Stage One: Round 1

As discussed in Section 5.5.1.1, Round 1 of the Delphi exercise began with a set of "closed" questions. During this round, each respondent was invited to assess indicators by ticking boxes as "important" or "not important", and add any comments of their selections. The respondents were also invited to suggest any additional indicators. As mentioned in the previous section, twenty (20) experts agreed to participate in Stage One of the Delphi exercise. All issues related to selection of experts, development of survey questionnaire, distribution of questionnaires, attaining experts' responses and follow up procedures have been discussed in detail in Section 5.3.2.

6.2.3.2 Stage One: Round 2

As discussed in Section 5.3.2.4, Round 2 questionnaire was formulated based on the results and findings of Round 1 i.e. selection of "important indicators" identified by respondents from the previous round. Based on literature review on the application of Delphi method (Section 5.3.2.1), the main purpose of subsequent round (Round 2) was to give the experts the opportunity to reconsider the answers they provided in the

previous round. This process is to address the issue of “consensus of the majority” indicators; the indicators for which there was no clear determination of whether or not they should be included. In this light, the issue of “consensus of the majority” indicators were the “test subject” as to assess the extent to which the experts (and the Delphi exercise itself) can achieve a certain level of consensus or agreement in determining the final status of indicators, which should be included in the agreed set of sustainable CBRT indicators.

Twenty (20) responses (the same number as in Round 1) were received at the end of Round 2, with no new indicators suggested by experts in this round. As presented in Section 6.4.2.2, the results of Round 2 have been analysed, discussed and presented and constitute an agreed list of indicators of sustainable CBRT.

6.2.4 Ranking the Agreed Set of Criteria and Indicators

6.2.4.1 Stage Two

Experts were invited to indicate the level of importance of indicators by ranking each indicator using the 5-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 denoting “not important” to 5 denoting “very important”. Only eleven responses were received in Stage Two. The reasons for this significant decline include respondents’ inability to maintain constant communication via email (problems with email inbox, email reply system, not alert with email send, etc.) and respondents’ inability to cope with the study’s long-term commitment (which could lead to their delayed response). Again, issues related to the development of the Stage Two questionnaire, sending out questionnaire, attaining experts’ responses within the time given and follow up procedures have been discussed in detail in Section 5.3.2.

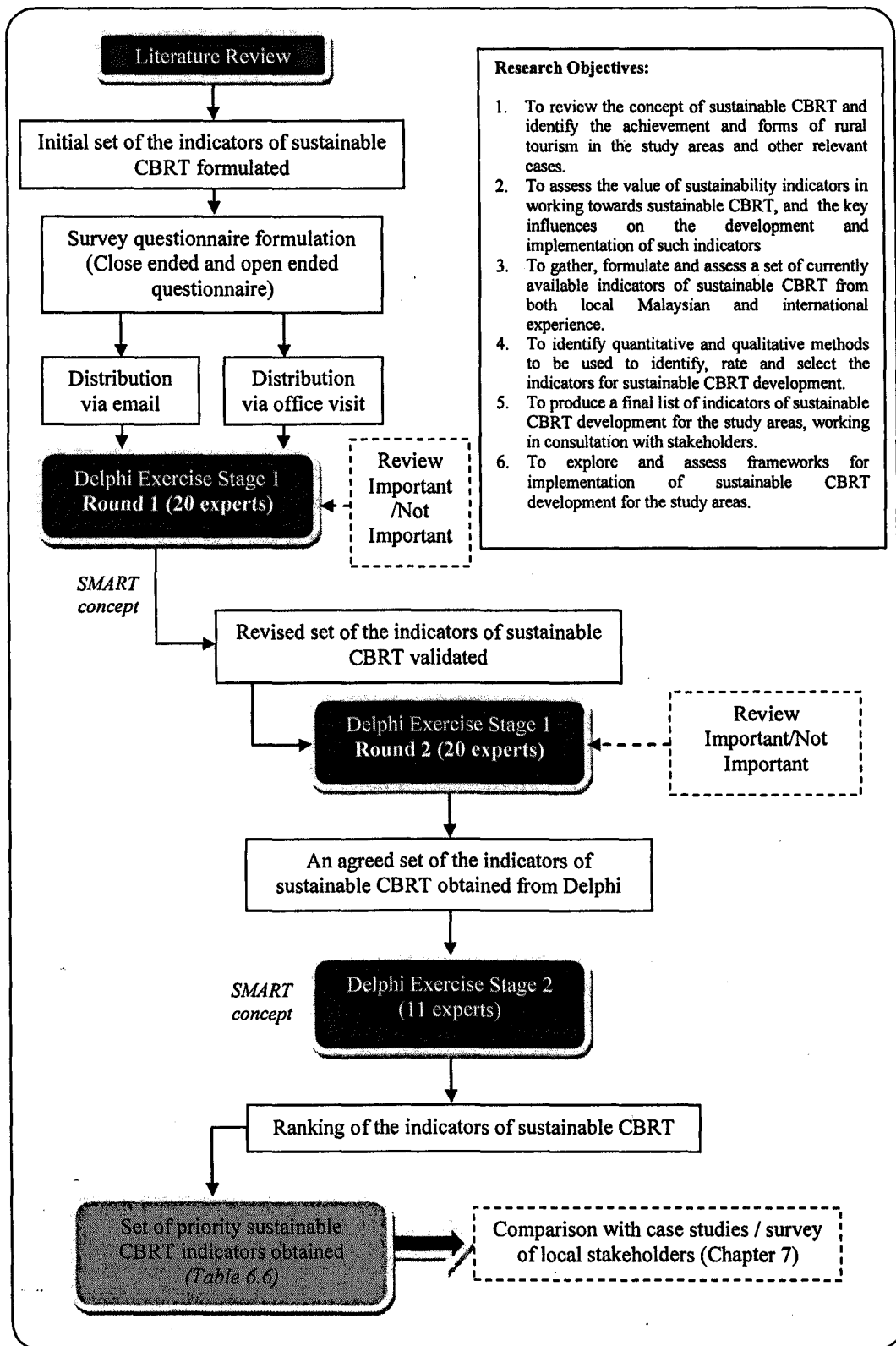


Figure 6.1: Towards achieving research objectives 4 and 5. Source: Author (2010)

6.3 GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF EXPERTS' PANEL

The following section describes the background information of experts' panel including (1) the institutional categories and gender; (2) age; and (3) working experience.

6.3.1 Institutional Categories and Gender of Respondents

For the Stage One, twenty experts were answered the questionnaire (after contacted via email and telephone survey), that is 15 male (75%) and 5 female (25%) experts. Overall, the proportion between male and female respondents is 3:1 in all categories, except for tourism consultants, which there was no female representation (Table 6.1). The reasons for the absent of female representative from the tourism consultant category is because firstly, based on information given by the TPRG and the websites, there were only a small number of female executives in tourism consulting firms. This issue had been confirmed by one of the panel and secondly, from the limited potential candidates, all of them have declined the invitation to take part in the Delphi exercise due to their tight schedule and work commitments.

Table 6.1: Distribution of experts by institutional categories and gender (n=20)

Institutional category	Total	%	Male		Female	
			Num.	%	Num.	%
Educational/Academics	7	35	4	20	3	15
Government Agencies	8	40	7	35	1	5
Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs)	3	15	2	10	1	5
Tourism Consultant	2	10	2	10	0	0
Total	20	100	15	75	5	25

Source: Research Fieldwork in 2010

As presented in Table 6.1, the largest group of respondents was made up of officers from government agencies (8 persons, or 40%), followed by academics from local universities (7 persons, or 35%). There were also three respondents (15%) from NGOs

and the smallest group of respondents is made up by tourism consultants (2 persons, or 10%).

6.3.2 Age of Respondents

As presented in Figure 6.2, the largest age cohort of respondents is 45 to 49 years (45%), followed by 50 to 54 years (25%) and 40 to 44 years (15%). The smallest age group is made up of respondents within the age ranges 30 to 34 years (10%) and over 55 years (5%). Essentially, the figure has indirectly indicated that the largest share of respondents was formulated by a group of experienced senior officers.

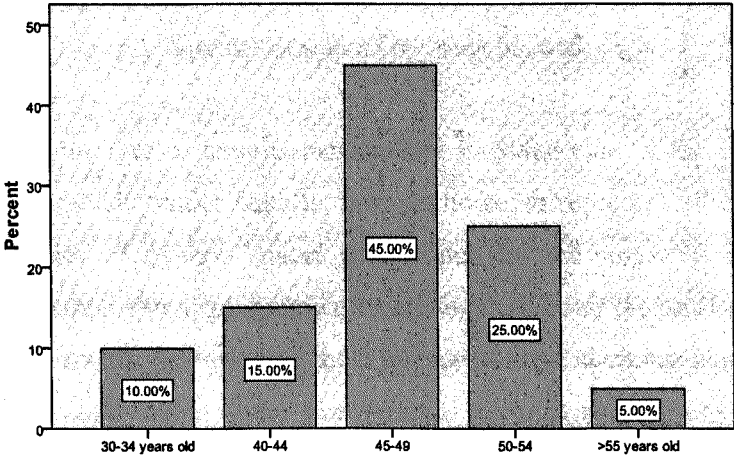


Figure 6.2: Respondents' age distribution (n=20). Source: Research Fieldwork in 2010

6.3.3 Respondents' Working Experience

The survey results indicated that the majority of respondents (85%) have at least 16 years of working experience (Figure 6.3). The largest group within this category were respondents with working experience between 16 to 20 years and between 26 to 30 years with 30% respectively, followed by 25% respondents with 21 to 25 years of working experience. Meanwhile, respondents with 15 years or less of working experience were divided into two categories i.e. 11 to 15 years experience (10%) and 6 to 10 years (5%). This finding is in line with the selection criterion for experts in Section 6.2.1, i.e. having extensive working experience.

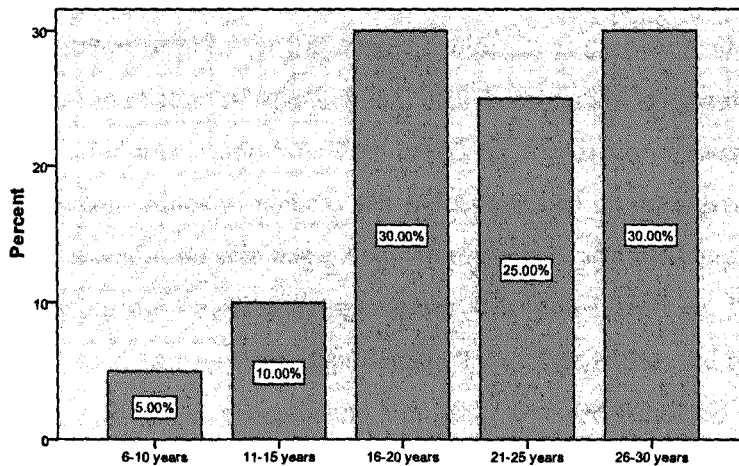


Figure 6.3: Respondents' working experience (n=20).

Source: Research Fieldwork in 2010

Even though the number of experts participated in Stage One of the Delphi process might not represent the gender equally, they do however represent all four major and essential categories of experts' panel as outlined by the research methodological chapter that is academicians, government officials, NGOs and the tourism consultants. Selection of experts also represented those with extensive working experience in the field of tourism and others who are related to tourism whereby almost 85% respondents with more than 15 years of working experience which in turn might contribute useful insights to this research.

6.4 DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The following sections will present the discussions of the indicators selected by experts' panel through two rounds of Delphi exercise, followed by discussions of the experts' ranking of indicators.

6.4.1 Selecting the Sustainable CBRT Indicators

6.4.1.1 Stage One: Round 1

In Round 1 (Stage One) that is production of an agreed list of indicators of sustainable CBRT, the experts panel was advised to refer to the SMART concept (Simple-

Measurable-Accessible-Relevant-Timely) as mentioned in Section 3.3.2. The list of criteria and indicators applied for this stage (Table 6.2) as derived from the preliminary set of criteria and indicators of sustainable CBRT is presented in Chapter 5 (Table 5.2). Further analysis for this round was also based on the use of frequency distribution tables and the mean values to identify the percentages of choices given by the expert panel for each indicator. At this stage, deductive analysis was used such that only those indicators selected by >50% of respondents was considered as “Important” and therefore, were used for the next stage (Stage Two) that is the ranking of indicators. The findings from the 20 experts, Round 1 of Stage One are presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Assessment of indicators (list of criteria and indicators obtained from the literature review in Table 5.1) (n = 20)

List of Criteria and Indicators	Assessed as Important by % of experts	>50%
CRITERION 1: Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality		
INDICATOR		
1. Maintain the environmental carrying capacity	65	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
2. Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
3. Management of household and tourism waste	85	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
4. Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials	65	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
5. Environmental impact assessment appraisal in sustainable CBRT programs	40	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Changes in environmental quality (water and air)	70	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
7. Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour	55	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
CRITERION 2: Local communities' well-being		
INDICATOR		
8. Access to local amenities	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
9. Population trends and stability	35	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Housing quality for sustainable CBRT /Homestay participants	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
11. Report or feedback on crime rate	15	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Anti-social related stress /vandalism	15	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Education of local communities	95	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
14. Communities' health status	60	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
15. Local share in the use and enjoy the sustainable CBRT activities	80	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
16. Presence of indigenous / minority groups in sustainable CBRT	70	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

(Continued)

Table 6.2: Continued.

List of Criteria and Indicators	Assessed as Important by % of experts	>50%
CRITERION 3: Community participation in sustainable CBRT development		
INDICATOR		
17. Local control over sustainable CBRT development	30	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
18. Operation of tourism businesses by locals and their contribution to the locals' well-being	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
19. Equitable distribution of benefits in all supply chains	50	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Financial incentives for local people to participate in tourism sector	25	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
21. Improvement of local human capital	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
22. Community acceptance over sustainable CBRT programmes (including non-participants)	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
23. Involvement of women, youth and minority groups	50	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Local community ownership over programme	95	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
25. Local understanding / awareness of CBRT issues	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
CRITERION 4: Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values		
INDICATOR		
26. Respect towards land and property right of local hosts	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
27. Encouragement of the continuity of traditional skills	80	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
28. Local attitude towards cultural change	35	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
29. Ability of local communities to maintain native language	25	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
30. Use of local resources/ materials for handicraft production	60	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
31. Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
32. Conservation of local architecture identity	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
33. Establishment of education and training programmes	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
34. Promotion of local culture, events and history in SCBRT development	95	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
CRITERION 5: Visitors' safety		
INDICATOR		
35. Provision of medical facilities in sustainable CBRT programs	30	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
36. Capability of sustainable CBRT programs in conducting 'search and rescue' for visitors	60	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
37. Complaint/feedback on visitors' safety	60	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
38. Standard of environmental hygiene	60	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
39. Availability of safety notice and publication	75	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
40. Feedback on tourism-related accident in sustainable CBRT programs	35	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
41. Capability of sustainable CBRT in prevention of infectious diseases	65	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
42. Education for tourists to learn local desirable and acceptable behaviour	55	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

(Continued)

Table 6.2: Continued.

List of Criteria and Indicators	Assessed as Important by % of experts	>50%
CRITERION 6: Consumer / Tourist satisfaction		
INDICATOR		
43. Quality of facilities, services and activities	80	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
44. Willingness to return as repeating tourist	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
45. Expenditure by tourists	85	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
46. Number of complaints / suggestions by tourists	35	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
47. Tourists' satisfaction of the overall tourism experience	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
48. Improvement in tourists' understanding and knowledge about other cultures, communities and environment	60	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
CRITERION 7: Economic benefits to the local communities and CBRT participant		
INDICATOR		
49. Diversification of tourism activities and products	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
50. Provision of funding for training, marketing and product development	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
51. Economic performance – improvement of average earnings	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
52. Local employment in sustainable CBRT programmes	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
53. Investment in SCBRT projects (government and private investors)	75	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
54. Domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors	85	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
55. Impact on domestic prices (services and products)	45	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
CRITERION 8: Sustainable CBRT planning and management		
INDICATOR		
56. Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas	85	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
57. Land use planning for sustainable CBRT and their surrounding areas	95	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
58. Partnership in sustainable CBRT planning and management process	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
59. Development control in sustainable CBRT projects	75	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
60. Improvement of local transportation quality and services	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
61. Practice of sustainable design in projects	80	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
62. Provision of planning and management of sustainable CBRT	80	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
63. Management plan for sustainable CBRT changing hotspots	55	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
64. Overuse of sustainable CBRT infrastructure	45	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

Note: Important Not important "Did not reach consensus of the majority" (experts equally split their answers)

Source: Research Fieldwork in 2010

The findings from the data analysis indicated of two categories of answers. The first category is an agreed list of indicators (which indicated >50% of respondents have

agreed either particular indicator is “important” or “not important”). The second category is the indicator, which “did not reach consensus of the majority” (where the research defined a consensus of the majority as 75%+ threshold). In this case, the respondents gave equal percentages in selection that is “50% agree the indicator is important and 50% do not agree that the indicator is important. As presented in Table 6.2, from the 64 indicators listed in the questionnaire, the experts have assessed 49 indicators (76.6%) as “Important”, 13 indicators (20.3%) considered as “Not important” and two indicators (3.1%) were being considered as “not reaching a consensus of the majority”.

As Landeta (2006: 468) explains, the Delphi method is a social research technique, which aims to gather consensus of a group of experts who can contribute in solving complex problems. In this case, the formulation of an agreed list of sustainability indicators is the “problem” for this research. In order to achieve “consensus”, the results from Round 1 (in a form of summary table of round 1 results) were presented to each expert during the next round of the Delphi exercise to give the experts the opportunity to reconsider their responses during the first round.

6.4.2.2 Stage One: Round 2

Based on Round 1 results (refer Table 6.2), the experts’ panel was again invited to take part in Round 2 of selecting a set of indicators of the Delphi exercise. Again, the SMART concept was used by the experts’ panel to identify and select potential indicators. By the end of Round 2, 100% response (from twenty respondents) was attained and there were no significant changes of answers especially for indicators which already agreed among respondents during previous round (most of the experts maintained their previous answers or choices of indicators). However, some changes were made with regards of two indicators that did not reach a consensus of the majority. Based on analysis of the experts’ responses, both indicators are finally included into the deductive analysis with indicator “Equitable distribution of benefits in all supply chains” was considered “not important” by 70% respondents, whereas indicator “Involvement of women, youth and minority groups” was considered as “important” by 75% respondents. The results and presentation of the list of indicators from Round 2 of Delphi exercise (Stage One) are shown in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Assessment of indicators (based on results obtained from Round 2 of the Stage One of the Delphi exercise, n = 20)

List of Criteria and Indicators	Assessed as Important by % of experts	>50%
ENVIRONMENT CRITERION 1: Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality		
INDICATOR		
1. Maintain the environmental carrying capacity	65	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
2. Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
3. Management of household and tourism waste	85	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
4. Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials	65	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
5. Environmental impact assessment appraisal in sustainable CBRT programs	40	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
6. Changes in environmental quality (water and air)	70	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
7. Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour	55	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
SOCIAL CRITERION 2: Local communities' well-being		
INDICATOR		
8. Access to local amenities	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
9. Population trends and stability	35	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
10. Housing quality for sustainable CBRT /Homestay participants	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
11. Report or feedback on crime rate	15	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
12. Anti-social related stress /vandalism	15	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
13. Education of local communities	95	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
14. Communities' health status	40	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
15. Local share in the use and enjoy the sustainable CBRT activities	80	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
16. Presence of indigenous / minority groups in sustainable CBRT	70	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
SOCIAL CRITERION 3: Community participation in sustainable CBRT development		
INDICATOR		
17. Local control over sustainable CBRT development	30	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
18. Operation of tourism businesses by locals and their contribution to the locals' well-being	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
19. Equitable distribution of benefits in all supply chains	30	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
20. Financial incentives for local people to participate in tourism sector	25	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
21. Improvement of local human capital	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

(Continued)

Table 6.3: Continued.

List of Criteria and Indicators	Assessed as Important by % of experts	>50%
SOCIAL CRITERION 3: Community participation in sustainable CBRT development		
INDICATOR		
22. Community acceptance over sustainable CBRT programmes (including non-participants)	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
23. Involvement of women, youth and minority groups	75	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
24. Local community ownership over programme	95	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
25. Local understanding / awareness of CBRT issues	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
 SOCIAL CRITERION 4: Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values		
INDICATOR		
26. Respect towards land and property right of local hosts	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
27. Encouragement of the continuity of traditional skills	80	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
28. Local attitude towards cultural change	35	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
29. Ability of local communities to maintain native language	25	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
30. Use of local resources/ materials for handicraft production	60	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
31. Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
32. Conservation of local architecture identity	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
33. Establishment of education and training programmes	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
34. Promotion of local culture, events and history in sustainable CBRT development	95	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
 SOCIAL CRITERION 5: Visitors' safety		
INDICATOR		
35. Provision of medical facilities in sustainable CBRT programs	30	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
36. Capability of sustainable CBRT programs in conducting 'search and rescue' for visitors	60	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
37. Complaint/feedback on visitors' safety	60	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
38. Standard of environmental hygiene	60	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
39. Availability of safety notice and publication	75	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
40. Feedback on tourism-related accident in sustainable CBRT programs	35	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
41. Capability of sustainable CBRT in prevention of infectious diseases	65	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
42. Education for tourists to learn local desirable and acceptable behaviour	45	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

(Continued)

Table 6.3: Continued.

List of Criteria and Indicators	Assessed as Important by % of experts	>50%
SOCIAL CRITERION 6: Consumer / Tourist satisfaction		
INDICATOR		
43. Quality of facilities, services and activities	80	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
44. Willingness to return as repeating tourist	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
45. Expenditure by tourists	85	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
46. Number of complaints / suggestions by tourists	35	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
47. Tourists' satisfaction of the overall tourism experience	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
48. Improvement in tourists' understanding and knowledge about other cultures, communities and environment	60	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
ECONOMY CRITERION 7: Economic benefits to the local communities and CBRT participant		
INDICATOR		
49. Diversification of tourism activities and products	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
50. Provision of funding for training, marketing and product development	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
51. Economic performance – improvement of average earnings	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
52. Local employment in sustainable CBRT programmes	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
53. Investment in SCBRT projects (government and private investors)	75	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
54. Domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors	85	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
55. Impact on domestic prices (services and products)	45	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
INSTITUTION CRITERION 8: Sustainable CBRT planning and management		
INDICATOR		
56. Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas	85	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
57. Land use planning for sustainable CBRT and their surrounding areas	95	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
58. Partnership in sustainable CBRT planning and management process	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
59. Development control in sustainable CBRT projects	75	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
60. Improvement of local transportation quality and services	100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
61. Practice of sustainable design in projects	80	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
62. Provision of planning and management of sustainable CBRT	45	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
63. Management plan for sustainable CBRT changing hotspots	55	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
64. Overuse of sustainable CBRT infrastructure	45	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

Note: Important Not important

Source: Research Fieldwork in 2010

Overall analysis on 64 indicators from the first round, 47 indicators (73.4%) were considered as “important” and 17 indicators (26.6%) were identified as “not important” and therefore excluded from the final set of agreed list of sustainable CBRT indicators (Table 6.4).

Table 6.4: Summary of the list of important indicators from Stage One: round 2

List of Criteria and Indicators

ENVIRONMENT CRITERION 1: Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality

INDICATOR

1. Maintain the environmental carrying capacity
2. Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity
3. Management of household and tourism waste
4. Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials
5. Changes in environmental quality (water and air)
6. Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour

SOCIAL CRITERION 2: Local communities’ well-being

INDICATOR

7. Access to local amenities
8. Housing quality for sustainable CBRT /Home stay participants
9. Education of local communities
10. Local share in the use and enjoy the sustainable CBRT activities
11. Presence of indigenous / minority groups in sustainable CBRT

SOCIAL CRITERION 3: Community participation in sustainable CBRT development

INDICATOR

12. Operation of tourism businesses by locals and their contribution to the locals’ well-being
13. Improvement of local human capital
14. Community acceptance over sustainable CBRT programmes (including non-participants)
15. Involvement of women, youth and minority groups
16. Local community ownership over programme
17. Local understanding / awareness of CBRT issues

SOCIAL CRITERION 4: Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values

INDICATOR

18. Respect towards land and property right of local hosts
 19. Encouragement of the continuity of traditional skills
 20. Use of local resources/ materials for handicraft production
 21. Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion
 22. Conservation of local architecture identity
 23. Establishment of education and training programmes
 24. Promotion of local culture, events and history in sustainable CBRT development
-

(Continued)

Table 6.4: Continued.

List of Criteria and Indicators

SOCIAL CRITERION 5: Visitors' safety

INDICATOR

25. Capability of SCBRT programs in conducting search and rescue for visitors
26. Complaint/feedback on visitors' safety
27. Standard of environmental hygiene
28. Availability of safety notice and publication
29. Capability of sustainable CBRT in prevention of infectious diseases

SOCIAL CRITERION 6: Consumer / Tourist satisfaction

INDICATOR

30. Quality of facilities, services and activities
31. Willingness to return as repeating tourist
32. Expenditure by tourists
33. Tourists' satisfaction of the overall tourism experience
34. Improvement in tourists' understanding and knowledge about other cultures, communities and environment

ECONOMY CRITERION 7: Economic benefits to the local communities and CBRT participant

INDICATOR

35. Diversification of tourism activities and products
36. Provision of funding for training, marketing and product development
37. Economic performance – improvement of average earnings
38. Local employment in sustainable CBRT programmes
39. Investment in sustainable CBRT projects (government and private investors)
40. Domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors

INSTITUTION CRITERION 8: Sustainable CBRT planning and management

INDICATOR

41. Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas
 42. Land use planning for sustainable CBRT and their surrounding areas
 43. Partnership in sustainable CBRT planning and management process
 44. Development control in sustainable CBRT projects
 45. Improvement of local transportation quality and services
 46. Practice of sustainable design in projects
 47. Management plan for sustainable CBRT changing hotspots
-

Source: Research Fieldwork in 2010

The responses were further analysed to identify the reasons for the experts to exclude certain indicators from the list of important indicators. The main reasons are as follows:

1. Some indicators are highly subjective, or the scope/meaning is too wide and this research could possibly end-up with collecting data that not related with CBRT. For instance, the influence of tourism on “report or feedback on anti-social related stress/vandalism” and “report or feedback on crime rate” indicators is very difficult to determine. In other words, vandalism and other forms of crime could happen in CBRT sites, or it could happen anywhere else, including the non-tourism sites (which suggest that these incidents are not entirely influenced by tourism). Other example of indicators, including “changes in domestic prices”, were noted by many experts as not solely influenced by local tourism programmes rather than driven by external factors such as rise in transportation costs (toll, petrol and labour cost raising) and rise of prices on goods due to global market, etc.
2. Some indicators, for instance, “environmental impact assessment appraisal in sustainable CBRT programme” and “overuse of sustainable CBRT infrastructures” indicators are not very significant to be used specifically to measure small-scale tourism activities (in this case, CBRT is characterised as small-scale activities and operated by the local people).
3. Some indicators, for instance, “feedback on tourism-related accidents in sustainable CBRT programme”, is not directly applicable with regard to the local context because any accident will be directly referred to the local clinic or to the nearest hospital for further actions.
4. Some indicators are considered not relevant for developing sustainable CBRT, for example, the “communities’ health status” and “population trends and stability”. Therefore, they have been excluded from the discussion.

6.4.2 Stage Two: Ranking the Sustainable CBRT Indicators

Data analysis using index score involved evaluation and ranking of 47 important indicators by the experts' panel (as presented in Table 6.4). All eleven experts/respondents were asked to answer a questionnaire, which has been sending via email, by the researcher. The selections of answers in the questionnaire are based on Likert scale with the range from 1 to 5 (Table 6.5). The range is determined based on thorough consideration by the researcher in order to achieve the research objectives.

Table 6.5: Description of the *Likert scale* range and score value

Likert scale	Description	Score value (identified during data analysis stage)
1	Not important	1
2	Minimal important	2
3	Slightly important	2
4	Moderate importance	2
5	Very important	3

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

The determination of index score values for each scale or category of answers is formulated during the later stage of data collection that is before data analysis process. This time gap in determining index score values and respondents answer categories was to allow researcher to review the after-fieldwork information including the respondents' feedback and personal observation before deciding on index score values for every answer category. Prior to data analysis process, the study has decided to implement three ranges of index scores in ranking of indicators. Based on the questionnaire feedbacks, some of respondents indicated that they faced some difficulties selecting scale 2 (minimal important), 3 (slightly important) and 4 (moderate important) as their answers. They were unable to distinct the difference between an indicator being minimally important, slightly important or moderately important (Research fieldwork in 2010). Hence, their answers did not really represent their opinion in determining the level of importance of some indicators. To address this issue, these three (3) scales i.e. scale 2, 3 and 4 are given an equal index value of 2. Scale 1 (Not important) and 5 (Very important) are given index value of 1 and 3 respectively, as these choices are easier to determine.

This study has also applied Likert scale approach to create indexes. Scale and indexes according to Neuman (2011: 230) “could improve reliability and validity” in selecting and ranking of measures or indicators. An index uses multiple indicators, which improved reliability. The use of multiple indicators that measures several aspects of a construct or opinion improves content validity. Finally, the index scores give more precise quantitative measures of one’s opinion. For example, we can measure a person’s opinion with a number from 10 to 40 instead of in four categories: “strongly agree”, “agree”, “disagree”, “strongly disagree”.

During the Delphi exercise, the experts/respondents were asked to assess and rank 47 indicators for sustainable CBRT based on the SMART concept (previously explained in Chapter 3). It is expected that the indicators ranked as “very important” to meet all criteria of SMART concept i.e. simple and represent what it measured, accessibility of data and information, relevant to describe issues and indicators that can show trends over time. Each answer is scored using index values as illustrated in Table 6.5.

A series of follow up survey were undertaken from March until June 2013 involving six experts, i.e. similar experts that participated during the Stage Two of the Delphi exercise conducted back in year 2010. The researcher have chosen interview via telephone as data collection method however, only four experts agreed to participate. Circumstantially, the researcher then sent the interview questions via email to the remaining experts (7 out of 11 from Stage Two Delphi Exercise) and only two answered and returned the answer forms (refer to **Appendix 1**). For each approach, previous results of the proposed indicators from data analysis in 2010 were attached for further considerations and references. The main purpose for this follow up survey is to gather responses and detail feedbacks from experts regarding to the list of indicators that previously evaluated by them (their evaluation based on SMART concept) and identification of possible obstacles for indicators’ implementation in future.

6.5 Result of Respondents' Rank of Environment Indicators

As presented in Table 6.6, there are six indicators for this category, which could provide measurement for evaluating CBRT environment status.

Table 6.6: Index analysis of environment indicators calculated from responses by experts in stage two (n = 11)

Criteria	Environmental Indicators	Experts' rank of indicators (n=11)					Total score value (per indicator)
		Score value=1	Score value=2			Score value=3	
		Not important	Slightly important	Minimal importance	Moderate Importance	Very important	
C-1: Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality	1. Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity	0	0	0	2	30	32
	2. Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour	0	0	0	6	24	30
	3. Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials	0	0	0	16	9	25
	4. Management of household and tourism waste	0	0	4	12	9	25
	5. Maintain the environmental carrying capacity	0	0	4	14	6	24
	6. Changes in environmental quality (water and air)	0	10	10	2	0	22
Total score value for C-1		0	10	18	52	78	158
<p>Scoring: For all items, Not important = 1, Slightly important & Minimal importance & Important = 2, Very important = 3.</p> <p>Highest Possible Index Score per indicator: 3*11 = 33, experts ranked the indicator as highly importance / priority for sustainable CBRT program.</p> <p>Lowest Possible Index Score per indicator: 1*11 = 11, experts ranked the indicator as not important for sustainable CBRT program.</p>							

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

Table 6.7: Analysis of environment indicators

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents' feedback
C-1: Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality	1. Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ Concern: relevant information must be available and accessible for local stakeholders to use it.
	2. Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour (RTB)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ RTB is an important and relevant indicator for CBRT program considering CBRT sites normally received tourists from different culture/nations. ▪ Using feedback form is one of simple and understandable data collection method. Data collected can be used to establish trends over time.
	3. Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Could be an important indicator for CBRT program. ▪ Might not be in urgent need for implementation due to many obstacles such as relevant data, local host's knowledge in dealing with this issue. ▪ Might be relevant for special cases.
	4. Management of household and tourism waste	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important and relevant for CBRT. ▪ Concern: relevant information must be available and accessible for local stakeholders to use it.
	5. Maintain the environmental carrying capacity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ A relevant indicator but might not in urgent need especially for CBRT sites which at the preliminary stage of development.
	6. Changes in environmental quality (water and air)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Could be an important indicator but local hosts should have access to relevant information. ▪ Need special guidance to measure environmental quality – might not in urgent need for implementation.

Source: Extended research fieldwork in 2013

All experts have evaluated and ranked indicators for this category as “important”. However, majority of the experts (7 out of 11 experts) shared a common concern that is; the availability and accessibility to data and information that are needed by local host in using the indicators for measurement process. During the follow-up survey, four experts (interviewed via telephone) revealed that they are concerned on the readiness of local hosts in applying certain indicators for instance, management of hazardous materials, managing local carrying capacity and identifying changes in environment quality. They suggested that the local hosts of CBRT might require thorough knowledge, skills and training before they could apply these indicators.

6.6 Result of Respondents' Rank of Socio-Cultural Indicators

As presented in Table 6.8, there are 28 indicators for this category, which could provide measurement for evaluating CBRT socio-cultural status.

Table 6.8: Index analysis of socio-cultural indicators calculated from responses by experts in stage two (n = 11)

Criteria	Social Indicators	Experts' rank of indicators (n=11)					Total score value (per indicator)
		Score value=1	Score value=2			Score value=3	
		Not important	Slightly important	Minimal importance	Moderate Importance	Very important	
C-2: Local communities' well-being	1. Access to local amenities	0	0	0	0	33	33
	2. Housing quality for sustainable CBRT/Home stay participants	0	0	0	0	33	33
	3. Education of local communities	0	0	0	0	33	33
	4. Presence of indigenous / minority groups in sustainable CBRT	0	0	0	8	21	29
	5. Local share in the use and enjoyment of the sustainable CBRT activities	0	0	14	8	0	22
Total score value for C-2		0	0	14	16	120	150
C-3: Community participation in sustainable CBRT development	6. Community acceptance of sustainable CBRT programmes (including non-participants)	0	0	0	0	33	33
	7. Local community ownership of sustainable CBRT projects	0	0	0	0	33	33
	8. Involvement of women, youth and minority groups	0	0	0	2	30	32
	9. Operation of tourism businesses by locals and their contribution to the locals' well-being	0	0	2	2	27	31
	10. Improvement of local human capital	0	0	0	12	15	27
	11. Local understanding / awareness of sustainable CBRT issues	0	0	2	10	15	27
Total score value for C-3		0	0	4	26	153	183

Table 6.8: Continued

Criteria	Social Indicators	Respondents' rank of indicators (n=85)					Total score value (per indicator)
		Score value=1 Not important	Score value=2			Score value=3 Very important	
			Slightly important	Minimal importance	Moderate Importance		
C-4: Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values	12. Respect towards land and property right of local hosts	0	0	0	0	33	33
	13. Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion	0	0	0	0	33	33
	14. Promotion of local culture, events and history in sustainable CBRT development	0	0	0	2	30	32
	15. Use of local resources/ materials for handicraft production	0	0	0	4	27	31
	16. Encouragement of the continuity of traditional skills	0	0	0	6	24	30
	17. Establishment of education and training programmes – improvement in knowledge of socio-cultural resource management	0	0	2	12	12	26
	18. Conservation of local architecture identity	0	0	2	12	12	26
Total score value for C-4		0	0	4	36	171	211
C-5: Visitors' safety	19. Capability of sustainable CBRT programs in conducting 'search and rescue' for visitors	0	0	0	2	30	32
	20. Complaint/feedback on visitors' safety	0	0	0	8	21	29
	21. Standard of environmental hygiene	0	0	0	10	18	28
	22. Availability of safety notices and publication of safety information	0	0	10	8	6	24
	23. Capability of sustainable CBRT regarding prevention of infectious diseases	0	0	0	20	3	23
Total score value for C-5		0	0	10	48	78	136

Table 6.8: Continued

Criteria	Social Indicators	Experts' rank of indicators (n=11)					Total score value (per indicator)
		Score value=1	Score value=2			Score value=3	
		Not important	Slightly important	Minimal importance	Moderate Importance	Very important	
C-6: Consumer/ Tourist satisfaction	24. Quality of facilities, services and activities	0	0	0	0	33	33
	25. Willingness to return as repeating tourist	0	0	0	0	33	33
	26. Tourists' satisfaction of the overall tourism experience	0	0	0	0	33	33
	27. Improvement in tourists' understanding and knowledge about other cultures, communities and environment	0	0	0	6	24	30
	28. Expenditure by tourists	0	0	2	12	12	26
Total score value for C-6		0	0	2	18	135	155
<p>Scoring: For all items, Not important = 1, Slightly important & Minimal importance & Important = 2, Very important = 3.</p> <p>Highest Possible Index Score per indicator: 3*11 = 33, experts ranked the indicator as highly importance / priority for sustainable CBRT program.</p> <p>Lowest Possible Index Score per indicator: 1*11 = 11, experts ranked the indicator as not important for sustainable CBRT program.</p>							

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

Table 6.9: Analysis of socio-cultural indicators

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents' feedback
C-2: Local communities' well-being	1: Access to local amenities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ Concern: relevant information must be available and accessible for local stakeholders to use it. ▪ Local host could conduct survey to collect relevant data and information.
	2: Housing quality for sustainable CBRT/Home stay participants	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ CBRT sites with homestay project should be able to provide data for this indicator. ▪ Establish trends before and after CBRT.
	3: Education of local communities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important by respondents, relevant and measurable based on available information (education background of local hosts, etc.).
C-3: Community participation in sustainable CBRT development	6: Community acceptance of sustainable CBRT programmes (including non-participants)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ Community acceptance and support is one of the key successes for CBRT. ▪ Concern: relevant information must be available and accessible for local stakeholders to use it. ▪ Local host could conduct survey to collect relevant data and information.
	7: Local community ownership of sustainable CBRT projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ Might not be the priority during preliminary stage of CBRT development (more partnership). ▪ Community ownership is an important factor for a successful CBRT. ▪ Concern: relevant information must be available and accessible for local stakeholders to use it.
C-4: Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values	12: Respect towards land and property right of local hosts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important, relevant for CBRT program. ▪ Concern: relevant information must be available and accessible for local stakeholders to use it. ▪ Local host could conduct survey to collect relevant data and information.
	13: Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important and relevant to address relationship between CBRT and cultural sustainability. ▪ Data collection - inventories of cultural resources.
C-6: Consumer/ Tourist satisfaction	24: Quality of services and activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important and relevant for CBRT program.
	25: Willingness to return as repeating tourist	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important and relevant for CBRT program (phone interview). ▪ Show trends over time (e.g. numbers of repeating tourists/year). ▪ No comment given (survey via email).
	26: Tourist' satisfaction of the overall tourism experience.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ Data collected from feedback form.

Source: Extended research fieldwork in 2013

Experts have identified ten indicators for this category as “very important” evaluated according to the SMART concept. Similar to their feedbacks in evaluating CBRT

indicators for previous category, indicators are ranked based on the relevancy of indicator to represent or to describe issues under studied. Selected indicators are considered simple to be understood and accessible to relevant data and information supporting the implementation of indicators on site. Experts have also specifically indicated two indicators i.e. “local acceptance towards CBRT” and “local ownership of CBRT projects” as keys for a success CBRT program, in which the local stakeholders should emphasise in developing CBRT program in their villages.

Experts’ feedbacks for the remaining 18 socio-cultural indicators that have been ranked as ‘important’ are presented in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10: Analysis of socio-cultural indicators

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents’ feedback
C-2: Local communities’ well-being	4: Presence of indigenous / minority groups in sustainable CBRT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important. ▪ No comment given.
	5: Local share in the use and enjoyment of the sustainable CBRT activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important for CBRT program. ▪ Concern: relevant data should be available. CBRT committee should conduct local survey to collect information.
C-3: Community participation in sustainable CBRT development	8: Involvement of women, youth and minority groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ CBRT should encourage involvement of women, youth and minority groups.
	9: Operation of tourism businesses by locals and their contribution to the locals’ well-being	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ Joint operation is also important. Might not in an urgent need for implementation.
	10: Improvement of local human capital	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important. ▪ No comment given.
	11: Local understanding / awareness of sustainable CBRT issues	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important for CBRT program. ▪ Not in an urgent need for implementation. ▪ Difficult to measure – could set up measuring method using data from feedback form
C-4: Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values	14: Promotion of local culture, events and history in sustainable CBRT development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important and considered as main attraction of CBRT. ▪ Local hosts should have data/inventories of resources and attractions.
	15: Use of local resources/ materials for handicraft production	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important for CBRT program. ▪ However, use of local materials more suitable for small-scale, more controlled tourism activities.
	16: Encouragement of the continuity of traditional skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important especially for the younger generations.
	17: Establishment of education and training programmes – improvement in knowledge of socio-	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important. ▪ No comment given.

	cultural resource management	
	18: Conservation of local architecture identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important. ▪ No comment given.
C-5: Visitors' safety	19: Capability of sustainable CBRT programs in conducting 'search and rescue' for visitors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important. ▪ Difficult to measure – could set up measuring method using data from feedback form
	20: Complaint/feedback on visitors' safety	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ Feedback from visitors is crucial to improve services and quality of activities.
	21: Standard of environmental hygiene	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important. ▪ No comment given
	22: Availability of safety notices and publication of safety information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important ▪ No comment given
	23: Capability of sustainable CBRT regarding prevention of infectious diseases	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important ▪ No comment given
C-6: Consumer/ Tourist satisfaction	27: Improvement in tourists' understanding and knowledge about other cultures, communities and environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important ▪ Difficult to measure – could set up measuring method using data from feedback form
	28: Expenditure by tourists	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important ▪ No comment given

Source: Extended research fieldwork in 2013

Based on the above table, all indicators for this category are considered important for evaluation of CBRT program. Further comments were sought on some of the indicators, which are more difficult to measure (i.e. capability, awareness). The experts (during follow-up survey) agreed that such indicators might not have an established or readily method of measurement. Nonetheless, the local hosts could use feedback forms as a tool to gather the relevant data and set up their own system of measuring the indicators.

6.7 Result of Respondents' Rank of Economic Indicators

As presented in Table 6.11, there are six indicators for this category, which could provide measurement for evaluating CBRT economic status.

Table 6.11: Index analysis of economic indicators calculated from responses by experts in stage two (n = 11)

Criteria	Economy Indicators	Experts' rank of indicators (n=11)					Total score value (per indicator)
		Score value=1	Score value=2			Score value=3	
		Not important	Slightly important	Minimal importance	Moderate Importance	Very important	
C-7: Economic benefits to the local communities' and sustainable CBRT participant	1. Diversification of tourism activities and products	0	0	0	0	33	33
	2. Economic performance – improvement of average earnings	0	0	0	0	33	33
	3. Local employment in sustainable CBRT programmes	0	0	0	0	33	33
	4. Provision of funding for training, marketing and product development	0	0	0	0	33	33
	5. Investment in sustainable CBRT projects	0	0	0	8	21	29
	6. Domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors	0	0	0	10	18	28
Total score value score for C-7		0	0	0	19	171	190
<p>Scoring: For all items, Not important = 1, Slightly important & Minimal importance & Important = 2, Very important = 3.</p> <p>Highest Possible Index Score per indicator: 3*11 = 33, experts ranked the indicator as highly importance / priority for sustainable CBRT program.</p> <p>Lowest Possible Index Score per indicator: 1*11 = 11, experts ranked the indicator as not important for sustainable CBRT program.</p>							

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

Table 6.12: Analysis of economy indicators

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents' feedback
C-7: Economic benefits to the local communities' and sustainable CBRT participant	1. Diversification of tourism activities and products	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is very important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ Local hosts should conduct inventories of CBRT resources and attractions and keep the record as future reference.
	2. Economic performance – improvement of average earnings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is very important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ This indicator is easy to understand and capable to show trend over time.
	3. Local employment in sustainable CBRT programmes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is very important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ This indicator is easy to understand and capable to show trend over time.
	4. Provision of funding for training, marketing and product development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is very important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ This indicator is easy to understand and capable to show trend over time. ▪ Concern: This indicator is not for urgent implementation/fund might not available at this stage.

Source: Extended research fieldwork in 2013

Overall comments given by the experts are resulted from their reflection on the indicators based on the SMART concept i.e. evaluation based on the importance and relevance of indicator in discussing particular issues. Indicators are also evaluated in term of its potential to show trends over time if implemented. For indicator “diversification of CBRT activities”, all experts have agreed with the need for the local hosts to conduct their own inventories and to collect relevant information regarding the local CBRT attractions and resources. As for indicator “provision of funding for training, marketing and product development”, experts suggested that for the time being local hosts might not have sufficient fund or specific fund (to their knowledge) for training and developing a product. However, as CBRT activities expand overtime, local host should develop capabilities to provide fund for the mentioned indicator.

Experts' feedbacks for the remaining two economy indicators that have been ranked as ‘important’ are presented in Table 6.13.

Table 6.13: Analysis of economy indicators

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents' feedback
C-7: Economic benefits to the local communities' and sustainable CBRT participant	5. Investment in sustainable CBRT projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered important by experts. ▪ This indicator is easy to understand and capable to show trend over time. ▪ Concern: Local host should be clear what types of data, i.e. community investment and/or private investment. Can they get data from private projects, could this indicator show trends over time, etc.
	6. Domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered important by experts. ▪ This indicator is relevant, easy to understand but the main concern is either local host is able to get relevant information. ▪ Local host might also need guidance on how to determine linkages of various local economic activities. Therefore, this indicator might not in urgent need for implementation.

Source: Extended research fieldwork in 2013

The above table shown that experts, again, have raised their concern on obtaining relevant data and information to support the application of economic indicators for sustainable CBRT. Among types of data and information needed according to experts are information on investment of CBRT especially from provide-funded projects and domestic linkages and value added from other local economic activities in CBRT program as these two elements could potentially affect the course of local CBRT progress.

6.8 Result of Respondents' Rank of Institution Indicators

As presented in Table 6.14, there are seven indicators for this category, which could provide measurement for evaluating CBRT institution status.

Table 6.14: Index analysis of institution indicators calculated from responses by experts in stage two (n = 11)

Criteria	Institution Indicators	Experts' rank of indicators (n=11)					Total score value (per indicator)
		Score value=1	Score value=2			Score value=3	
		Not important	Slightly important	Minimal importance	Moderate Importance	Very important	
C-8: Sustainable CBRT planning and management	1. Partnership in sustainable CBRT planning and management process	0	0	0	0	33	33
	2. Improvement of	0	0	0	0	33	33

	local transport quality and services						
3.	Land use planning for sustainable CBRT and their surrounding areas	0	0	0	2	30	32
4.	Management plan for sustainable CBRT changing hotspots	0	0	0	2	30	32
5.	Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas	0	0	0	6	24	30
6.	Practice of sustainable design in CBRT projects	0	2	10	8	3	23
7.	Development control in sustainable CBRT projects	0	0	0	8	21	29
Total score value for C-8		0	2	10	26	174	212

Scoring: For all items, Not important = 1, Slightly important & Minimal importance & Important = 2, Very important = 3.

Highest Possible Index Score per indicator: 3*11 = 33, experts ranked the indicator as highly importance / priority for sustainable CBRT program.

Lowest Possible Index Score per indicator: 1*11 = 11, experts ranked the indicator as not important for sustainable CBRT program.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

Table 6.15: Analysis of institution indicators

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents' feedback
C-8: Sustainable CBRT planning and management	1. Partnership in sustainable CBRT planning and management process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is very important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ This indicator is easy to understand and capable to show trend over time. ▪ There should be no issue of obtaining relevant data about partnership in CBRT projects from the local host and agencies.
	2. Improvement of local transport quality and services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is very important and relevant for CBRT program. ▪ This indicator is easy to understand and capable to show trend over time.

Source: Extended research fieldwork in 2013

There are two indicators as presented in Table 6.15 which were ranked as “very important” i.e. partnership in CBRT planning and management” and “improvement of local transport quality and services”. The experts are convinced that these two

indicators could be implemented with the expectation that local hosts already have relevant data and information for the related field.

As for the remaining five indicators of this category ranked as ‘important’ by the experts (as presented in Table 6.16), experts repeated their opinion about the crucial need for local hosts to obtain data and relevant information before indicators could function. These might include providing relevant data and information for management plan for CBRT changing hotspots and development control aspect in CBRT.

Table 6.16: Analysis of institution indicators

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents' feedback
C-8: Sustainable CBRT planning and management	3. Land use planning for sustainable CBRT and their surrounding areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered important by experts. ▪ This indicator is relevant and needed to show land use change and patterns/trends over time.
	4. Management plan for sustainable CBRT changing hotspots	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered important and relevant by experts to address the issue of changing hotspots. ▪ Concern: availability of relevant information to support the indicator.
	5. Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered important by experts. ▪ This indicator is relevant and needed to show land use change and patterns/trends over time.
	6. Practice of sustainable design in CBRT projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered important by experts. ▪ Concern: this indicator might not be needed at this stage because creating awareness and good practices usually take longer time.
	7. Development control in sustainable CBRT projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered important by experts. ▪ Concern: local hosts need data and information to justify the need for development control, or if CBRT has hit the maximum capacity, etc.

Source: Extended research fieldwork in 2013

6.9 REFLECTION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter first summarised the conceptual elements of the Delphi method. Secondly, it presented the intensive work carried out to show how the Delphi method has been physically implemented in real case studies through the survey of experts.

From the survey and data analysis, there are some important lessons learned from the process:

1. The use of **Delphi method offered answers or solutions to research questions 4 and 5 more appropriately through sharing of new ideas and knowledge based on experts' participation.** It was noted in Chapter 1 that the ideas of sustainable CBRT and an indicator development process are relatively new and less explored by tourism researchers and even by the government agencies involved in tourism development, particularly in the Malaysian context. In this light, the use of Delphi exercise to formulate a list of priority indicators for sustainable CBRT can be the best opportunity in bringing together experts from various backgrounds, when they could share their knowledge and thoughts to achieve a common goal.
2. As highlighted in the methodology chapter, the Delphi exercise involves a iterative process (known as rounds) and each round has an evaluation phase. In this chapter, the Stage One: Round 1 is considered to be an initial "idea generation" phase, in which the experts were asked to identify and select from the range of potential indicators by categorising them into either "Important" or "Not Important" indicators. However, this process has confronted with the issue of indicators with "no-consensus" status i.e. when the experts differ in their opinions and give same score for "Important" and "Not Important". Therefore, the decisions cannot be made regarding the status of indicators involved. However, this matter has been put forward during the Round 2 of Delphi exercise when the experts have to re-evaluate their previous answers. The consensus was finally reached by the end of the Round 2 when experts agreed to consider one indicator as "Important" and the other as "Not Important". It can be seen from this process that an iterative process may encourage a balanced consideration of ideas, hence increasing the chances to further understanding of the issue and finally bridging the gap of opinions among experts.
3. Despite all the advantages and strengths of the Delphi method, it is not without methodological weaknesses. It can be seen from this chapter (refer Figure 6.1)

that the issue of experts dropout also occurred during the survey process. From the original twenty experts participate in the Stage One (selection of indicators), only eleven were committed to participate for Stage Two (ranking of indicators). As expected, the main reason was the difficulty in maintaining long-term commitment and engagement with the research process due to heavy workloads or tight work schedules (personal communication with experts in 2010). The experts' dropout has affected the survey process especially pertaining data integrity and the timeframe in producing the results of the Delphi exercise. Considered as uncontrolled factor (human factor), there was not much choice or solution available since the choice to participate and/or to withdraw from the process was entirely depended on the respondents (participations are voluntary). Nonetheless, the survey managed to work with 11 experts; despite of the smaller number of respondents, the survey proved enough to maintain balanced representatives of academics, government officials and the NGOs, hence yielded sufficient results.

4. This study has also conducted a series of follow up survey from March until June 2013 to gather further comments from the experts on the selected indicators. Only six experts, who previously participated in the ranking process (via Delphi), have agreed to share their insights and opinions on the proposed indicators in more detail. The follow-up survey have also identified some issues including the importance for local CBRT communities to obtain relevant data and information to allow indicators to function as well as the required time frame for some indicators to be implemented. Some of the indicators might need more time before they can be implemented due to lack of data or because the community is not ready with appropriate knowledge, skills and needs special guidance to understand the nature of indicators and the process of using indicators for evaluating the CBRT performances.

CHAPTER 7

ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS: SURVEY OF LOCAL STAKEHOLDERS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter (Chapter 6 – Analysis and presentation of results: survey of experts) provided a broad discussion on the results from the Delphi exercises which evaluate indicators suggested by secondary sources (refer Chapter 5). Chapter 6 concluded with the production of a revised list of indicators of sustainable CBRT. The revised list is brought into this chapter for further validation. The analysis and presentation of results in this chapter is divided into three subsections as follows:

- i. Analysis of respondents' perceptions of tourism activities taking place in their villages;
- ii. Analysis of respondents' perceptions of the concept of sustainable CBRT; and
- iii. Analysis and presentation of indicator ranking exercise (by respondents).

This chapter concludes with the presentation of an agreed list of priority indicators derived from the data analysis on the survey of local stakeholders, followed by discussion of the results including how the outcomes can contribute in the discussions of the overall research findings and synthesis, in addition, to the formulation of the framework for monitoring of sustainable CBRT.

7.2 PROCEDURES IN CONDUCTING SURVEY OF LOCAL STAKEHOLDERS

This section reviews the processes involved in identifying and validating the CBRT Criteria and indicators through the survey of local stakeholders. The discussions include aspects of the study cases and respondents, followed by information on questionnaire distribution and finally, the ranking of the agreed set of sustainable CBRT indicators (Figure 7.1). Some parts of this section were previously explained in Sections 5.3.3, 5.4, and 5.5.1 and in Subsection 5.5.1.2. This chapter, however, describes these processes based on the main survey.

7.2.1 Selection of Study Cases and Respondents

This research applies the multiple-case studies in gathering information from the local stakeholders. The main reason for using multiple-case studies is the ability and potential of this technique to increase the chances of generating a number of interpretations, which leads to greater chances for generalisation of research outcomes. Detailed explanations on multiple-case studies approach were discussed in Subsection 5.3.1.1. The identification of research study cases, was thoroughly discussed in the background of the study area (refer to Section 4.4). In relation to the mentioned section, each potential site is assessed based on the criteria of selection of study cases (as presented in Tables 4.6 and 4.7). As a result, three CBRT sites were selected; (1) Kuala Medang village in Pahang state; (2) Teluk Ketapang village in Terengganu state; and (3) Seterpa village in Kelantan state (see Section 4.4 for detailed information about these villages).

This research has identified and divided the local stakeholders into two sample populations, namely villagers who do participate in sustainable CBRT programs (participants) and those who do not participate (non-participants). These groups of people are the sample units, from which the researcher has obtained information on their knowledge of tourism activities taking place in their village, perception and understanding of the sustainable CBRT concept and their choices of sustainable CBRT indicators. Since there are two local groups studied in each village (participants and

non-participants), stratified random sampling method was applied. The details on sampling method and calculations are explained in Subsection 5.3.3.1.

7.2.2 Questionnaire Distribution

The data collection processes were carried out using ‘face to face’ questionnaire-based interviews. The survey questionnaires were distributed in two stages, i.e. during a pilot survey, (commenced from 7 November 2009 until 13 December 2009) and during the main fieldwork (15 December 2009 until 26 December 2009). During the pilot study stage, fifteen respondents (5 respondents for each village) participated. Based on respondents’ feedback, two questions in the survey form were identified as lacking clear direction and, therefore, were modified accordingly. The confusion among respondents in answering Question 17, i.e. is the question asking them to state just their “acknowledgement” or their “understanding” of the sustainable CBRT concept, has resulted in the question being taken out of the form. Meanwhile, the choices of answer in Question 23 have been modified since the respondents requested the element of ‘partnership’ to be included in the possible list of parties, which are in the best position to carry out the sustainable CBRT agenda. These feedbacks have been incorporated in constructing the final survey form. During the main fieldwork, 85 respondents took part; Kuala Medang (25 respondents), Teluk Ketapang (47) and Seterpa (13).

7.2.3 Stakeholders Ranking of the Sustainable CBRT Indicators

The survey of local stakeholders begins in Stage 2, i.e. after the formulation of an agreed list of indicators of sustainable CBRT by experts in two rounds of Delphi consensus (refer to Figure 7.1). During the survey, respondents were asked to evaluate the importance of each indicator by ranking the indicators according to the Likert Scale from (1= not important to 5= very important). The aim of this process (ranking indicators) is to incorporate aspirations and opinion from local stakeholders by providing wider chances for participation in the process of indicator development. Feedback and answers gathered from this process were analysed using frequency analysis.

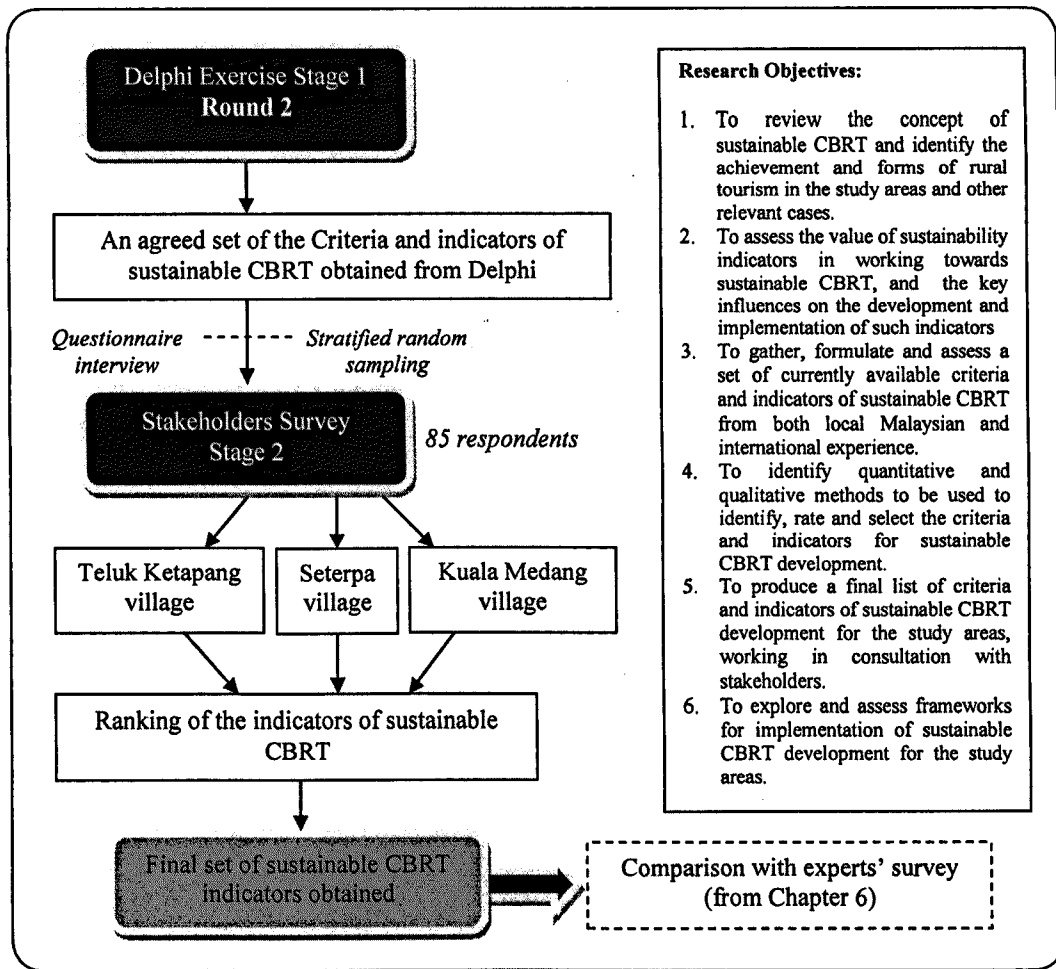


Figure 7.1: Towards achieving research objectives 4 and 5. *Source:* Author (2010)

7.3 BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS

The 85 respondents consisted of heads of household, housewives, retirees and local stakeholders including homestay operators, business people and people from within the communities which work as government officials (public sector employees, including local and federal government officers, religious officers and teachers). They were selected from three villages and were interviewed to represent the opinions and perception of their communities regarding the concept of sustainable CBRT in the ECER. The survey of local stakeholders is conducted using questionnaire-guided interviews (to obtain quantitative data) and supported by qualitative information

derived from a series of interviews and informal discussions¹ with the local CBRT coordinators. Personal observation of local tourism activities during the fieldwork has also been included.

7.3.1 Gender and Age Structure

All respondents interviewed were Malays² and consisted of 44 male (52%) and 41 female (48%). As presented in Figure 7.2, the largest sub-group of respondents is from the age range of 30 to 34 years (17 persons or 20%), followed by those within the age range 45 to 49 years and the age range 50 to 54 years each at 18%. Younger respondents, aged below 30 years represent 11% of the total respondents. Meanwhile, the smallest age group is made up of respondents within age ranges 60 to 64 years and over 65 years both with 2%.

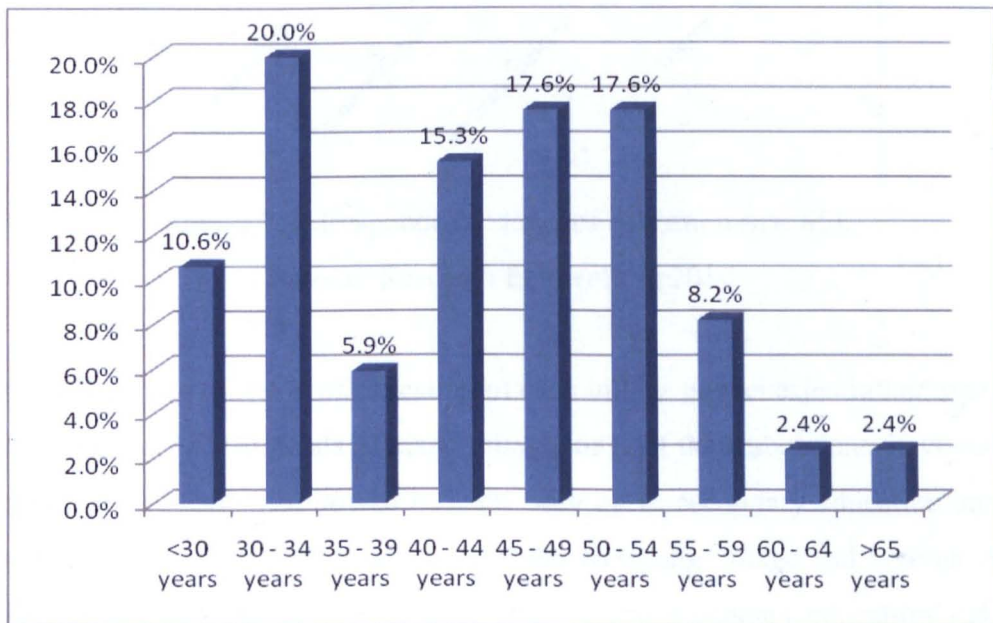


Figure 7.2: Age distribution of respondents (n = 85).

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

¹ The source of some of the information and evidences mentioned as “coming from interviews”, either in this chapter or in the subsequent chapters were referred to these interviews and discussions sessions, unless it was mentioned otherwise.

² a member of a people inhabiting the northern Malay Peninsula and Malaysia and parts of the western Malay Archipelago (online dictionary: <http://wordnetweb.princeton.edu/perl/webwn?s=malay>)

7.3.2 Level of Education

Survey results indicated that all respondents had achieved the minimal level of education (primary school). As presented in Figure 7.3, 42% of the respondents received primary education as their highest qualification. 38% received up to secondary education. The remaining 11% of the respondents have achieved certificate or diploma level; only 9% have graduated with bachelor degrees.

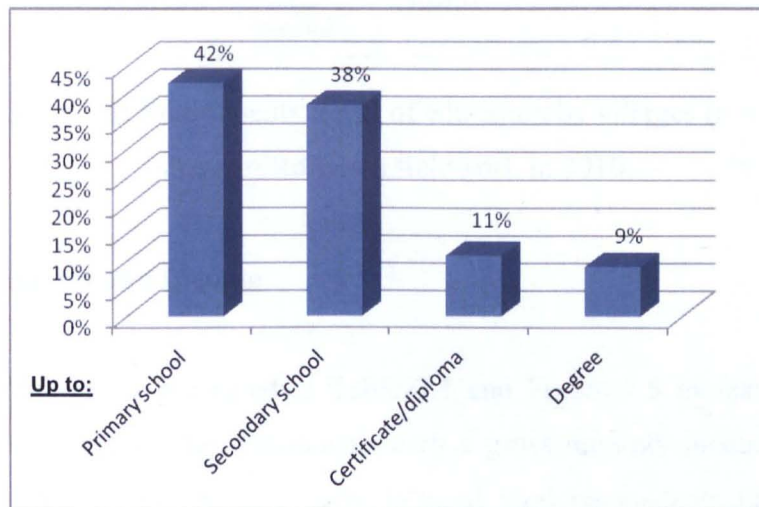


Figure 7.3: Respondents' level of education (n = 85).

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

Further analysis on the level of education of each village has revealed rather interesting findings (Figure 7.4). In Kuala Medang village, 68% of the respondents have obtained up to primary education, followed by 28% only up to secondary education and only 4% with a certificate or Diploma. As for Teluk Ketapang village and Seterpa village, the difference between respondents with primary and secondary education and those who hold certificate or diploma were not significant. However, compared with other villages, only Teluk Ketapang has respondents with bachelor degree qualifications (17%). This pattern shows a result of random selection of respondents; hence, it does not necessarily mean that there is no degree holder in other villages. This criterion (level of education) however does not significantly influence the selection of CBRT indicators as level of experience and participation of respondents has much more value for this research.

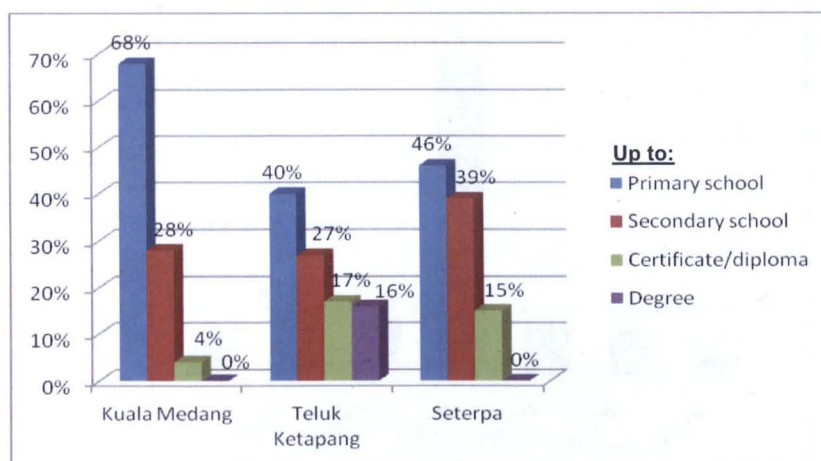


Figure 7.4: Respondents' level of education by villages (n = 85).

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

7.3.3 Occupation and Income

The survey findings as presented in Table 7.1 and Figure 7.5 indicates that slightly more than half (57%) of the respondents earn a gross monthly income between RM 1001 - RM 3000. In comparison, only 12% of total respondents have an average monthly income below the national poverty line i.e. RM750 or less. Thus, the level of income of respondents of all study cases is higher than incomes generated by rural villages in general, indicating good local economic performances³. Meanwhile, only a small portion of the respondents, 7%, is attaining medium/high income of RM 5001 - RM 7000 followed by 2% with income over RM 7001 per month.

Table 7.1: Gross monthly income of respondents (RM*)

RM	Freq.	%
No income (e.g. full-time housewife)	4	5.0
< 750	10	12.0
751- 1000	8	9.0
1001- 3000	48	57.0
3001- 5000	7	8.0
5001 - 7000	6	7.0
> 7001	2	2.0
Total	85	100.0

(*Currency exchange checked in October 2010, GBP1 = RM4.90)

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

³ The average gross monthly income for rural areas in 2009 is RM 2,545 per household (published by the Statistical Department of Malaysia and available at: http://www.statistics.gov.my/portal/download_household/files/household/2009/Jadual1.pdf)

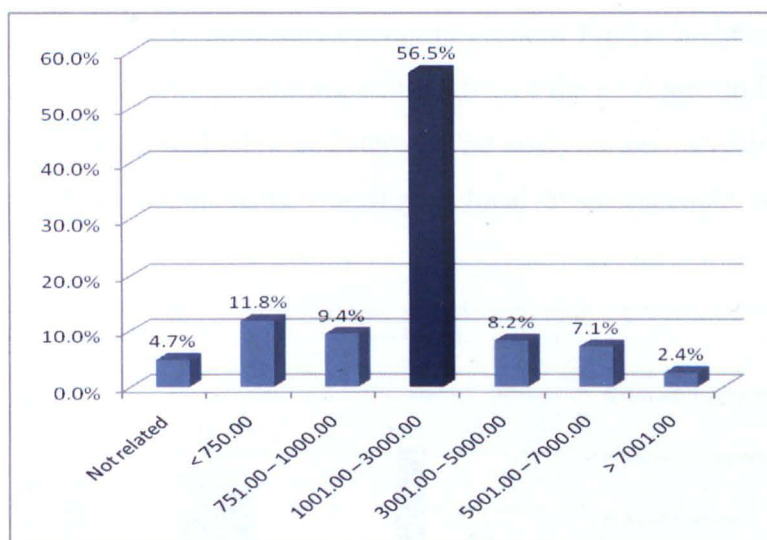


Figure 7.5: Gross monthly income of respondents (RM*).

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

a. Respondents' full-time occupations

The survey findings (Table 7.2) revealed that there were seven main types of jobs in the study area. Approximately 21% of the respondents interviewed are government servants, followed by 20% working as homestay operators. Another 15% are involved in business and commercial activities as contractors, building material suppliers and large-scale farm owners, who are not involved with local tourism activities. There are also three other types of occupation i.e. small and medium entrepreneurs related with tourism activities, manual workers or labours and housewives, which shared the same percentage of 13%. The remaining 5% are retirees. As marked in bold in Table 7.2, tourism provides 33% of respondents' full-time jobs. Detailed analysis of respondents' full-time occupation by villages and the effects of tourism on local jobs and economic structure are further explained in Figure 7.6.

Table 7.2: Respondent's full-time occupation (all villages) (N = 85)

	Freq.	%
Government officials / public sector	18	21.0
Homestay operator	17	20.0
Business people (non-tourism related)	13	15.0
Small and medium entrepreneur (tourism related)	11	13.0
Manual worker or labour	11	13.0
Housewife	11	13.0
Retiree	4	5.0
Total	85	100.0

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

As presented in Figure 7.6, homestay operators account for the highest percentage of occupations in all three villages starting with 36.0% of the total jobs in Kuala Medang, 29% in Teluk Ketapang and 31% in Seterpa. The analysis also revealed that only in Teluk Ketapang have respondents working as local businesspeople outside tourism (27%).

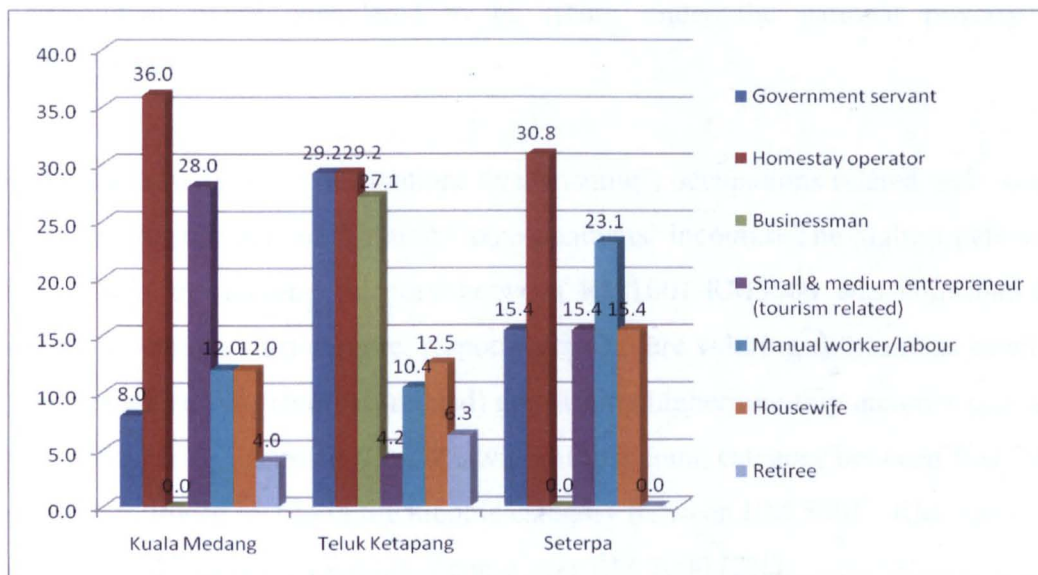


Figure 7.6: Full-time occupation of respondents (by villages).

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

Even though it is difficult to compare the actual effects and changes (especially job created) brought in by tourism into the local communities due to the absence of past data, a few points raised by the local CBRT coordinators have provided a good reference in clarifying this issue. For instance, during an interview, the CBRT coordinator of Kuala Medang said that before rural tourism was introduced, almost 70% of residents were actively engaged in farming-related activities, mainly as rubber-tappers and small-scale farmers with only a minority working in the public sector. However, after the homestay programme was introduced in 1999, the local socio-economic structure improved significantly. Various types of tourism-related jobs with more stable incomes have been created especially as homestay operators and workers for local small and medium enterprises. The receipts from homestay programmes for Kuala Medang also has increased from RM27,790 in 2002 to RM500,000 in 2007 and the value of village assets (such as communal buildings and enterprises) increased from RM600 in 1999 to RM1 million in 2008.

b. Cross tabulation - income and type of occupation

A cross tabulation analysis has been carried out to identify the relationship between types of occupation and gross monthly incomes of the respondents. Figure 7.7 indicates a clear pattern of income distribution with almost 58% of all respondents having a monthly income within category of RM1001-RM3000. Meanwhile, only 17% of respondents were considered to be living under the national poverty line (<RM750/month).

For the analysis “types of occupations over income”, occupations related with tourism have shown significant contributions to respondents’ incomes. The highest percentage (18%) within the income category between RM1001-RM3000 was contributed by homestay operators. Furthermore, respondents who are working full-time as small and medium entrepreneurs (tourism-related) are earning higher monthly incomes compared with other types of occupation i.e. 4% within the income category between RM 3001 - RM 5000, followed by 6% in the income category between RM 5001 - RM 7000. Only two respondents gained a monthly income over RM 7000 (2%).

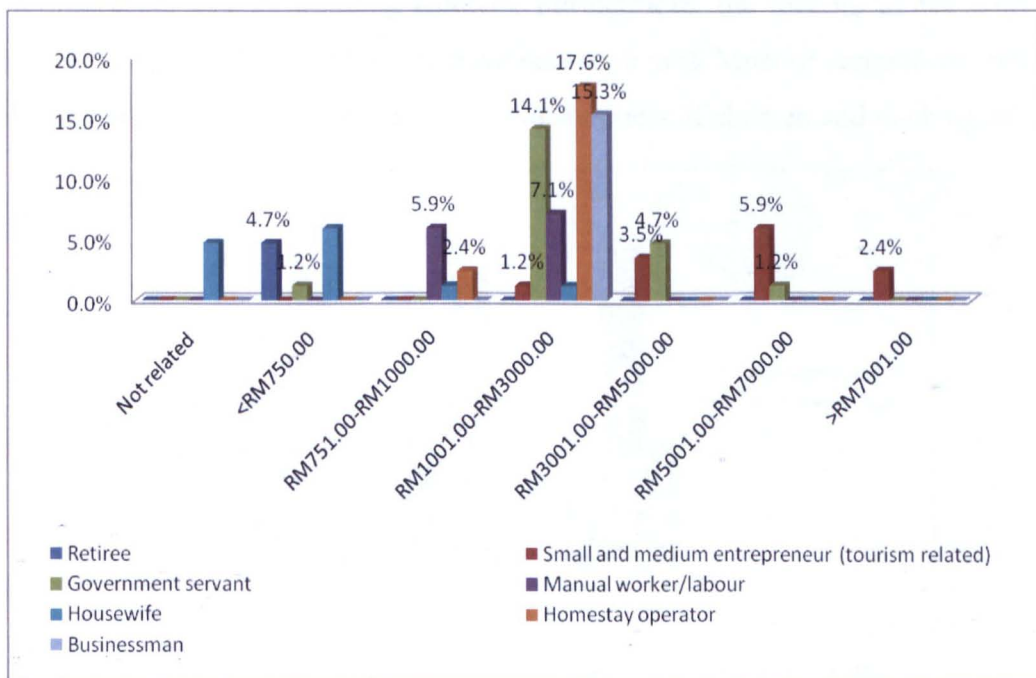


Figure 7.7: Respondents’ types of full time occupation and gross monthly income (in RM). *Source:* Research fieldwork in 2010.

As shown in Figure 7.7, the rural tourism-related activities have generated many types of jobs and hence offering the community access to better income. During interviews

with one CBRT coordinator, it was suggested that with the introduction of tourism activities, the average household income for Kuala Medang had increased to over RM1000/month and according to him this increase solved the problem of poverty among this rural community. Therefore, it is important for this research to take into consideration the elements of job creation and level of income in the process of developing indicators at the later stage.

c. Respondents' part-time occupations

Analysis of data has indicated that 69% of respondents interviewed have part-time jobs, with 58% doing part-time jobs related to tourism. Meanwhile, only 12% are working part-time in sectors other than tourism and the remaining 31% of the respondents do not have any part time job (Figure 7.8). Based on an interview with the CBRT coordinator of Seterpa, there are two main reasons why respondents are interested in doing part time jobs. Among these reasons are; the respondents' personal interests in using their spare time to do something or work that can give them additional income. This includes making craft and souvenirs, traditional cookies and catering, especially as wedding caterers. Furthermore, the locality of the workplace also has encouraged respondents to have part-time jobs. Most of respondents indicated that they are working at home as tailors and suppliers of chicken and duck eggs.

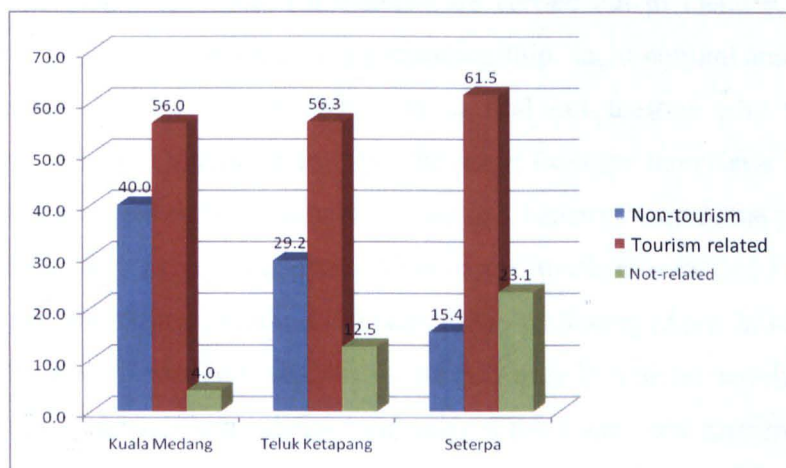


Figure 7.8: Respondent's part-time occupation (by village).

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

As shown in Figure 7.8, more than 50 % of the respondents in all three villages were part time workers in tourism related activities. Kuala Medang showed the highest number of respondents working part-time in non-tourism related activities (40%),

followed by Teluk Ketapang (29%) and Seterpa (15%). The outcomes can be interpreted as a sign to prove the tourism development of three villages have played crucial roles in creating many opportunities for part-time jobs to members of the communities involved.

7.4 STAKEHOLDERS' PERCEPTION OF LOCAL TOURISM ACTIVITIES

This section identifies and explains the extent to which the respondents are aware of and understand the tourism activities that are taking place in their village and surrounding areas. The respondents were divided into two categories, i.e. participants in local tourism activities (58 respondents or 68%), and the non-participants (27 respondents or 32%). The survey sought to capture information and views from both categories.

7.4.1 Principal Reasons for Participating in Tourism Activities

The interviews (using open-ended questions) are carried out to identify, from three different point of views; economic and entrepreneurship, socio-cultural and leadership, and environmental point of view which is to find out reasons why respondents participated in the local tourism activities. The result from the interviews is presented in Table 7.3. As suggested by literature reviews in Chapters 2 and 3, the participation of local stakeholders is very important since many tourism activities have various impacts (direct and indirect) on the local community wellbeing (Aref, 2011; Graci and Dodds, 2010). 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.

Table 7.3: Respondents principal reasons for participating in tourism activities; all villages (n = 58)

	Freq.	%
<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 shown in Table 7.3, 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 previous analysis (occupations and income) whereby respondents are attracted by stable incomes offered by jobs in tourism activities, and the incomes 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).

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.

7.4.2 Principal Reasons for Not Participating in Tourism Activities

Another group of local stakeholders identified in this research are those who do not participate in tourism activities; however, they play important roles in shaping their village’s development over the years. Therefore, it is important that their opinions be recorded by this research, as their needs might differ from those who are participating in local tourism activities. This information is crucial to identify the extent of which these non-participants tolerate and live with the effects generated by tourism in their village.

Analysis of the non-participants as presented in Table 7.4 revealed that among economic and entrepreneurship reasons for not becoming involved in tourism activities included the respondents’ commitment to their full-time jobs. Almost half (44%) of the respondents (i.e. 27 non-participants) who signified that they do not participate in tourism activities is because they already have permanent employment elsewhere, as well as being “already satisfied with current (full-time) job” (26%). Only one respondent (4%) referred to the instability of income generated from tourism activities as the main reason for not participating. In addition, only one respondent (4%) indicated that income from tourism is not sufficient to cover expenses and pay the business loans. The remaining 22% of the non-participating respondents did not specify their reasons.

Through a series of informal discussions⁴ with respondents, the main barriers for their non-participation are not because they are not interested in tourism, but more related with the inability to commit due to time constraints (they are occupied by full-time

⁴ As explained in Section 7.3.

jobs). This point was later supported by the finding from cross-tabulation analysis (between types of occupation and reasons for not participating), which indicated 33% of respondents who work as government officials⁵ gave the same reason of “lack of spare time due to their full-time jobs” for not participating.

Table 7.4: Respondents principal reasons for not participating in tourism activities; all villages (n = 27)

	Freq.	%
<i>Economic and entrepreneurship reasons</i>		
♦ Already a permanent worker elsewhere	12	44.0
♦ Already satisfied with current (full-time) job	7	26.0
♦ Local tourism does not offer a stable income	1	4.0
♦ Income from tourism are not sufficient to cover expenses and pay the loans	1	4.0
♦ No specific reasons	6	22.0
Total	27	100.0
<i>Social-cultural and leadership reasons</i>		
♦ Do not have spare time to get involved in tourism	21	78.0
♦ Already satisfied with current leaders and organisations	4	15.0
♦ No specific reasons	2	7.0
Total	27	100.0
<i>Environmental reasons</i>		
♦ Lack of awareness towards environmental protection	4	15.0
♦ No specific reasons	23	85.0
Total	27	100.0

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

As for socio-cultural and leadership reasons, a majority of the respondents interviewed (78%) stated that unavailability of suitable time was the main reason for their lack of involvement in local tourism activities. One respondent interviewed in Teluk Ketapang mentioned that most of his time is spent on travelling to and from work. Another respondent was too occupied in managing his own business. The remaining 15% of the

⁵ The government officials in this context is a local person who live in the village, but working full-time in public sector (not an expert from Delphi exercise or working for government agencies related to CBRT programme)

respondents stated that they were “already satisfied with current leaders and organisations” while 7% did not specify their reason.

The only environmental reason given by the non-participants was “lack of awareness towards environmental protection” (15%), for instance, the community mentioned they did not realise that cutting and selling the bamboo to the agricultural projects nearby could pose threat to their environment and local tourism activities.

7.4.3 Enablers of Tourism Activities

The respondents were also asked (through interviews using open-ended questions) what they perceived to be the factors that enable tourism activities to take place in their village. In Table 7.5, almost 37% of the respondents perceived that the strategic location of their village play an important role in shaping tourism development, followed by the existing availability of good infrastructure and basic facilities to support tourism-related activities (31%). Other factors were also suggested, such as strong and well-established small and medium enterprises (SME) (18%), as well as funding aid from both government agencies and private corporations (13%).

Table 7.5: Respondents perceptions of factors supporting tourism activities (n=85)

	Freq.	%
<i>Physical and economic</i>		
♦ Strategic location	31	37.0
♦ Have a good existing infrastructure and basic facilities	26	31.0
♦ Having established small and medium enterprises (SME)	17	20.0
♦ Received funding both from the government and private corporations	11	13.0
Total	85	100.0

(Continued)

Table 7.5: Continued.

	Freq.	%
<i>Socio-cultural</i>		
♦ Cultural diversity (rich with traditional customs)	41	48.0
♦ Positive attitude to support tourism programmes both by participant and non-participant	31	37.0
♦ Proper knowledge transfer mechanism (to teach young generations traditional skills)	13	15.0
Total	85	100.0
<i>Environment</i>		
♦ Positive attitude and good practice towards environmental protection and resource management	41	48.0
♦ No response	44	52.0
Total	85	100.0
<i>Organisation and leadership</i>		
♦ Village having a good and workable organisations	37	44.0
♦ Positive attitude by the appointed leaders in promoting tourism	34	40.0
♦ External recognition because of village outstanding achievement at local and national levels	14	16.0
Total	85	100.0

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

In the context of socio-cultural factors, 48% of the respondents indicated that local cultural diversity plays an important role in shaping tourism development, in addition to the residents' positive attitudes of participants and non-participants towards tourism programmes (37%). The other 15% suggested that proper knowledge transfer mechanisms would help increase interest amongst younger generations in learning local traditional skills as one of the factors for the continuation of tourism activities.

From the environmental point of view, the only answer given by the respondents was communities' positive attitude and good practices towards environmental protection and resource management (48%). The rest did not specify any other reason. As for the organisation and community leadership aspect, the most frequent answer given by respondents was the "village having good, efficient and workable organisation" (44%),

followed by positive attitude portrayed by the appointed leader (31%). In addition, 16% of the respondents referred to the multiple recognitions and awards given by various agencies at local and national level as advantages and tourism attractions. This is evident when all three villages selected in this study have won various competitions, at local and national levels, and have showed outstanding achievements not only in tourism, but also in community and human resource development.

7.4.4 Barriers to Tourism Activities

The respondents were also asked (through interviews using open-ended questions) to identify the barriers to tourism activities in their village (Table 7.6). “Lack of funding from government agencies and/or private investors” and “lack of suitable land and capital for commercial-scaled tourism operation” were indicated as the main economic barriers with 27% each.

Based on information from the brochures given by the CBRT coordinators, many local economic activities are family-based businesses (e.g. traditional pastry makers, caterers, homestay operators, small-scale rubber plantations, mini market owners and restaurant operators). Considering that tourism activities are still under-developed and are small-scale operations, the desirable impact especially as an income provider seems to be less significant. Almost 21% of the respondents revealed that local tourism activities especially in the east coast region are still influenced by a seasonal phenomenon, especially the monsoon season, from September until March every year. The adverse effects of this natural phenomenon limit tourism activities especially in the islands, national parks and highlands resorts. In the worst-case scenario, many of the resorts in affected areas are forced to shut down their operations. During the “shut down” periods, tourism workers are forced to abandon their jobs and opt for short-term jobs in other sectors such as in construction, retail and agriculture.

Nine percent of respondents agreed that “lack of government support in developing suitable tourism facilities” (9%) was one of the economic barriers to tourism. The remaining 15% remained unsure about the economic disadvantages of local tourism activities.

Table 7.6: Respondents perceptions of disadvantages of village in supporting local tourism activities (n=85)

	Freq.	%
<i>Physical and economic</i>		
♦ Lack of funding from government agencies/or private investors to develop tourism potentials	23	27.0
♦ Lack of suitable land and capital to commercialise the tourism attractions (lack income contribution)	23	27.0
♦ Suffer from seasonal activities (during monsoon seasons)	18	21.0
♦ Lack of government support in developing tourism facilities	8	9.0
♦ No specific disadvantages	13	15.0
Total	85	100.0
<i>Social-cultural</i>		
♦ Exposure to modernisation (degraded the traditional cultural practices)	32	38.0
♦ Suffers from out-migration	13	15.0
♦ Lack of interest especially from youth groups	12	14.0
♦ Lack of skills related with traditional practices	11	13.0
♦ No specific disadvantages	17	20.0
Total	85	100.0
<i>Environment</i>		
♦ Lack of knowledge and awareness about environmental protection and conservation	5	5.0
♦ No specific disadvantages	80	95.0
Total	85	100.0

(Continued)

Table 7.6: Continued.

	Freq.	%
<i>Organisation and leadership</i>		
♦ Lack of continuous training especially for young leaders	45	53.0
♦ Conflicting interests of stakeholders	17	20.0
♦ Local leaders less vocal in protecting the local interest in tourism projects	7	8.0
♦ Local of leadership (local leaders need more guidance)	2	2.0
♦ No specific disadvantages	14	17.0
Total	85	100.0

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

The viability of local tourism activities depends on the capability of the local communities and their stakeholders to maintain the continuity of traditional practices as tourist attractions. Any undesirable changes in socio-cultural conditions as presented in Table 7.6 could pose threats to tourism activities in particular and to the livelihood of the local community in general. Results from the analysis indicated that 38% of the respondents saw the community was suffering from the threat of modernisation, which could potentially degrades their traditional cultural practices in the future. Meanwhile, 15% of the respondents claimed that the out-migration factor (especially by the younger generation) had also contributed towards limiting of the local tourism development.

In the study areas, young people played crucial roles in planning and managing local tourism activities as their members are usually more educated and knowledgeable especially with regards to current technology (which proved to be very helpful in using the ICT facilities). Therefore, without strong support and participation from young people, the respondents believed the overall efforts to enhance local rural tourism development could be jeopardised. Other socio-cultural disadvantages given were related with lack of interest especially among young people (14%) and lack of skills in traditional practices (13%). The remaining 20% of the respondents did not mention any specific disadvantages. The only environmental disadvantage identified was “degradation of natural resources due to lack of long-term commitment for

environmental protection and conservation” (5%), while the remaining 95% did not indicate any disadvantage.

As for the community leadership and entrepreneurship disadvantages, 53% of the respondents raised the issue of lack of continuous training especially among young leaders. According to the respondents, many courses or workshops attended by tourism participants were normally “one-off” programmes at which, by the end of the course, whoever participated would be given certificates of attendance. However, from the respondents’ point of view, what was actually needed are continuous training and monitoring of effectiveness of the courses, which they have attended. Other answers which were given by the respondents are; slow growth of rural enterprises due to conflict of interest between stakeholders (20%); the fact that local leaders appointed are less vocal when it comes to protecting local interests in tourism projects (8%) and that leaders need proper guidance in decision making processes (2%). On the other hand, 17% of the respondents did not specify any disadvantage.

7.4.5 Assessment of Likelihood to be Included in Decision-Making Process

Greater engagement of local community and stakeholders in decision making process is a critical element for tourism to become sustainable (Graci and Dodds, 2010; Timur and Getz, 2009). The survey results as presented in Figure 7.9 indicate that majority of respondents felt that the likelihood of being included in the decision-making process is improving (78%). However, 5% believed that their likelihood is declining, while the other 17% remained unsure.

Analysis of each village indicated almost 89% of respondents (or 42 people) of Teluk Ketapang felt that their likelihood is improving, followed by 76% (19) for Kuala Medang and 38% (5) for Seterpa. Based on the discussion with local CBRT coordinators and members, the community felt that the government agencies, which involved in planning and development of CBRT especially the Ministry of Tourism Malaysia (MOTOUR) and the District Office (DO), have engaged the local stakeholders. The local stakeholders, during meetings and brainstorming sessions often raised their concern on issues such as the need for upgrading the physical infrastructures for tourism, conducting a scheduled training programme, identifying

new markets and promotional strategies for CBRT, etc. Since the likelihood of being included in the decision-making process increased, the CBRT programme has received full cooperation and support from the stakeholders. Furthermore, the local stakeholders want to protect their long-term investment in the programme and businesses relating to CBRT. For example, the youth group in the community supports the CBRT programme since it provides jobs with more stable income and in turn, motivates them to work and stayed in the village. Respondents also acknowledged that CBRT as training ground for new entrepreneurs. A women development group in Teluk Ketapang for instance, operates sewing workshops and the Batik chanting workshops⁶ as part of income diversification, which has also, become prominent tourist attractions. The workshops have provided them with sewing and batik chanting skills as well as the exposure to management of small and medium businesses with relation to CBRT.

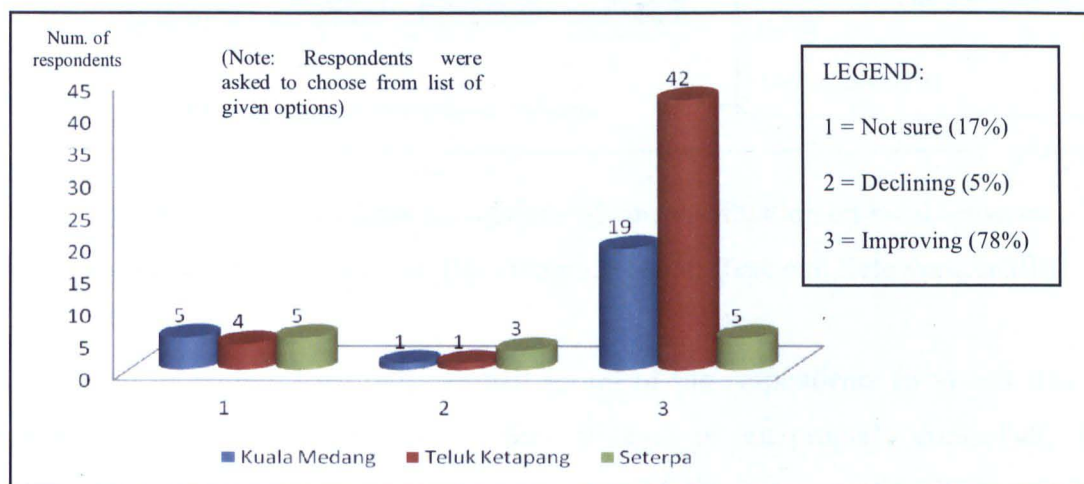


Figure 7.9: Respondents perceptions of likelihood of being included in decision-making process (n=85) (by village). *Source:* Research fieldwork in 2010.

7.4.6 Assessment of Local Resource Exploitation and Conservation

“Conservation, protection and management of local biodiversity and natural resources” is one of the key environmental indicators in sustainable tourism (Twinning-Ward, 2007; Zaaba, 1999). The importance of this indicator, however, very much depends on stakeholders’ awareness towards the issues related with the environment. Hence, the respondents were asked to evaluate the state of local resources exploitation and

⁶ Refer to Chapter 4 (Table 4.x) for detail discussion of the sewing and Batik chanting workshops

conservation. As shown in Figure 7.10, 52% of respondents believed that the current environmental condition is one of “controlled exploitation but lack of conservation”. Meanwhile, 32% respondents stated that there is “less exploitation and more conservation”, and 6% said that there is “uncontrolled exploitation of natural resources”. The remaining 11% remained unsure about the state of local resource exploitation and conservation.

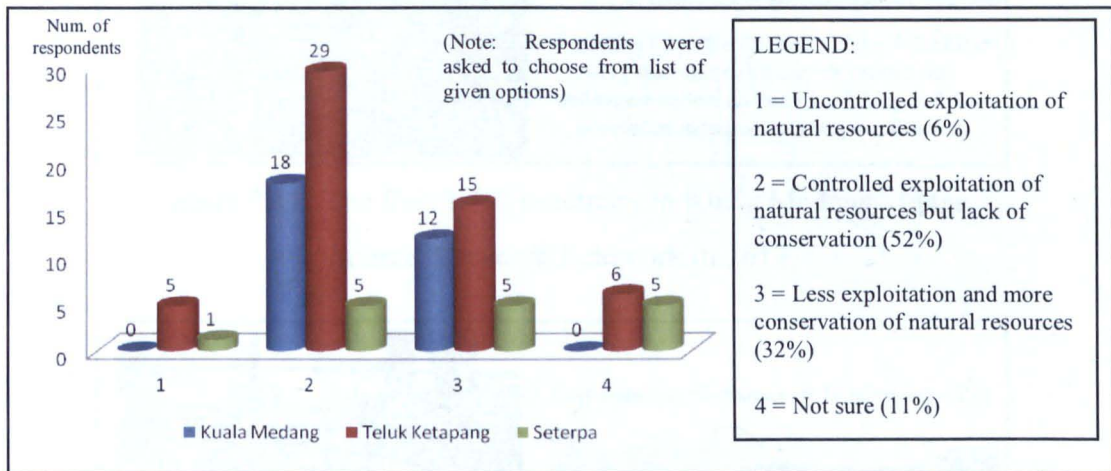
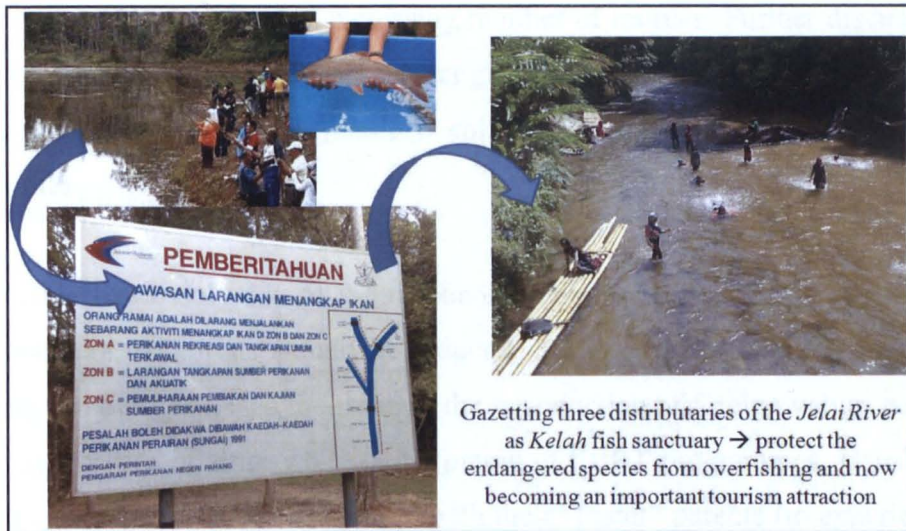


Figure 7.10: Respondents perceptions of current situation on local resource exploitation and conservation (by village). Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

As shown in Figure 7.10, only a small group of the respondents (6%) felt that the exploitation of natural resources in their villages is not properly controlled. This respond is indeed a clear sign of positive aspect of development of CBRT in all three villages. The conservation of natural resources on the other hand, requires some extra work and improvement for the future. Respondents from Teluk Ketapang in particular are aware with the scarcity of natural resources in their village; thus, are taking proactive efforts by minimizing the exploitation of their natural resources. As for Kuala Medang and Seterpa which these villages are blessed with abundant natural resources have shown a growing interest towards conservation and/or finding ways in making conservation as double-edge sword, i.e. for conservation and for economic gains (agriculture and CBRT) (refer to Figure 7.11 and 7.12).



Gazetting three distributaries of the *Jelai River* as *Kelah* fish sanctuary → protect the endangered species from overfishing and now becoming an important tourism attraction

Figure 7.11: The *Kelah* fish sanctuary in Kuala Medang village.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2013.



Cattle grazing → manure → farming activities

Figure 7.12: Cattle grazing activities and manure supply for farming activities in Seterpa village. Source: Research fieldwork in 2013

7.4.7 Expectations of the Future Needs of Tourists

The respondents were asked about their expectations on numbers of future tourists coming to their villages (Figure 7.13). Majority of the respondents agreed that there is a very strong need for more tourists in the future (90%) for continuous development of local tourism activities. From this percentage (90%), 50% agreed that the communities need more tourists, but with certain measures, i.e. thorough identification of local tourism environment threshold for better management of future tourists. This result demonstrates that the communities are now realised the need of proper control and

management of the prospective increasing number of tourists. Further discussion with local CBRT coordinators of Kuala Medang revealed that such measures and control are crucial to maintain and possibly enhance the quality of service in CBRT programmes.

On the other hand, only 5% of the respondents opposed the idea by suggesting that future numbers of tourists should be reduced. Some of CBRT participants in Teluk Ketapang and Seterpa raised the issue of the introduction of foreign values particularly the tourists' choice of attire while participating in CBRT programmes. Usually in any homestay programme, tourists will live with their "foster" parents (to experience local culture); thus it is important that they respect and conform to the local culture to protect the local residents' social setting.

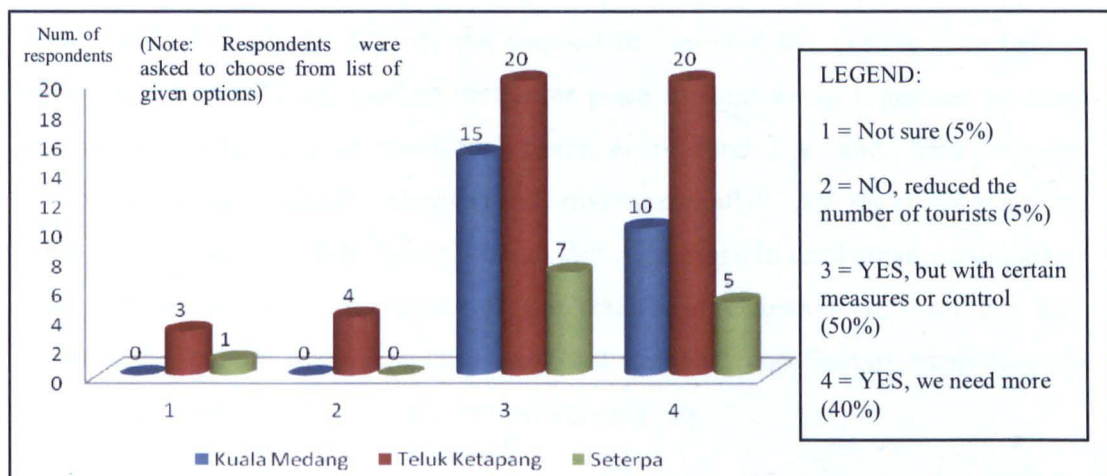


Figure 7.13: Respondents expectations on the future need for tourists (n=85).

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

The respondents perceived that the need for more tourists in future is to be expected, considering inputs gathered from all local CBRT coordinators. With Kuala Medang and Teluk Ketapang currently receiving numbers of tourists below their annual target, and Seterpa has just begun its rural tourism programmes (about three years ago), there is a huge demand for more tourists. The respondents feel that concerns on introduction of foreign culture to the community will need to be addressed via formulation of social indicators in future CBRT programmes.

7.5 COMMUNITY PERCEPTION OF THE CONCEPT OF SUSTAINABLE CBRT

7.5.1 Definition of Sustainable CBRT

The achievement of sustainable CBRT very much depends on how stakeholders perceive the term “sustainable CBRT” itself. The determination of the definition is important initially to alleviate confusion about what forms of tourism are sustainable, as well as to determine the extent to which progress has been made in sustainable CBRT. In this light, the respondents were asked to select from a list of criteria possibly used in formulating the definitions. Similar approach was adopted in defining the sustainable tourism (as presented in Table 2.4).

From Table 7.7, almost 32% of the respondents selected the criteria they believe contributed to CBRT as: tourism that takes place in rural areas; organised by local community; showcases of traditional character of rural life, and; benefiting the community’s economically, socially and environmentally”. All these criteria were included to construct a definition “Tourism that takes place in rural areas, organised by local community with showcases of the traditional character of rural life (art, architecture, culture, natural environment and heritage) and thereby benefiting the community economically, socially and environmentally”.

There are four main elements incorporated in formulating the definition of sustainable CBRT. Firstly, the element of location i.e. where the tourism is taking place, followed by the element of local capacity development and empowerment. Thirdly, maintaining a high level of tourist satisfaction via packaging of tourism resources (attractions) to meet the specific demand, for instance, a new package to cater the needs of Muslim tourists from the Middle Eastern countries which requires a private tour guide, family-sized transportation (mini van), halal cuisines and etc. Finally, the development of sustainable CBRT should benefit the host community and their stakeholders by creating a suitable balance of the three-tiers of sustainability needs (economically, socially and environmentally).

Table 7.7: Respondents perceptions of definition of sustainable CBRT (n = 85)

	Freq.	%
1) Tourism that takes place in rural areas and organised by local community with showcases of the traditional character of rural life (art, architecture, culture, natural environment and heritage), thereby benefiting the community's economically, socially and environmentally.	27	32.0
2) Tourism that take place in rural areas; encouraging conservation of local culture and natural resources to provide bigger benefits to the organiser's community economically, socially and environmentally.	18	21.0
3) Tourism activities with showcases the local traditional characters of rural life; incorporate the local stakeholders in decision-making process and thereby benefiting the organiser's community economically, socially and environmentally.	14	17.0
4) Tourism that takes place in rural areas; with activities mainly portrays traditional character of rural life and thereby benefiting the organiser's community economically, socially and environmentally.	12	14.0
5) Small-scale tourism activities and function to serve rural services and therefore, requires active local stakeholders' engagement in decision-making process.	7	8.0
6) Tourism that takes place in rural areas; with showcases traditional character of rural life and conservation of local culture and natural resources.	7	8.0
Total	85	100.0

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

7.5.2 The Goals of Sustainable CBRT

The community and stakeholders were also asked to describe the best goal and structure of sustainable CBRT. The purpose of this question was to find out from the local point of view any potential targets or goals which later on could be considered in formulating indicators, or strategy for sustainable CBRT management. As presented in Table 7.8, the description "to encourage local participation and empowerment" was most widely recognised by the respondents (91%). Other popular answers selected by more than 50% of respondents were that the sustainable CBRT goal "must contribute or support local development" through jobs provision and ability to sustain good income and improve the quality of life (62%), followed by "tourism that respects local cultures and their environment" (59%).

Table 7.8: Respondents perceptions of the best goal and structure of sustainable CBRT (n = 85)

	Freq.	%
1) To encourage local participation and empowerment	77	91.0
2) Must contribute or support local development (jobs provision, stable income, etc.) and improve the quality of life	53	62.0
3) Tourism that respect local cultures and their environment	50	59.0
4) Owned and managed by community group; or family; or joint venture with other agencies	35	41.0
5) As tools for local conservation (cultural, natural and ecological resources)	15	18.0
6) Most activities must be based on local attractions and resources	10	12.0
7) Involves marginalised group within community (especially women and indigenous people)	10	12.0
8) Involves knowledge and experience sharing	6	7.0

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

The elements of local ownership and control of sustainable CBRT programmes have also received high recognition by the respondents with a 41% selection rate. While, the less preferred goals are “sustainable CBRT as a tool for local conservation” (18%), followed by “sustainable CBRT activities must be based on local attractions and use local resources” (12%), “must involve marginalised groups within community” (12%) and “sustainable CBRT should involve knowledge and experience sharing” (7%).

It can be seen that the results of data analysis have directly supported the primary goals of sustainable CBRT as described in the literature review chapter (Section 2.3.3) and hence point to some interesting findings. For instance, the institutional goal (i.e. local participation and empowerment) was considered by respondents as more important (by more than 28%) than achieving the economic goal (i.e. supporting the local development). This result is a reflection from the previous section (refer to Table 7.7), where respondents interpreted sustainable CBRT as an activity that is closely related with local communities who are involved in organising and managing the activities based on their cultural and surrounding environment. Nonetheless, the economic goals are still considered as being very important in pursuing sustainable CBRT while the environmental goal (i.e. tools for local conservation of cultural, natural and ecological resources) still prove unpopular choices among the respondents.

7.5.3 Incorporating the Sustainability into CBRT

The agenda to incorporate the sustainability concept into CBRT programmes are considered nowadays as no longer solely the duty of top-level decision-makers or experts. The management of tourism needs to apply a more proactive approach, and in this case, a public-government partnership approach could provide broader opportunities for both parties to work together in incorporating the sustainability agenda into CBRT programmes. Hence, the respondents (i.e. stakeholders) were asked to what extent they would agree or disagree with the idea of incorporating sustainability into CBRT.

Replies from the survey (Table 7.9) indicated that 68% of the respondents have recognised the importance of sustainability needs to be incorporated into CBRT. On the other hand, 32% were undecided and none of the respondents indicated that the sustainability concept should be excluded from CBRT programmes. Suffice to say, there was strong support (58%) from the respondents to incorporate sustainability into CBRT.

Table 7.9: Respondents perceptions of the importance of incorporating sustainability needs into CBRT (n = 85)

	Freq.	%	*Freq.	%
Very Important	22	26.0	58	68.0
Important	36	42.0		
Neither important or unimportant	27	32.0		
Total	85	100.0		

(* combinations of two answers)

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

7.5.4 Enablers of Sustainable CBRT

The factors, which support sustainable CBRT, include influential factors or drivers that could positively facilitate sustainable CBRT development. Identification and acknowledgement of specific factors (i.e. in this context those which are unique and reflect tangible trends or values in respective case studies) are essential to promote

effective two-way communication between stakeholders and policy-makers. These factors can also provide useful inputs in order to stop the future planning from just adopting “best practices” from elsewhere which may not suit the local characteristics, values or peculiarities. In this survey, the respondents were asked to identify the main factors in implementing sustainable CBRT. Five supporting factors were identified and listed in order of their frequency of citations (Table 7.10).

Table 7.10: Respondents perceptions of the main supporting factors necessary to carry out sustainable CBRT programmes (n = 85)

	Freq.	%
1) If it gives income stability (and good jobs prospect) and improvement in quality of life	34	40.0
2) If it opens wider opportunity for local communities / stakeholders to be involved in decision-making process	20	24.0
3) If it could assure long-term resource and ecological conservation	17	20.0
4) If it gives greater incentives from the government agencies (financial, marketing and physical facilities)	7	8.0
5) If it improves efficiency of leadership and local tourism action committee	7	8.0
Total	85	100.0

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

As expected, economic aspects (i.e. income stability and improvement in the quality of life) had been mentioned as the main driving forces in carrying out sustainable CBRT (40%). From respondents’ viewpoints, introduction of CBRT has strengthened the rural economy through the creation of new jobs providing satisfactory disposable income. It has also created a platform for growth of many local enterprises. The second most frequently cited driver was the social aspect (i.e. potential for wider opportunity for local people to be involved in decision-making) (24%). The stakeholders’ believed that they might be able to influence the development of CBRT if they were given more opportunity to participate in the development process and this finding has been previously discussed in Figure 7.9 (respondents’ likelihood of being included in decision-making).

The desire “to assure long term resource and ecological conservation” was placed in the third order with 20% of respondents’ acknowledging this. The respondents

believed that by conserving the environment, they would also be protecting their source of income in the long run. Natural resources are often viewed as assets will determine how long CBRT would last for their village. Other supporting factors identified were the potential for a host community to receive more incentives from the government agencies (8%), followed by the potential for a local leadership and tourism action committee to work more efficiently in carrying out sustainable CBRT programmes (8%). Frequently, government investment begins after the community has shown capabilities in developing a tourism niche in their village. Based on interviews, three major types of investments are taking place in the CBRT programmes i.e. physical development schemes (provision of tourism-related infrastructures), financial assistance (micro credit schemes to start and enhance tourism enterprises) and human capital development (training schemes as to encourage participants' self-determination).

7.5.5 Barriers to Sustainable CBRT

The respondents were also asked to identify the main barriers to sustainable CBRT. Based on the survey of stakeholders, six barriers were identified and listed in order of their frequency of mention in Table 7.11. The barrier related with conceptual weakness i.e. "lack of understanding of sustainable CBRT concept" was frequently cited in the survey (34%). Based on discussions with the local CBRT coordinators and academics from local universities, the main reason underlying this statement was the lack of readily available information needed by stakeholders to make choices about which CBRT development options would be more or less sustainable. Limited information and knowledge prompted the stakeholders to adopt a "safe" solution, which in many cases had excluded many sustainability considerations in CBRT programmes. Other barriers, which were frequently cited include, "the degradation of tourism resources" (24%), followed by "poor maintenance of tourism facilities" (18%). Discussions with local CBRT coordinators revealed that the traditional economic systems, especially in farming and forest-related activities, are falling into disuse and no longer hold the key to rural development. However, stable demand for oil palm has created new interest among rural communities and government agencies to utilise the potential of palm oil in a more profitable way. This has led to much rural agriculture lands, especially orchards and secondary forests that had the potential for tourism development, being

converted into palm oil plantations. In addition, three other reasons that were reported with less than 10% frequency during the survey nonetheless still have some degree of importance; i.e. “lack of coordination within community and with related agencies” (7%), followed by “lack of internal support for sustainable CBRT especially from those who are not directly involved” (6%) and “poor tourism services” (6%). The remaining respondents (6%) did not mention any reason.

Table 7.11: Respondents perception of the main constraint in implementing sustainable CBRT (n = 85)

	Freq.	%
1) Lack of understanding of sustainable CBRT concept	29	34.0
2) Degradation of tourism resources (forest area, agriculture land, traditional culture, out-migration, etc.)	20	24.0
3) Poor maintenance of tourism infrastructure and facilities	15	18.0
4) Lack of coordination within community and between communities with agencies	6	7.0
5) Lack of support especially from those who are not directly involved in CBRT programs	5	6.0
6) Poor quality of tourism services	5	6.0
7) No response	5	6.0
Total	85	100.0

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

Based on interviews with local CBRT coordinators, two issues can be identified related with coordination within communities and between communities and agencies. Firstly, one community claimed that whilst they were consulted during the development process, at the end of the day their views and opinions did not necessarily influence the decisions made either by the village action committees or by government agencies. Secondly, one community also claimed that they were often brought into the development process too late to influence the outcomes. The CBRT coordinators agreed that a wider participation is needed and communities should be clearly informed at what stage of the development process their participations are required.

7.5.6 Indicators of Sustainable CBRT

In conducting the survey of local stakeholders, it was important that the respondents be given sufficient guidance or reminders about some key elements of the survey. Lessons from previous work (when conducting the survey of experts) have taught the researcher that explaining the terms “sustainable” and “indicators” is not an easy task. Even the experts themselves have difficulties in defining sustainable CBRT and indicators. Therefore, for the survey of local stakeholders, the researcher provided a specific section to explain in brief the meaning of “sustainable” and “indicators” from a layperson’s perspectives, and later on, used as guidance to the respondents during the survey process (refer Figure 7.14).

Section C: Respondent perception on the concept of Sustainable Community-based Rural Tourism (SCBRT)

Make it simple to a lay person:

i. ***Sustainable:** any actions or activities that contribute to the profitability of economic, socio-cultural, environment and local institution continuously (in a long term period), then how the same profit could be maintain or sustain for the enjoyment of future generation.*

ii. ***An indicator:** is a measure (measurement tool – like a ruler) that be used to measure or describe the progress/performance and current situation of tourism development in your village (either moving towards sustainability or otherwise).*

24. Do you think formulation of indicators is a part of important process in SCBRT programmes? (Please specify reasons for your answer)

Yes, reasons:

No, reasons:

Figure 7.14: Definitions of “sustainable” and “an indicator” in the survey form.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

Although these definitions of “sustainable” and “indicators” are more elaborate than presented in much of the literature, they have nonetheless proved to be very helpful. Observation showed that, respondents constantly referred to this section whilst answering questions related to sustainable CBRT and indicators of sustainable CBRT.

a. Indicators of sustainable CBRT

The respondents' common understanding of the sustainable CBRT concept was further tested throughout this section, i.e. to identify perceptions of the importance of having indicators (or a set of indicators) for sustainable CBRT programmes. The analysis of results (Figure 7.15) shows that more than 77% of the respondents believed that it was important to have indicators for sustainable CBRT programmes, whilst only 8% believed otherwise. The remaining 14% of respondents were undecided. The detailed analysis has revealed three reasons for respondents' growing interest in having indicators for sustainable CBRT:

- 1) Indicators could be a powerful tool to assist local stakeholders in assessing progress towards sustainable CBRT target/goals; CBRT programmes are either moving towards sustainability or otherwise.
- 2) Indicators might be able to highlight particular issues regarding sustainable CBRT programmes; the relationship between CBRT issues and sustainability can educate local stakeholders towards a better understanding of sustainable development.
- 3) Indicators might be able to deliver important information (based on reasons 1 and 2) to be considered during the decision-making process; hence, they would improve the management of sustainable CBRT in the long run.

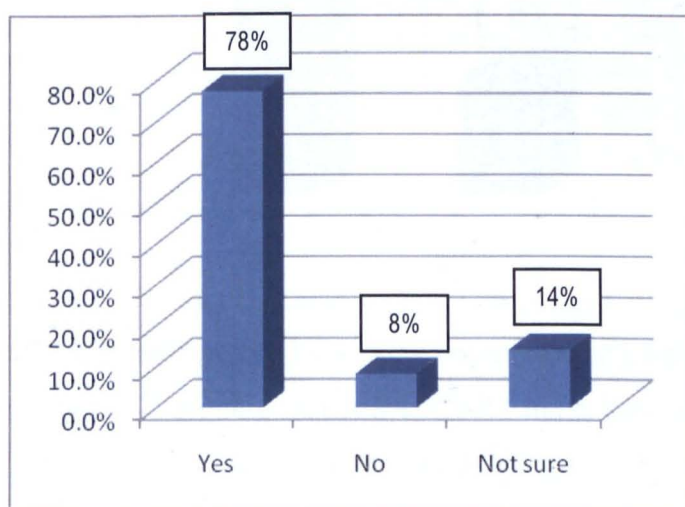


Figure 7.15: Respondents perceptions of the importance of indicators in sustainable CBRT programmes (n = 85). *Source:* Research fieldwork in 2010.

As shown in Figure 7.15, only 8% of respondents disagreed with the idea of having indicators in sustainable CBRT programmes, and their main reason was lack of confidence with the capability and efficiency of indicators to improve the CBRT programmes in their village in the future. Interestingly, one particular issue noted by all respondents during the survey (whether supporting, rejecting or undecided on indicators) was their lack of understanding of how indicators would work and how local people could utilise the indicators to measure the performance of CBRT programmes. This significant finding, therefore, will be taken into account by the researcher especially when beginning to design a framework for the development of sustainable CBRT indicators later on.

b. Local stakeholders' involvement in designing sustainable CBRT indicators

The respondents were asked to assess the importance of involving stakeholders in designing sustainable CBRT indicators from a list of options. As presented in Figure 7.16, 71% respondents agreed that in order for stakeholders to have influence over the development of sustainable CBRT indicators, they must get involved in the development process. Meanwhile, 29% of respondents remained unsure.

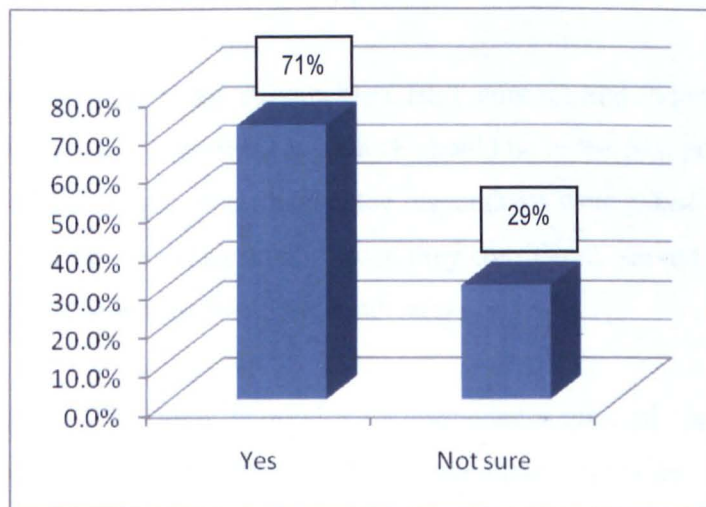


Figure 7.16: Respondents perceptions of the importance of local stakeholders' involvement in designing sustainable CBRT indicators (n = 85).

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

A majority of respondents believed that local stakeholders' involvement in designing indicators is crucial based on the following arguments. Firstly, stakeholders' long-term engagement with local and surrounding environment qualifies them as reliable source

to identify major tourism and sustainability issues at local level. Secondly, the indicators development process must reflect local community values, concerns and hopes for the future. Such consideration is crucial to ensure the effectiveness of proposed indicators. The issue on use of indicators by local stakeholders are discussed in later section (Chapter 9) via proposal of site-specific indicators. Thirdly, stakeholders' participation could potentially encourage capacity building and empowerment in the community. Once the community becomes more empowered, it is believed that the community will be more independent and able to carry out sustainable CBRT agenda even after financial support from aid agencies stops.

Finally, stakeholders' meaningful interactive participation will enhance effective communication; hence bridging the gap between researchers, policy-makers and user groups in understanding major issues related to sustainable CBRT. In addition, this finding has also proved that the participation of the local stakeholders and host communities in a sustainable CBRT programmes is important, as discussed in the literature review chapter (Section 2.3.5).

7.5.7 Selection of Major Agencies to Implement Sustainable CBRT Indicators

A common understanding of the sustainable CBRT concept and indicators will then lead to identifying the key person/agency which should be in the best position to carry out sustainable CBRT programmes; hence, the respondents were asked to identify (by ranking the relevant parties or agencies), which they considered should be responsible for implementing of the sustainable CBRT indicators.

As shown in Figure 7.17, more than 55% of respondents selected 'establishment of partnership between local community and the government agencies' as the priority implementing parties, followed by local authority or district council (52%) and the Ministry of Tourism Malaysia (MOTOUR) (51%). The respondents have also chosen two other parties, whom they recognised as important in carrying out the sustainable CBRT agenda, i.e. the partnership between local community and the private sectors (50%) and the Institute for Rural Advancement (INFRA) of the Ministry of Rural and Regional Development (MRRD) of Malaysia (37%).

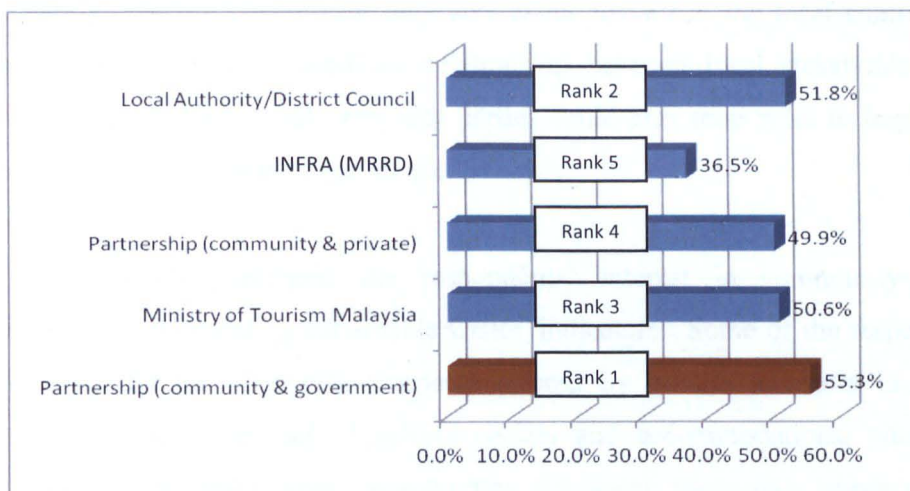


Figure 7.17: Respondents perceptions of which parties or agencies are most able to carry out sustainable CBRT programmes (n = 85).

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

The respondents' acknowledgement of partnership with government agencies, however, was expected by this research, as at present there are many ongoing partnerships in CBRT projects are being carried out between local stakeholders and government agencies in the study areas (refer to Chapter 4 for detail discussions). In almost all cases, local stakeholders have to work closely with a group of government officers during the process of planning, development and management of CBRT programmes.

Based on informal discussions and interviews with CBRT coordinators in Kuala Medang and Teluk Ketapang, the partnership usually begins when the local committee first identifies the tourism potentials in their village. Proposals are constructed and later forwarded to the MOTOUR, local authorities and other government agencies such as MRRD, Ministry of Agriculture, etc. These agencies then evaluate the feasibilities of proposed CBRT projects before any decision is made; either to proceed with full grants, or partial partnership with the locals. Government interventions are considered as crucial, especially during the early stage of CBRT development. Local stakeholders in many cases are very much dependent on government grants for tourism infrastructure development such as buildings, road and public transportation systems and training for participants. However, after a certain periods, local stakeholders (through the CBRT committee) are expected to be able to manage CBRT business

independently, and the government only acts as an advisor to the local committees. Because of the long and established relationship between local stakeholders and government, respondents considered both parties could play their roles to implement sustainable CBRT indicators in the future.

The interviews also indicated the respondents' interest in community-private partnerships in implementing sustainable CBRT indicators. Some of the respondents are convinced by the economic prospects offered by private investors in CBRT projects through development of private chalets and accommodations, which are creating new jobs and bigger opportunities for local home-stay operators and entrepreneurs to market their products. However, others also believed that economic reasons were often overshadowed by negative social changes faced by the local community. For example, it is possible for the local community to lose control over sustainable CBRT management and in implementing indicators, especially with greater roles played by private investors. Thus, from being the main organisers they might change to merely carrying out the investors' agendas.

7.6 COMMUNITY EVALUATION AND RANKING OF SUSTAINABLE CBRT INDICATORS

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, the list of indicators formulated for evaluation and ranking by local communities of the three villages and their stakeholders are derived from Stage 1: Round 2 of the Delphi exercise. In Stage 1: Round 2, a panel of experts independently reviewed, selected and ranked all Criteria and indicators. From 64 indicators originally identified based on extensive review of the literature, about 47 indicators had been revised and short-listed as "important" at the end of Round 2 (refer to Table 6.4 - Summary of the list of important indicators). The issue of redundancy and modification of indicators was resolved before the list is given to the local communities.

Data analysis using index score involved evaluation and ranking of 47 important indicators by the local stakeholders as recommended by the experts' panel (discussed in previous chapter). All eighty-five (85) respondents were asked to answer a

questionnaire during pre-scheduled meetings with the researcher. The selections of answers in the questionnaire are based on Likert scale with the range from 1 to 5 (Table 7.12). The range is determined based on thorough consideration by the researcher in order to achieve the research objectives.

Table 7.12: Description of the *Likert scale* range and score value

Likert scale	Description	Score value (identified during data analysis stage)
1	Not important	1
2	Minimal important	2
3	Slightly important	2
4	Moderate importance	2
5	Very important	3

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

The determination of index score values for each scale or category of answers is formulated during the later stage of data collection that is before data analysis process. This time gap in determining index score values and respondents answer categories is to allow the researcher to review the after-fieldwork information; including the respondents' feedback and personal observation before deciding on index score values for every answer category. Prior to data analysis process, the study has decided to implement three ranges of index scores in ranking of indicators. Many of respondents indicated that they faced some difficulties selecting scale 2 (minimal important), 3 (slightly important) and 4 (moderate important) as their answers. They were unable to distinct the difference between an indicator being minimally important, slightly important or moderately important (Research fieldwork in 2010). Hence, their answers did not really represent their opinion in determining the level of importance of some indicators. To address this issue, these three (3) scales i.e. scale 2, 3 and 4 are given an equal index value of 2. Scale 1 (Not important) and 5 (Very important) are given index value of 1 and 3 respectively, as these choices are easier to determine.

This study has also applied Likert scale approach to create indexes. Scale and indexes according to Neuman (2011: 230) "could improve reliability and validity". An index uses multiple indicators, which improved reliability. The use of multiple indicators that measures several aspects of a construct or opinion improves content validity. Finally,

the index scores give a more precise quantitative measures of a person's opinion. For example, we can measure a person's opinion with a number from 10 to 40 instead of in four categories: "strongly agree", "agree", "disagree", "strongly disagree".

During the local stakeholders' survey, the respondents were asked to assess and rank forty-seven (47) indicators for sustainable CBRT based on the SMART concept (previously explained in Chapter 3). It is expected that the indicators ranked as "very important" to meet all criteria of SMART concept i.e. simple and represent what it measured, accessibility of data and information, relevant to describe issues and indicators that can show trends over time. However, further analysis revealed that this is not necessarily the case. This issue will be discussed under each category of indicators accordingly. Each answer is scored using index values as illustrated in Table 7.12.

7.6.1 Result of Respondents' Rank of Environment Indicators

There are six indicators for this category, which could provide measurement for evaluating local CBRT environment status. Refer to Table 7.13 for detailed list of indicators.

Table 7.13: Index analysis of environment indicators

Criteria	Environmental Indicators	Respondents' rank of indicators (n=85)					Total score value (per indicator)
		Score value=1	Score value=2			Score value=3	
		Not important	Slightly important	Minimal importance	Moderate Importance	Very important	
C-1: Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality	1. Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity	0	0	0	0	255	255
	2. Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour	0	0	2	14	231	247
	3. Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials	0	0	10	56	156	222
	4. Management of household and tourism waste	0	0	0	134	54	188
	5. Maintain the	0	14	50	70	54	188

	environmental carrying capacity						
	6. Changes in environmental quality (water and air)	0	0	74	92	6	172
	Total score value for C-1	0	14	136	366	756	1272

Scoring: For all items, Not important = 1, Slightly important & Minimal importance & Important = 2, Very important = 3.

Highest Possible Index Score per indicator: $3 \times 85 = 255$, respondents ranked the indicator as highly importance / priority for sustainable CBRT program.

Lowest Possible Index Score per indicator: $1 \times 85 = 85$, respondents ranked the indicator as not important for sustainable CBRT program.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

Based on the index analysis, only one indicator; “Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity” is ranked as “very important” by all respondents which carried out an index score value per indicator of 255 points. This also means the indicator has fulfilled almost all criteria as mentioned or required by the SMART concept in assessing and ranking of indicators. Meanwhile, the remaining five indicators of this category are ranked as “important” by the respondents, i.e. “Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour” (247 points), followed by “Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials” (222 points), followed by “Management of household and tourism waste” (188 points), “Maintain the environmental carrying capacity” (188 points) and finally “Changes in environmental quality (water and air)” (172 points).

Table 7.14: Analysis of environment indicators

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents' feedback
C-1: Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality	1. Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is ranked as very important for CBRT. Local biodiversity must be protected, conserved and managed in a sustainable manner. ▪ This indicator is relevant because the long term success of CBRT highly depending on high quality of local biodiversity.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

As shown in Table 7.14, respondents assessed this indicator as highly important and relevant to address issues of relationship between CBRT and its surrounding environment and resources. This indicator could assist local hosts to realised their long-term goal and priority of developing CBRT i.e. not solely for local economy development but also for protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity as well. However, from the researcher point of view, there could be a challenge for local hosts to apply this indicator hence reflecting what is in reality due to lack of accessible information to support the applicability of the indicator. This opinion is supported by one of the field experts (i.e. experts who participated in Delphi exercise) during follow-up interviews who agreed information of such nature, i.e. inventories of local biodiversity might not be available and accessible to the local community as it is normally prepared by Department of Environment, Government of Malaysia.

Table 7.15: Analysis of environment indicators

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents' feedback
C-1: Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality	2. Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour (RTB)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ RTB is an important and relevant indicator for CBRT program since all villages received tourists from different culture/nations. ▪ Host community wants visitors to acknowledge and respect local sensitivity while maintaining high tourist satisfaction. ▪ Using feedback form is one of simple and understandable data collection method. Easier to establish trends over time.
	3. Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Could be an important indicator for CBRT programme but not in urgent need for implementation because so far there is no issue regarding pollution from hazardous materials in CBRT. ▪ Challenges / issues – no data available, lack of knowledge and no handling facilities.
	4. Management of household and tourism waste	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is regarded as important and relevant for assessment of environment status of CBRT. ▪ All villages have proper waste disposal system (for household) and data on number of garbage bins provided by local authority and collection schedule.
	5. Maintain the environmental carrying capacity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ A relevant indicator but not in urgent need because respondents felt that current number of visitors is still within their capability to accommodate.
	6. Changes in environmental quality (water and air)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Could be important for CBRT but not in urgent need for implementation for the time being. ▪ Respondents cannot determine scientifically the changes (if happen) without proper measurement tools.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

As presented in Table 7.15, all five indicators are considered as “important” to respondents, however, certain areas measured by these indicators are showing some shortcomings including:

- 1) Data and information, which are needed to assess the indicators, are not available, or if the data is available, it could be difficult to get access or it might take a long time to acquire.
- 2) All indicators are acknowledged as important and relevant for CBRT but not necessarily interest the respondents for immediate application (not in urgent need). Some respondents felt that indicator such as management of hazardous materials is important but not critical since currently CBRT practices are not producing hazardous materials or pollution.
- 3) There is a concern for some indicators especially how it could be applied for quantitative measurement of CBRT for instance how to quantify responsible tourist behaviour, etc.

7.6.2 Result of Respondents’ Rank of Social Indicators

There are twenty-eight (28) indicators for this category, which could be used to evaluate the performance of local CBRT social status (Table 7.16).

Table 7.16: Index analysis of social indicators

Criteria	Social Indicators	Respondents’ rank of indicators (n=85)					Total score value (per indicator)
		Score value=1	Score value=2			Score value=3	
		Not important	Slightly important	Minimal importance	Moderate Importance	Very important	
C-2: Local communities’ well-being	1. Access to local amenities	0	0	0	0	255	255
	2. Housing quality for sustainable CBRT/Home stay participants	0	0	0	0	255	255
	3. Education of local communities	0	0	0	0	255	255

	4. Presence of indigenous / minority groups in sustainable CBRT	0	0	0	24	219	243
	5. Local share in the use and enjoyment of the sustainable CBRT activities	0	0	34	26	165	225
	Total score value for C-2	0	0	34	50	1149	1233
C-3: Community participation in sustainable CBRT development	6. Community acceptance of sustainable CBRT programmes (including non-participants)	0	0	0	0	255	255
	7. Local community ownership of sustainable CBRT projects	0	0	2	12	234	248
	8. Involvement of women, youth and minority groups	0	0	2	42	189	233
	9. Operation of tourism businesses by locals and their contribution to the locals' well-being	0	0	0	48	183	231
	10. Improvement of local human capital	0	0	6	124	60	190
	11. Local understanding / awareness of sustainable CBRT issues	0	0	16	120	51	187
	Total score value for C-3	0	0	26	346	972	1344

(continued)

Table 7.16: Continued

Criteria	Social Indicators	Respondents' rank of indicators (n=85)					Total score value (per indicator)
		Score value=1	Score value=2			Score value=3	
		Not important	Slightly important	Minimal importance	Moderate Importance	Very important	
C-4: Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values	12. Respect towards land and property right of local hosts	0	0	0	0	255	255
	13. Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion	0	0	0	0	255	255
	14. Promotion of local culture, events and history in sustainable CBRT development	0	0	0	16	231	247
	15. Use of local resources/ materials for handicraft production	0	0	4	42	186	232
	16. Encouragement of the continuity of traditional skills	0	0	24	104	63	191
	17. Establishment of education and training programmes – improvement in knowledge of socio-cultural resource management	0	0	0	152	27	179
	18. Conservation of local architecture identity	0	4	28	130	12	174
	Total score value for C-4	0	4	56	444	1029	1533
C-5: Visitors' safety	19. Capability of sustainable CBRT programs in conducting 'search and rescue' for visitors	0	0	0	6	246	252
	20. Complaint/feedback on visitors' safety	0	0	0	14	234	248
	21. Standard of environmental hygiene	0	0	0	16	231	247
	22. Availability of safety notices and publication of safety information	0	0	50	98	33	181
	23. Capability of sustainable CBRT regarding prevention of infectious diseases	0	0	86	78	9	173
	Total score value for C-5	0	0	136	212	753	1101

(continued)

Table 7.16: Continued

Criteria	Social Indicators	Respondents' rank of indicators (n=85)					Total score value (per indicator)
		Score value=1	Score value=2			Score value=3	
		Not important	Slightly important	Minimal importance	Moderate Importance	Very important	
C-6: Consumer/ Tourist satisfaction	24. Quality of facilities, services and activities	0	0	0	6	246	252
	25. Willingness to return as repeating tourist	0	0	0	0	255	255
	26. Tourists' satisfaction of the overall tourism experience	0	0	0	6	246	252
	27. Improvement in tourists' understanding and knowledge about other cultures, communities and environment	0	0	0	20	225	245
	28. Expenditure by tourists	0	0	0	22	222	244
	Total score value for C-6	0	0	0	54	1194	1248

Scoring: For all items, Not important = 1, Slightly important & Minimal importance & Important = 2, Very important = 3.

Highest Possible Index Score per indicator = 3×85 (255), respondents ranked the indicator as highly importance / priority for sustainable CBRT program.

Lowest Possible Index Score per indicator = 1×85 (85), respondents ranked the indicator as not important for sustainable CBRT program.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

Table 7.16 illustrates that seven (7) indicators are ranked as “very important” by all respondents, which has an index score value per indicator of 255 points (maximum possible point). These indicators are listed as follows:

- ◆ Number 1: Access to local amenities
- ◆ Number 2: Housing quality for sustainable CBRT/Home stay participants
- ◆ Number 3: Education of local communities
- ◆ Number 6: Community acceptance of sustainable CBRT programmes (including non-participants)
- ◆ Number 12: Respect towards land and property right of local hosts
- ◆ Number 13: Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion
- ◆ Number 25: Willingness to return as repeating tourist

Feedbacks from the respondents were quite clear with what is actually measured by each of these seven indicators. In this light, each indicator are checked and seem to fulfil almost all criteria as mentioned by SMART concept in assessing and ranking of indicators (detail description and justification are presented in Table 7.17).

Table 7.17: Analysis of social indicators

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents' feedback
C-2: Local communities' well-being	1: Access to local amenities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important by respondents. ▪ This indicator is relevant and needed to describe issues related to accessibility to local amenities. ▪ Local communities use a booking system to plan activities involving the usage of local amenities.
	2: Housing quality for sustainable CBRT/Home stay participants	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important by respondents. ▪ This indicator is considered relevant, measurable based on available information (number of houses, number of homestay, etc.). ▪ Can show trends over time (number of houses have been repaired, new building, etc.). ▪ Every homestay participant has to comply with requirement by the MOTOUR to get their operation permit, i.e. house with an extra guest room, complete with bathroom and toilet facilities.
	3: Education of local communities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important by respondents, relevant and measurable based on available information (education background of local hosts, etc.).
C-3: Community participation in sustainable CBRT development	6: Community acceptance of sustainable CBRT programmes (including non-participants)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important by respondents. ▪ This indicator is considered relevant because long-term success of CBRT is very much depending on local support. ▪ However, there is an issue of how to measure people acceptance and avoid biases. ▪ Can show trends over time (level of community acceptance before and after CBRT in operation).
C-4: Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values	12: Respect towards land and property right of local hosts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important, relevant but need to be clear on how to measure level of respect. ▪ Can show trends over time
	13: Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important and relevant to address relationship between CBRT and cultural sustainability. ▪ Can show trends over time ▪ Data collected from inventory of cultural resources.
C-6: Consumer/Tourist satisfaction	25: Willingness to return as repeating tourist	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered as very important and relevant to address tourist's willingness to return as repeated tourist. ▪ Can show trends over time ▪ Data collected from feedback form. ▪ Not many tourists have returned as repeating tourist.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

The above table represents the list of social indicators which identified as “most important” towards a sustainable CBRT. Even though the listed indicators were given highly index score, further investigation using respondents’ feedbacks and comments had highlighted one common concern i.e. the importance of preparing and having appropriate data to assist assessment of social elements, which relate to people perception. This form of data would be crucial in dealing with questions of “community acceptance” or “level of respect” or “willingness of a person” and so on. Similar consideration should need to be given when describing the element of culture or social aspects, which can be subjective in nature. The table also mentioned about respondents’ suggestion of using feedback forms as data collection tool, which is a good approach in obtaining such information. Other indicators such as “housing quality” and “access education and amenities”, on the other hand, are recorded data, which are accessible to the local communities. Such information are required by related government agencies when disseminating funds for upgrading housing quality of homestay operators and providing amenities and other infrastructure facilities for local people.

Evaluation on feedbacks and comments given by respondents for the remaining list of indicators from this category is presented as table below:

Table 7.18: Analysis of social indicators

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents’ feedback
C-2: Local communities’ well-being	4: Presence of indigenous / minority groups in sustainable CBRT	▪ This indicator is important since CBRT program always encourage commitment and support from minority groups to contribute their ideas.
	5: Local share in the use and enjoyment of the sustainable CBRT activities	▪ This indicator is important since CBRT activities normally conducted and controlled by the CBRT committee, there is no restriction for locals to share and use the facilities for other activities.
C-3: Community participation in sustainable CBRT development	7: Local community ownership of sustainable CBRT projects	▪ This indicator is important since CBRT maintain local ownership especially homestay project and the local small and medium enterprises (SMEs). ▪ Limited ownership by investors from outside of communities (tour agents, bus and taxi operators).
	8: Involvement of women, youth and minority groups	▪ This indicator is important since CBRT encourages involvement of women, youth and minority groups.
	9: Operation of tourism businesses by locals and their contribution to the locals’ well-being	▪ This indicator is important since CBRT projects are managed by the community through specific bureau (CBRT committee). ▪ Private businesses related to CBRT mostly owned and operated by locals/CBRT participants.
	10: Improvement of local human capital	▪ This indicator is important since CBRT program provides local workers, managers and entrepreneurs.

	11: Local understanding / awareness of sustainable CBRT issues	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important and CBRT issues mainly concerned top management and those who are having direct investment on tourism activities. ▪ Local people became uneasy about the dress code of foreign tourists during their stay at the village (what is acceptable from the local point of view and what is not).
C-4: Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values	14: Promotion of local culture, events and history in sustainable CBRT development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important and considered as main attraction of CBRT.
	15: Use of local resources/ materials for handicraft production	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important to manage local resources. Raw materials for craft products originated from local sources for instance bamboo, wood, rattan and rubber leafs. ▪ However, colours/dyes, white cloths for batik workshop are bought from suppliers.
	16: Encouragement of the continuity of traditional skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important since CBRT programs have encouraged the continuation of traditional skills especially by the younger generations.
	17: Establishment of education and training programmes – improvement in knowledge of socio-cultural resource management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ No comment given
	18: Conservation of local architecture identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important however, it is not considered as a urgent focus by respondents/not in urgent need.
C-5: Visitors' safety	19: Capability of sustainable CBRT programs in conducting 'search and rescue' for visitors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important and each village has a night guard/voluntarily patrol squad to guard the village.
	20: Complaint/feedback on visitors' safety	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important because visitors' safety will not be compromised especially when the conditions are not permitted certain activities to be carried out (bad weather, health condition, etc.). ▪ Feedback from visitors is crucial to improve CBRT services and quality.
	21: Standard of environmental hygiene	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ No comment given
	22: Availability of safety notices and publication of safety information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important and all three villages have provided safety notices and information about safety at strategic locations/tourists' main attractions (near the beach, river, fishponds, workshops, etc.).
	23: Capability of sustainable CBRT regarding prevention of infectious diseases	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important; however, local communities did not have specific knowledge and information.
C-6: Consumer/Tourist satisfaction	24: Quality of facilities, services and activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important since the reputation of the village very much depend on quality of facilities and services.
	26: Tourists' satisfaction of the overall tourism experience	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is important; however satisfaction is a subjective matter and different people might have different opinion.
	27: Improvement in tourists' understanding and knowledge about other cultures, communities and environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ No comment given

	28: Expenditure by tourists	▪ This indicator is important because CBRT generate income from tourist expenditures. Tourists normally spend extra money for buying souvenirs.
--	-----------------------------	---

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

Based on the above table, further analysis has identified the following scenarios:

1. There were indicators that require data and information to function which at the time being (data and information) are not available, or if the data is available, it could be difficult to get access to it, or it might take more time to acquire.
2. There are issues of indicators being subjective and difficult to quantify especially indicators, which related to perceptions and cultural values. The question is on how these types of indicators could be applied for measurement of CBRT (quantitatively).

7.6.3 Result of Respondents' Rank of Economy Indicators

There are six indicators under this category, which could be used to evaluate the local CBRT economy. Refer to Table 7.19 for detailed list of indicators.

Table 7.19: Index analysis of economy indicators

Criteria	Economy Indicators	Respondents' rank of indicators (n=85)					Total score value (per indicator)
		Score value=1	Score value=2		Score value=3		
		Not important	Slightly important	Minimal importance	Moderate Importance	Very important	
C-7: Economic benefits to the local communities' and sustainable CBRT participant	1. Diversification of tourism activities and products	0	0	0	0	255	255
	2. Economic performance – improvement of average earnings	0	0	0	0	255	255
	3. Local employment in sustainable CBRT programmes	0	0	0	0	255	255
	4. Provision of funding for training, marketing and product development	0	0	0	16	231	247

	5. Investment in sustainable CBRT projects	0	0	0	34	204	238
	6. Domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors	0	0	4	110	84	198
	Total score value score for C-7	0	0	4	160	1284	1448

Scoring: For all items, Not important = 1, Slightly important & Minimal importance & Important = 2, Very important = 3.

Highest Possible Index Score per indicator = 3*85 (255), respondents ranked the indicator as highly importance / priority for sustainable CBRT program.

Lowest Possible Index Score per indicator = 1*85 (85), respondents ranked the indicator as not important for sustainable CBRT program.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

Based on the index analysis, three indicators are ranked as “very important” by all respondents i.e. “diversification of tourism activities and products”, “economic performance – improvement of average earnings” and “local employment in sustainable CBRT program” which all received an index score value of 255 points. This also means each indicator has fulfilled all criteria suggested by SMART concept in assessing and ranking the indicators. Meanwhile, the remaining three (3) indicators of this category are ranked as “important” by the respondents, i.e. “provision of funding for training, marketing and product development” (247 points), “investment in sustainable CBRT projects” (238 points) and “domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors” (198 points) are ranked as “important” by the respondents.

Further analysis suggested that all the three indicators, which are ranked as “very important” under this category, represent all criteria of SMART concept. The respondents feel that these indicators are simple and understandable which they have and are able to acquire the relevant data for measurement. Furthermore, indicators are also relevant to describe issue under investigation and capable to show trends over time (Table 7.20).

Table 7.20: Analysis of economy indicators

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents' feedback
C-7: Economic benefits to the local communities' and sustainable CBRT participant	1. Diversification of tourism activities and products	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ All respondents regarded this indicator as very important for CBRT program and very relevant to address CBRT performance. ▪ This indicator is easy to understand and capable to show trend over time. ▪ Relevant data are available and in form that can be measured including list of firms, types and number of products, etc.
	2. Economic performance – improvement of average earnings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ All respondents regarded this indicator as very important for CBRT program and very relevant to address CBRT performance. ▪ This indicator is easy to understand and capable to show trend over time. ▪ Relevant data are available and in form that can be measured including average monthly household income for CBRT participants.
	3. Local employment in sustainable CBRT programmes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ All respondents regarded this indicator as very important for CBRT program and very relevant to address CBRT performance. ▪ This indicator is easy to understand and capable to show trend over time. ▪ Relevant data are available and in form that can be measured including types and number of jobs created by CBRT activities, number of local workforce, average new jobs created, unemployment rate, etc.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

As for the remaining three other indicators i.e. indicator number 4, 5, and 6, which are ranked as “important” by respondents (Table 7.21), further discussion with the respondents have revealed two (2) main issues that emerged during the selection and ranking of indicators process, namely:

1. Some data and information, which were needed to operate the indicators, are not available, or if the data is available, it could be difficult to get access or it might take a longer time to acquire. This concern was tangible based on feedbacks recorded for respondents' assessment of all three indicators.
2. All the three indicators may be identified as important and relevant for CBRT program, however there is a question of how these indicators could be applied for actual measurement and assessment of CBRT.

Table 7.21: Analysis of economy indicators

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents' feedback
C-7: Economic benefits to the local communities' and sustainable CBRT participant	4. Provision of funding for training, marketing and product development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered important by respondents. ▪ Data from local hosts could be accessed but the data from other agencies involved in training/marketing/product development could take longer time. ▪ This indicator is relevant and needed to show the importance of having funding for CBRT development.
	5. Investment in sustainable CBRT projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered important by respondents. ▪ To assist measurement process, some data might be available including status of investment, ownership, number of projects, on-going investment, etc. ▪ However, data involving private investment might not be available/hard to access. ▪ Indicator is relevant and needed to show investment intention and trends over time.
	6. Domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Could be an important indicator for CBRT program. Relevant to show linkages between CBRT and local economy activities. ▪ Respondents in general are understood by the meaning of this indicator. ▪ Main issue is difficulty to obtain information from various sources. So far most information just in form of qualitative and this make it difficult to establish trends over time.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

7.6.4 Result of Respondents' Rank of Institution Indicators

Seven (7) indicators are short-listed under institution category, and which then ranked by the local stakeholders according to their importance in evaluating institutional aspect of CBRT (refer to Table 7.22 for detailed list of indicators).

Table 7.22: Index analysis of institution indicators

Criteria	Institution Indicators	Respondents' rank of indicators (n=85)					Total score value (per indicator)
		Score value=1	Score value=2			Score value=3	
		Not important	Slightly important	Minimal importance	Moderate Importance	Very important	
C-8: Sustainable CBRT planning and management	1. Partnership in sustainable CBRT planning and management process	0	0	0	0	255	255
	2. Improvement of local transport quality and services	0	0	0	0	255	255
	3. Land use planning for sustainable	0	0	0	4	249	253

	CBRT and their surrounding areas						
	4. Management plan for sustainable CBRT changing hotspots	0	0	22	122	39	183
	5. Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas	0	0	0	152	27	179
	6. Practice of sustainable design in CBRT projects	0	12	28	124	9	173
	7. Development control in sustainable CBRT projects	0	0	62	108	0	170
	Total score value for C-8	0	12	112	510	834	1468

Scoring: For all items, Not important = 1, Slightly important & Minimal importance & Important = 2, Very important = 3.

Highest Possible Index Score per indicator = 3×85 (255), respondents ranked the indicator as highly importance / priority for sustainable CBRT program.

Lowest Possible Index Score per indicator = 1×85 (85), respondents ranked the indicator as not important for sustainable CBRT program.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

Based on the index analysis, two indicators are ranked as “very important” by all respondents i.e. number 1 - “partnership in sustainable CBRT planning and management” and number 2 - “improvement of local transport quality and services” which both have received an index score value per indicator of 255 points. The remaining five indicators of this category are ranked as “important” by the respondents, i.e. indicator number 3 – “Land use planning for sustainable CBRT and their surrounding areas” (253 points), number 4 – “Management plan for sustainable CBRT changing hotspots” (183 points) , number 5 – “Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas” (179 points), number 6 – “Practice of sustainable design in CBRT projects” (172 points) and number 7 – “Development control in sustainable CBRT projects” (170 points). None of the listed indicators under this category is ranked below “important” status or received index score of 85 points or below.

Table 7.23: Analysis of institution indicators

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents' feedback
C-8: Sustainable CBRT planning and management	1. Partnership in sustainable CBRT planning and management process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ All respondents regarded this indicator as very important for CBRT program and very relevant to address CBRT performance. ▪ This indicator is easy to understand and capable to show trend over time. ▪ Relevant data including list of projects' partners, year of partnership, share/ownership, etc. are available and accessible for local hosts. ▪ Partnership with government agencies and private investors allowed local hosts to expand businesses and explored new markets.
	2. Improvement of local transport quality and services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ All respondents regarded this indicator as very important for CBRT program and very relevant to address CBRT performance. ▪ This indicator is easy to understand and capable to show trend over time. ▪ Relevant data including numbers of local bus and taxi stops, estimation cost for providing and upgrading transport infrastructures, and bus schedules are available from bus operators; however there is a challenge of getting data from private transport operators (buses and taxis) since they do not usually have detail schedule.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010.

Further discussions with the respondents have revealed that:

1. CBRT participants have enjoyed huge benefits through partnership of CBRT projects with either government agencies (fund, training, promotion and marketing) or private investors (joint management and ownership). The establishment of local tour agent in Teluk Ketapang and food making (Seterpa) and craft workshop (Kuala Medang) are among evidence that partnership could help local hosts in expanding their activities and exploring new markets for their CBRT program.
2. All villages are highly accessible by local public transport system. However, the researcher's concern is with regards to the issue of how the respondents could acquire relevant data to measure or quantify the quality of local transport services.

As for a group of indicators which are ranked as "important" for assessment of CBRT performance, analysis on feedbacks of respondents uncovered that main shortcoming

for an indicator to be given higher index score value is because of the issue relating to access to relevant information especially indicators number 5, 6 and 7. With limited data and right information due to difficulty to gain access, it would be hard for indicator to function in assessing the performance of CBRT activities. Meanwhile for indicators number 4, 5 and 6, many respondents have expressed their concern about the issue of time frame i.e. either those indicators are applicable and/or capable to show results within the giving period, or they might take more time to show substantial results to the CBRT operators and the community (Table 7.24).

Table 7.24: Analysis of institution criteria

Criteria	Indicators	Respondents' feedback
C-8: Sustainable CBRT planning and management	3. Land use planning for sustainable CBRT and their surrounding areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered important by respondents. ▪ Indicator is relevant and needed to show land use change and patterns/trends over time. ▪ However respondents stated that they might need more information about surrounding land use.
	4. Management plan for sustainable CBRT changing hotspots	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is considered important and relevant by respondents to address the issue of changing hotspots. ▪ However respondents think it might not in an urgent need (may be need later on) as they are currently offering various packages for tourists based on clusters of resources and activities. ▪ This indicator could take some time to show results.
	5. Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Considered as important indicator for CBRT program with availability of relevant data and information. ▪ All villages have their own land use plan which indicates types of land uses and area estimation. ▪ Indicator is relevant and needed to show land use change and patterns/trends over time.
	6. Practice of sustainable design in CBRT projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This indicator is regarded as important for CBRT program but may only be picked up during the later stage. Creating awareness and good practices usually take more time. ▪ Not many information available at the time being to assist on the application of this indicator.
	7. Development control in sustainable CBRT projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ At the time being, this indicator is not being regard as very important by respondents as their communities already have local land use maps as guide to CBRT development. ▪ However, this indicator may be relevant and needed when CBRT become more dominant in shaping the local economy, social and environment activities in the village.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

7.7 DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

Three areas of analysis have been carried out, which are the analysis of local stakeholder respondents' perceptions of the tourism taking place in their village, followed by the analysis of respondents' perceptions of the concept of sustainable CBRT and finally the analysis and presentation of the indicator ranking exercise (ranked by respondents). The first section of this analysis reveals that the respondents are very positive about their opportunity to be included in the tourism planning process (Figure 7.9). There is however, concern on how respondents portrayed the value of the environment and the need for resource conservation for tourism in their village in future. The results of the analysis, presented in Figure 7.10 indicates that respondents recognised the importance of controlled and less exploitation of local resources for tourism purposes but at the same time they have also realised that it is vital to promote more conservation measures for natural resources.

During the analysis of perception of sustainable CBRT, respondents' knowledge of the sustainable CBRT concept is tested as they are asked to define sustainable CBRT and propose the best goal for sustainable CBRT. Mainly the respondents, in their answers, have acknowledged the importance of economic and social needs of the community as major elements of sustainable CBRT (refer to Tables 7.7 and 7.8), whereas considerations of environment and ecology elements are at a much lower level. These answers, however, are expected by this study due to some evidence from the literature reviewed in earlier chapters which suggested that rural communities, especially in developing countries, have greater likelihood of using the CBRT and other forms of tourism for economic reasons, followed by socio-cultural considerations. Nonetheless, the respondents did not entirely ignore the fact that environmental conservation and resources management also should be promoted more actively in sustainable CBRT programmes.

The respondents are asked about the importance of incorporating the sustainability agenda into CBRT programs (Table 7.9) and the potential for formulating indicators to monitor the progress of sustainable CBRT (Figure 7.11). Both questions received positive responses from the respondents, who indicated that both elements of sustainability and indicators are equally important; not only for the authorities but also

for the local communities and the implementation of CBRT monitoring to check on their progress. When the respondents are asked to rank which parties they considered to be in the best position to implement sustainable CBRT indicators, the answer was most frequently: “partnership between community and government agencies”, among other forms of partnerships which also ranked considerably high (Figure 7.13).

The study continued with respondents’ ranking of the proposed list of indicators for sustainable CBRT based on guidance from the SMART concept formulated during the earlier stage of this thesis (in Chapter 3). Furthermore, the ranking process also involved the analysis of respondents’ personal feedbacks and comments to determine in detail reasons and justification of their selection and rank of indicators. Throughout the process, this study may suggest that the ranking process could encourage them (host communities) to set priority for indicators that could be applied for assessing the performance of CBRT program. Indicators with higher priority could also assist the local hosts in study areas to improve CBRT performances especially in areas/categories measured by indicators.

This study also explains the utilisation index score analysis to establish a list of priority indicators, which received the highest score, value per indicator. At the end of the ranking process, thirteen (13) indicators across all categories of sustainable CBRT received the maximum score value of 255 points, hence promoted as the priority indicators. Other remaining indicators are also ranked as important by respondents with not a single indicator received the lowest score value (85 points or less).

These findings have shown some positive signs and concerns. Firstly, the results prove that SMART is a workable concept and highly applicable in guiding respondents during the assessment process. The respondents are able to use and relate the five (5) main components of SMART concept, which are; Simple, Measurable, Accessible, Relevant and Timely, in determining the level of importance of each indicator. Secondly, further discussion and analysis have revealed that the decisions made by respondents in ranking the indicators were based on sound judgements or justifications as mentioned through their comments and feedbacks. This also shows that respondents of the three villages have acquired certain knowledge about CBRT, which in turn have

assisted them during survey process. Respondents are able to relate the status of each indicator with information as suggested by the SMART concept.

Meanwhile, some concerns regarding the outcome from this survey and analysis and the ranking of indicators were derived from researcher's personal observation while conducting the survey process. The researcher's opinion might not be shared by respondents of the three villages nor change the outcomes of this study; it is just a "second opinion" which was put forward and shared for discussions in order to understand some of the phenomena or issues that occurred during the survey process. First concern is related to areas of CBRT that is not covered by the indicators or the lack of data on certain indicators will result in such indicators being disregarded by CBRT operators. There is concern that the local host/CBRT operators might just concentrate on indicators which have enough data available; for example, household income, creation of new jobs, property ownership, land use activities, etc. On the other hand, they might leave out on other indicators where less data is available or difficult to measure such as cultural practices, study on perception and so on. This study also concern with the issue of biasness that might happen during the survey process especially in relation to poor judgement of indicators by respondents. This is because during informal discussions with respondents, they did mention about maintaining their village reputation in CBRT program. This "sense of local pride" might slightly influence their judgement and put pressure for them to rank the indicators. Therefore, it was not a surprise if many of respondents tend to agree with all indicators (or give high score despite what indicators could function based on SMART concept or indicator applicability to represent the reality). However, it is important to mention that the outcome of this study and respondents' selection to rank of indicators are only relevant at the time survey were conducted and respondents' opinion may not be consistent over time. Thirdly, the involvement in the process of ranking of indicators may improve the process of choosing the most appropriate set of indicators to measure performance of CBRT. However, the process not necessarily successfully addresses issues of lack of understanding on the nature of indicators among respondents and local hosts. Therefore, creating awareness for local hosts about the function and application of indicator for assessing CBRT performance is important to be engaged by relevant parties.

This study also indicates that there are small differences of index score between indicators. This situation suggests that the actual numbers of indicators are not fixed; where the list can be expanded or reduced as mean to improve and cover aspects, which previously given less consideration during the survey. Therefore in dealing with this dynamic nature of indicators it is crucial for the host communities to plan on lifting biases and eradicate flaws, and reflect what the reality is so that indicators could actually help the host communities to make their choices and plan for future actions.

Some concerns and issues of biasness are discussed, i.e. the survey forms are distributed based on stratified random sampling and manages to capture wider responses from various stakeholders. A high response rate of 100% return of questionnaires should be able to provide the results which represent the population of the study areas. Based on the outcomes of this chapter, there is a potential for indicators proposed by the study for generalisation in other areas or regions in Malaysia and may be for international application. However, a thorough follow up study of field-test of indicators is needed to support the result from this process, which will discussed in detail in Chapter 9.

CHAPTER 8

SYNTHESIS AND EMERGING CONTEXT

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Discussion on the findings of this research is divided into two subsections as follows:

- (i.) Formulation of the final set of sustainable CBRT indicators. The list was derived from the Delphi exercise and the findings from the survey of local stakeholders of the three study cases (Kuala Medang, Teluk Ketapang and Seterpa villages). The formulation of this list also demonstrated the extent to which both the experts and the local stakeholders managed to achieve “the consensus of majority” as needed in identifying and selecting the indicators that would be appropriate for a purpose of measuring the sustainable CBRT performances in the ECER in particular and for the Malaysia context in general.
- (ii.) A SWOT (Strengths-Weaknesses-Opportunities-Threats) analysis was carried out to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the three study cases as well as the opportunities and threats against improving the understanding about the key factors in developing and sustaining CBRT programmes in future.

Inputs from the list of indicators and the SWOT analysis was crucial, particularly to the early stages of planning of the subsequent step; that is, assessment of applicability and measurability of the proposed list of indicators for monitoring of sustainable CBRT program performance (Chapter 9), hence achieving the sixth research objective.

8.2 THE PRODUCTION OF A FINAL SET OF INDICATORS

This section presents a final list of indicators of sustainable CBRT, which were derived from the Delphi exercise (Chapter 6), and the survey of local stakeholders (Chapter 7). The results from two main groups of respondents are merged into one key table containing 47 indicators (Table 8.1).

Table 8.1: A final list of indicators of sustainable CBRT on which experts and local stakeholders agreed

List of Criteria and Indicators

ENVIRONMENT CRITERION 1: Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality
INDICATOR

1. Maintain the environmental carrying capacity
2. Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity
3. Management of household and tourism waste
4. Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials
5. Changes in environmental quality (water and air)
6. Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour

SOCIAL CRITERION 2: Local communities' well-being
INDICATOR

7. Access to local amenities
8. Housing quality for sustainable CBRT /Home stay participants
9. Education of local communities
10. Local share in the use and enjoy the sustainable CBRT activities
11. Presence of indigenous / minority groups in sustainable CBRT

SOCIAL CRITERION 3: Community participation in sustainable CBRT development
INDICATOR

12. Operation of tourism businesses by locals and their contribution to the locals' well-being
13. Improvement of local human capital
14. Community acceptance over sustainable CBRT programmes (including non-participants)
15. Involvement of women, youth and minority groups
16. Local community ownership over programme
17. Local understanding / awareness of CBRT issues

SOCIAL CRITERION 4: Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values
INDICATOR

18. Respect towards land and property right of local hosts
19. Encouragement of the continuity of traditional skills
20. Use of local resources/ materials for handicraft production
21. Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion
22. Conservation of local architecture identity
23. Establishment of education and training programmes
24. Promotion of local culture, events and history in sustainable CBRT development

(continued)

Table 8.1: Continued.

List of Criteria and Indicators

SOCIAL CRITERION 5: Visitors' safety
INDICATOR

25. Capability of SCBRT programs in conducting search and rescue for visitors
26. Complaint/feedback on visitors' safety
27. Standard of environmental hygiene
28. Availability of safety notice and publication
29. Capability of sustainable CBRT in prevention of infectious diseases

SOCIAL CRITERION 6: Consumer / Tourist satisfaction
INDICATOR

30. Quality of facilities, services and activities
31. Willingness to return as repeating tourist
32. Expenditure by tourists
33. Tourists' satisfaction of the overall tourism experience
34. Improvement in tourists' understanding and knowledge about other cultures, communities and environment

ECONOMY CRITERION 7: Economic benefits to the local communities and CBRT participant
INDICATOR

35. Diversification of tourism activities and products
36. Provision of funding for training, marketing and product development
37. Economic performance – improvement of average earnings
38. Local employment in sustainable CBRT programmes
39. Investment in sustainable CBRT projects (government and private investors)
40. Domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors

INSTITUTION CRITERION 8: Sustainable CBRT planning and management
INDICATOR

41. Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas
42. Land use planning for sustainable CBRT and their surrounding areas
43. Partnership in sustainable CBRT planning and management process
44. Development control in sustainable CBRT projects
45. Improvement of local transportation quality and services
46. Practice of sustainable design in projects
47. Management plan for sustainable CBRT changing hotspots

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010 and Extended research fieldwork in 2013.

Based on Table 8.1, it can be seen that both group (experts and the local stakeholders) have considered a wider context of economic, socio-culture, environment and institution practices during the process of selecting the indicators. As mentioned in literature review (Figure 2.3: Principal forms of sustainable CBRT), every major element that determine sustainable CBRT including *capital stocks* (Economy, socio-culture and environment resources), *strategies* (Host communities participation and planning and management) and *CBRT stakeholders* (Host communities well-being, visitor's safety and tourist satisfaction) are represented with a number of potential indicators.

From the research point of view, the list of 47 indicators is still as a long list. However, there is a potential in using the list for comparison against communities' identified key issues in order to assess whether these are applicable to the particular sites or villages. Details about the field test of the proposed indicators sustainable CBRT are explained in the following chapter.

8.3 SWOT ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

A SWOT analysis was carried out using information presented in Chapter 7 (Section 7.4.3 and 7.4.4 - analysis of perception on local tourism by the local stakeholders) and reviews of unpublished reports of Kuala Medang (2009), Teluk Ketapang (2009) and Seterpa villages (2009). This information was also supported with inputs from discussions with local CBRT coordinators, representatives of local youth, women and entrepreneurs (conducted on two occasions for each village). The SWOT analysis was carried out to assess the strategic advantages (the strengths and opportunities) of the three villages as well as the disadvantages (the weaknesses and threats) (Table 8.2). The analysis also intended:

1. To determine whether the selected CBRT sites were making the most of the opportunities available; and
2. To determine how the selected CBRT sites had responded to changes in the external environment.

Table 8.2: SWOT analysis of sustainable CBRT development of the three study cases.

<i>Advantages</i>	<i>Disadvantages</i>
<p style="text-align: center;">STRENGTHS</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Strategic location and good accessibility 2. Outstanding resources for tourism (natural and cultural) and surrounded by various local attractions (product development) 3. Good tourism infrastructures and amenities (including ICT) 4. Having established local enterprises to support the tourism development 5. Committed leaders and “local champions” 6. Good and workable CBRT organisation 	<p style="text-align: center;">WEAKNESSES</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Moderate profit margin 2. Difficulty in attaining and funding the experts or trainers to conduct workshop programme on the traditional skills and trades – train cultural performers, craftsmen, etc.) 3. Lack of knowledge in environmental conservation 4. Potential conflict (participants and non-participants)
<p style="text-align: center;">OPPORTUNITIES</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. External recognition/awards (good for branding) 2. Good rapport with government agencies 3. Tourism sustain other rural economic sectors such as agriculture and SMEs 	<p style="text-align: center;">THREATS</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lack of coordination and monitoring of post-effects (government agencies with local organisation) 2. Suffer from seasonal activities (monsoon) 3. Competition from the “fraudulent CBRT” operators 4. Erosion of environmental capital

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

As shown in Table 8.2, the **STRENGTHS** of the sustainable CBRT programme in these three villages were contributed by the strategic location and good accessibility of the CBRT sites. These advantages were provided by the East Coast Highway system (Chapter 4), States’ airport and inter and intra regional public transportation systems which provided greater access between these three villages with the nearest local and regional growth centre, town and small towns. The strengths of selected CBRT sites were also contributed by the outstanding tourism resources, especially their natural beauty and cultural diversity comprising tropical forests, countryside, traditional village life, cultural performances and traditional games, and so on. In addition, the surrounding attractions also integrated into the product development of sustainable CBRTs and were included in the CBRT packages and brochures. As presented in Photo 8.1, the traditional games such as “congkak” and kites flying have been included tourist activities in Seterpa’s CBRT brochures. Meanwhile, the river cruise activity becomes one of the major attractions for Teluk Ketapang. As for Kuala Medang village, visits to the *Kelah* fish sanctuary have benefited the host community both for tourism and conservation of the local river ecosystem.

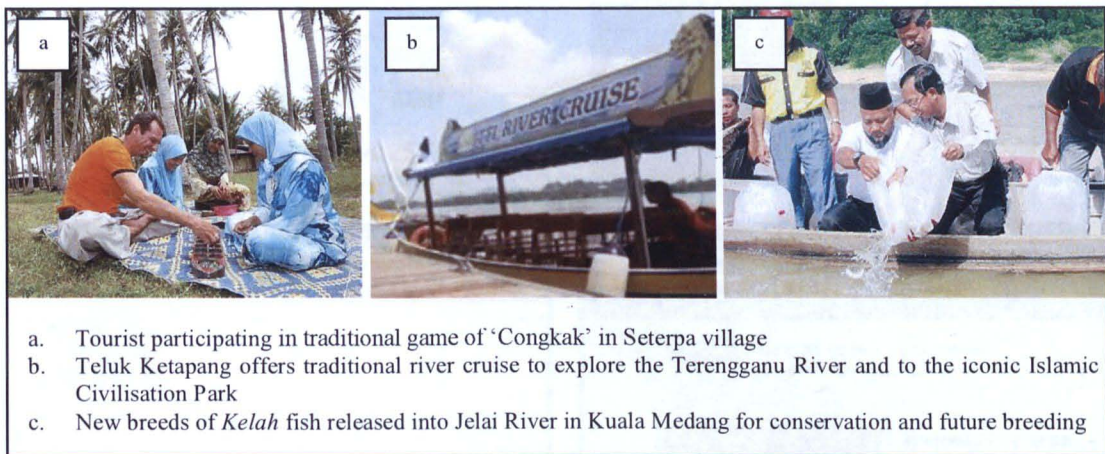


Photo 8.1: CBRT product development in the study areas. *Source:* adapted from JKKK Teluk Ketapang (2009); JKKK Kuala Medang (2009)

Good tourism infrastructure and amenities are also the strengths of sustainable CBRT programmes. The inventories of infrastructure and amenities (Figures 4.9, 4.12 and 4.15), show that every village has good tourism infrastructures and amenities which are utilised both by the community members and the tourists, such as a multipurpose hall, craft centre, sewing workshop, night market, tourist information centre, and so on. Another interesting finding is the utilisation of information and communication technology (ICT) by the local CBRT operators in all three villages as promotional and marketing tools. The use of websites such as travel blogs and social network interfaces such as Facebook has become popular in promoting CBRT programmes in the study areas. Photo 8.2 illustrated the CBRT promotional and marketing strategies adopted by these three villages. For example, Kuala Medang village has used the state tourism official website, while Teluk Ketapang village developed their own website to promote and market tourism packages under CBRT programmes. Seterpa village, on the other hand, has opted for the use of a more common social network programme (i.e. Facebook). The advantages of using ICT as further mentioned by the local CBRT coordinator are acknowledged; it is flexible, mobile and convenient. For example, the system of *e-promotion* and *e-booking* can now be operated to carry out customers' requests from the Rural Internet Centre (RIC) in each village. As for CBRT organisations, the sustainability of CBRT promotional and marketing strategies must be strengthened through continuous investment in upgrading the hardware (computers and the speed of internet connection) and software (training local young people in ICT skills).

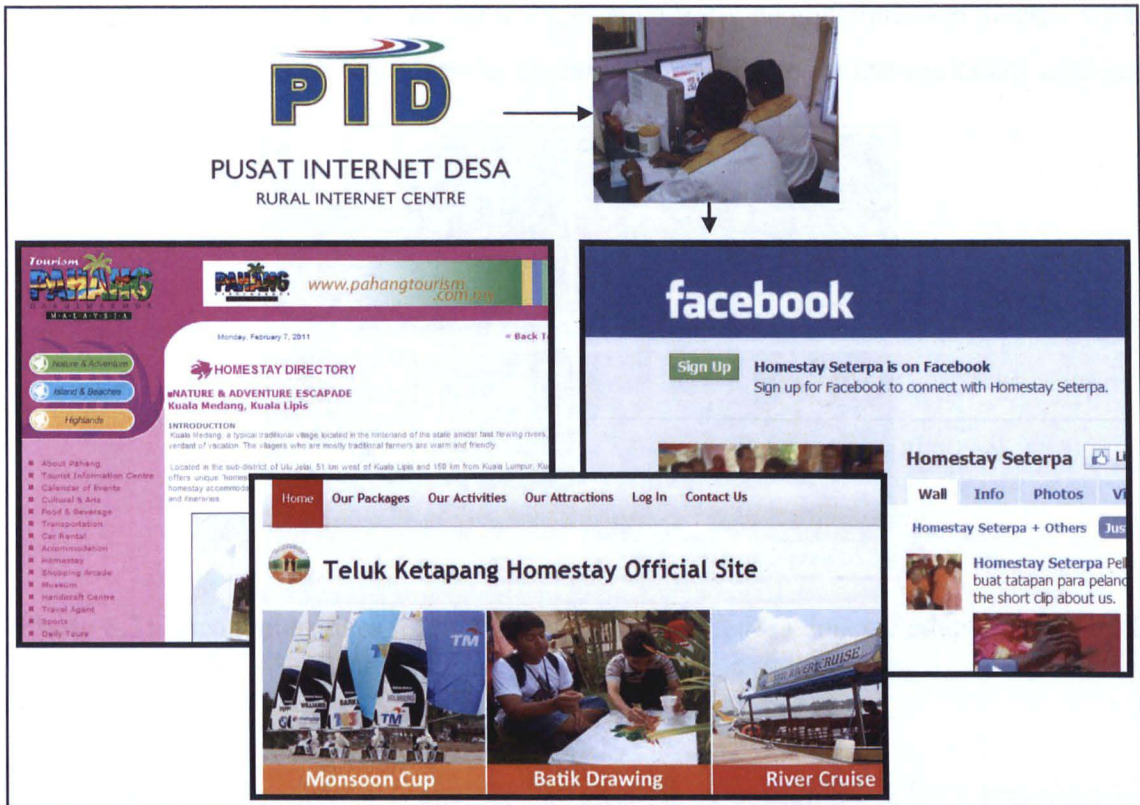


Photo 8.2: Utilisation of ICT as a promotional and marketing tool. *Source:* adapted from JKKK Teluk Ketapang (2009); JKKK Kuala Medang (2009)

Many of the local enterprises (or rural SMEs) have also benefited from the CBRT programmes. As mentioned during the fieldwork interviews, the local SMEs have faced enormous challenges to maintain competitiveness with modern-types of SMEs. However, since the introduction of CBRT programmes, the local traditional SMEs have ventured into new or niche markets and tourism-related businesses. Consequently, the local enterprises are able to sustain their operation and create stable and better paying jobs for the locals who are involved in both sectors. This is evident in all study cases whereby SME products such as arts and crafts, souvenirs and traditional cuisines gained huge interest among tourists and potential investors through visits, tours and live demonstrations by the local SMEs, which are included in the tourism package. As illustrated in Photo 8.3, CBRT programmes have created new demands particularly for local craft products, which in turn provided jobs for the women of Teluk Ketapang village. Another example is the growing demand for the popular “signature” snack of the East Coast locally known as “Keropok Lekor” (made of fish and rice flour), which led to the expansion of production of Keropok Lekor in Teluk Ketapang village. Meanwhile, the

increased numbers of tourist wanting to experience Batik demonstration in Seterpa village has persuaded local Batik producers to upgrade their facilities for the workshop sessions.



Photo 8.3: Local enterprises related with sustainable CBRT. *Source:* adapted from JKKK Teluk Ketapang (2009); TPRG (2009)

As mentioned in Section 7.4.3, another key strength of sustainable CBRT programmes is continuous support from the community. Central to this continuous support is the presence of a strong local leader (or leaders) who command respect and are capable of inspiring a sense of ownership among the local community on CBRT programmes. Based on the data collected during the extended fieldwork (2010), 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 (Figure 8.1). In this light, their leader is often labelled by the communities as the “local champion”. The respondents were asked, based on their experience, to identify and short-list the positive qualities for a local champion. The suggestions were extensive; however, after further screening and consideration of any similar answers, 10 positive qualities were identified for a local champion (Figure 8.1).

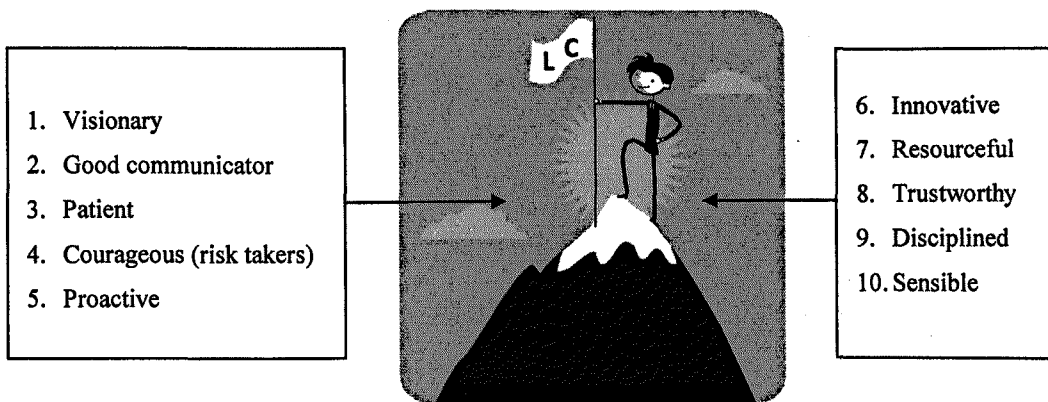


Figure 8.1: Positive qualities of a local champion of sustainable CBRT.

Source: Research fieldwork in 2010

The ten positive qualities of a local champion mentioned in Figure 8.1 is somehow still many and even the local CBRT coordinator themselves admitted that certain qualities only emerged at certain time or when they were in certain situations which demanded for certain insights and decisions. However, in general, all respondents of these three villages admitted that they were fortunate for having visionary, trustworthy and courageous leaders to lead the communities reaching their development goals. Another positive quality of a local champion, as mentioned by respondents is he or she should be able to train up future local champions as his successors through continuous training and close mentoring. Future leaders are vital for every village to ensure insights and clear vision from a leader to be continued to plan, develop and manage the sustainable CBRT programmes.

Besides the leaders and leadership factors, the respondents of these three villages also mentioned about having a good and efficient CBRT organisation to carry out planning, operation, monitoring and promotion of the programmes as another key strengths. As discussed in detail in Section 7.4.3, 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 (Figure 8.2).

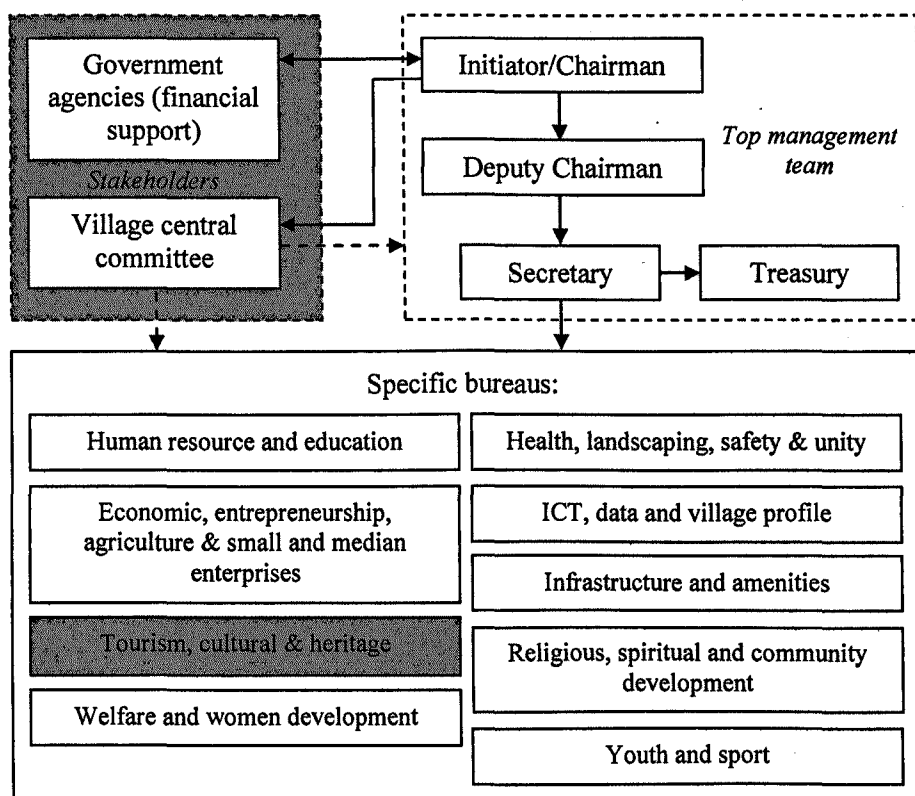


Figure 8.2: The community organisation for sustainable CBRT in three villages. *Source:* Research fieldwork in 2010

However, as the sustainable CBRT progresses and attracts diverse market segments (tourists with different needs and expectations), the community organisation of these three villages had to be responsive to these changes, including upgrading work efficiency to maintain the quality of sustainable CBRT services and product popularity.

The main **WEAKNESS** of the sustainable CBRT programmes of these three villages is their moderate profit margin resulting from under booking of accommodation units and visits. Despite efforts from the local communities using the ICT (website, blogs and Facebook) to promote CBRT packages, the “low yield” issue remains. With less understanding to deal with the issue, low yield continued to affect the profit margins of CBRT operators, especially the homestay owners, transport operators, caterer, cultural performers, front desk staff, event management teams, etc. (refer to Table 7.4 for detail discussions). Consequently, the moderate profit margin further affects the capability of the host community to upgrade their facilities and carry out training programmes, hence affecting service quality and tourists’ satisfaction. The difficulty in obtaining and funding

the experts or trainers to conduct training programmes (cultural performances and craft making workshops) for the young generation is noted as another element of weakness in sustainable CBRT (Table 7.6). Without support from government agencies, especially the MOTOUR, the communities of these three villages faced difficulty in identifying and funding the cost of experts (in cultural performing or master of crafts) for training the young people to become their successors. Other weaknesses such as lack of knowledge in environmental management and conservation are also apparent in these three villages. The respondents agreed that they do not have formal education in regards to addressing environmental issues. There was, however, a growing interest among CBRT participants to learn about the environmental aspects in CBRT programmes. This realisation was initiated through participation in the Ministry of Rural and Regional Development (MRRD) training courses and a series of educational visits to other CBRT sites where they have been exposed to others' experience in managing the environment for a long-term tourism success.

As shown in Table 8.3, the **OPPORTUNITIES** for the development and management of sustainable CBRT have been driven by the branding of sustainable CBRT products associated with award recognitions recently obtained by the host communities in these three villages. The CBRT committees have incorporated awards certification to improve the portfolio and local branding, hence increasing “buy in” from potential tourists.

Table 8.3: Award recognitions recently obtained in Kuala Medang, Teluk Ketapang and Seterpa villages

<p>Kuala Medang village, Pahang state</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ The State Countryside Excellence Award 2009 (Champion) ♦ The State Women Development Group Award 2008 (Champion) ♦ The “One Village One Industry” Award (Rural Tourism) year 2008 (Champion) ♦ The Malaysia Tourism Award (Homestay Category) year 2005/2006 (Champion)
<p>Teluk Ketapang village, Terengganu state</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ The State Countryside Excellence Award 2009 (Runners-up) ♦ The MEPS Project Award 2007 (Champion)
<p>Seterpa village, Kelantan state</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ The State Countryside Excellence Award 2009 (Runners-up) ♦ The State Countryside Excellence Award 2007 (Runners-up) ♦ The Village Visionary Movement Award 2001 (Eastern Region) (Champion)

Source: JKKK Kuala Medang (2009); JKKK Teluk Ketapang (2009); JKKK Seterpa (2009)

Such awards can convey positive values to tourists about the local community's commitment towards, for example, environmental, cultural and heritage conservation and help to shape the branding and marketing of the products, especially to international tourists. This is evident in the case of Kuala Medang whereby the number of international tourist arrivals (from Sweden, Australia, Japan, Korea and Singapore) has significantly increased from 397 in 2002 to 2,500 tourists in 2009 (JKKK Kuala Medang, 2009). The annual income also increased from RM 27,790 in 2002 becoming RM 500,000 in 2007. Likewise, awards won by the community could establish a distinctive image of CBRT products offered by local communities compared to the countless but meaningless taglines created by advertising firms and tour operators. In addition, the establishment of good rapport with government agencies also provided new opportunities to boost long-term cooperation between the host communities and the funding agencies (mostly government bodies) in planning and managing of sustainable CBRT in the future. Tourism development in the three villages has proved to be effective once it is well integrated with other rural economic sectors (to utilise the potential of tourism in supporting other economic activities) (Figure 8.3).

As shown in Table 8.2, the main **THREAT** to sustainable CBRT programmes in these three villages is lack of coordination and monitoring of after-effects. As discussed in Chapter 4 and further explored during the survey of local stakeholders (Section 7.4.4), there seems to be an issue of lack of monitoring by both MOTOUR and MRRD in terms of their implementation and project output. The respondents from these three villages highlighted the issue of leadership; it is still difficult to determine who should lead within the community in monitoring the implementation of CBRT projects, despite their eagerness in embarking on sustainable CBRT. For example, CBRT programmes of Kuala Medang began with the involvement of various government agencies such as the Agriculture Department (Homestay project), the Ministry of Tourism/MOTOUR (Homestay, training and tourism facilities) and the Ministry of Entrepreneur Development (setting-up small and medium enterprises for local entrepreneurs). At the beginning, each agency sent their officers to monitor the development progress of each project. However, after a certain period, the monitoring process had become less frequent since the officers are also occupied with other projects under their agencies. Consequently, these three CBRT sites were left to develop and expand their tourism activities without being

properly evaluated for their performance and success in attracting and increasing tourist arrivals.

- i. **Small and medium enterprises:** the rural SMEs have faced enormous challenges to maintain competitiveness with modern-types of SMEs. Tourism development has supported the continuity of traditional SMEs and at the same time created stable and better paying jobs for the locals involved in both sectors. This is evident in all study cases whereby SMEs products such as arts and crafts, souvenirs and traditional cuisines gained huge interest among tourists and potential investors through visits, tours and live demonstrations by the local SMEs, which are included in tourism package.
- ii. **Agriculture:** still considered as the backbone of rural economy although at one time it seemed not very profitable for local community members to pursue because of its market instability, competition with private and large-scale producers and difficulty to market and distribute their products. However, the integration with tourism has benefited the local agricultural sector through promotion and marketing of agricultural products as well as conducting tours to rubber and palm oil plantations (e.g. rubber-tapping demonstration) as part of tourism packages.
- iii. **Fish and animal farms:** Tourism has brought new life into fishing activities in the study areas. Establishment of *Kelah* sanctuary in Jelai River, followed by re-opening of fishponds in KM and ST for recreational activities, has brought in better income and job opportunities to local operators. As visits to animal farms are included in the tour packages, this has encouraged the local farmers to continue working on their farms.
- iv. **Shops and food stalls:** the arrival of tourists as either day or overnight tourists has contributed to the growth of local businesses, especially shops and food stalls. Other than catering for local demands, the shops and food stalls have gained additional income by supplying food and catering services for tourism related occasions. The income generated by business activities and letting were then channelled to the community fund to be used for socio-economic development such as buying sewing machines for the craft workshop or computers for the tourist information centre.
- v. **Building and construction:** government funding in terms of development of tourism infrastructures has benefited the local contractors and builders (local material suppliers, local labour force, portrayed local architectural image, etc.). Lately, there have been significant increases in local contractors who are able and qualified to carry out construction and maintenance works related with CBRT projects. Among projects, which have been carried out by local builders and contractors were community halls, tourist information centres, camping site facilities, internal signage and house renovation of Homestay participants.
- vi. **Transport services:** tourism activities have benefited local taxis and bus operators. Booking lists for taxis have dramatically increased involving journeys from the central bus station to the village. The local facilities such as bus stops and pick-up bays have been upgrading for the comfort of the tourists.

Figure 8.3: Integration between tourism and other economic activities.

Source: Observation from fieldwork in 2010

The next threat is related with seasonality of income and employment caused by the annual monsoon season in the East Coast Region from November to March (northeast monsoon). During that period the tourism activities usually will be limited for safety reasons including the coastal areas (Teluk Ketapang village) and high risk flooding areas

(Kuala Medang and Seterpa villages). For those who are lucky, they might find another short-term job in any other sector such as construction or working in farms. However, others might be forced to cease their entire operation due to low numbers of tourists or be unable to get short-term jobs and so on. Another disadvantage of seasonality is that it could encourage the arrival of large numbers of tourists during a short period and this will potentially affect tourism resources (refer to Section 7.4.4 for detail discussions).

Finally, competition from fraudulent CBRT programmes has also become a major threat for sustainable CBRT development (Berita Harian Online, accessed 02/05/2011). For Teluk Ketapang and Kuala Medang, such threat is considerably inevitable due to the advancement of local tourism market. Fraudulent CBRT programmes are promoted and marketed do not possess any characteristics of sustainable CBRT suggested by literature and previous research (as outlined in Section 2.3.2.2). Furthermore, as informed by local CBRT coordinators of Kuala Medang and Teluk Ketapang, majority of fraudulent CBRTs are owned and operated by private businesspersons from outside the community; hence promoting the business as CBRT is misleading and worse, unethical (Research fieldwork in 2010).

These private businesses only provide cheap and affordable accommodation for tourists i.e. budget motels and hostels, however labelled themselves as CBRT operators. This has damaged the image of actual CBRT providers by diverting the tourists from experiencing the real CBRT programme.

8.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter has examined the various factors that are currently related to CBRT development. A SWOT analysis was adopted to assess the strategic strengths and weaknesses of sustainable CBRT programmes as well as the opportunities and threats and it has revealed the following findings:

- i. From the physical and spatial perspective, the sustainable CBRT development in these three villages seems very well supported by good infrastructures, amenities and services.

- ii. From the environmental perspective, all three villages are blessed with rich and outstanding natural beauty and diverse culture activities that can be explored to become new tourism products and attractions. There is, however, a concern regarding the lack of knowledge of rural resource management and conservation. Nevertheless, with strong support from local leaders and local organisations, effective responses are expected in the near future.
- iii. From the economic perspective, sustainable CBRT is considered as a development catalyst since it has been well integrated with other rural economic sectors such as agriculture and SMEs. Sustainable CBRT also has benefited the local stakeholders through job creation and as a training ground for the local community in developing their entrepreneurship skills.
- iv. The respondents of these three study cases also agreed that the presence of strong local leaders, local champions and effective organisations are crucial in guiding the host communities to achieve sustainable CBRT goals and objectives.
- v. The selected CBRT sites need to be guided in making the most of the opportunities available to boost local tourism potentials, hence improving their livelihoods. In this light, a good rapport and support from government agencies, especially the MOTOUR and the MRRD, during the initial stage of CBRT development must continue throughout the whole project life cycle i.e. including the monitoring of viability and after effects of the projects.
- vi. Unfortunately, the SWOT analysis also indicated that some external threats remained, for instance the rising competition from fraudulent CBRT operators, which are beginning to put the future of sustainable CBRT at stake if the tourism authorities (especially the MOTOUR) and the CBRT stakeholders did not respond appropriately to this issue.

Based on the list of key findings, it can be seen that CBRT programmes have created positive impacts on the rural communities especially the three study cases from the physical, organisational, socio-cultural, environmental and economic aspects. The following chapter will discuss on a series of field test conducted to assess the uptake of sustainable CBRT practices in these villages. These field tests among others aim to provide more tangible and quantifiable proof to support the findings and conclusion made in the previous chapters.

CHAPTER 9

FIELD TEST OF INDICATORS - ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses and presents the findings from the field test of the previously proposed sustainable CBRT indicators. The analysis and presentation of results have been divided into three sections as follows:

- i. Discussions of the procedures in conducting the field test including the survey of local stakeholders.
- ii. Discussion of the data analysis and respondents' evaluation of successful uptake of sustainable measures for sustainable CBRT practices including the application of index score analysis.
- iii. Presentation of data analysis results and discussion of the respondents evaluation of successful uptake of economic, socio-cultural, environment and institution measures of sustainable CBRT.

This chapter has concluded that the proposed indicators have achieved their objective as a means of assessing the level of sustainability practices of CBRT and presenting the findings in a more tangible way. Even though the study has identified shortcomings in certain indicators in assessing the sustainable practices, mostly due to lack of data and unavailable information, lack of knowledge and insufficient funding for development, another crucial question that needs to be asked here is: can the CBRT decision makers and their local hosts utilise information from this study to improve current CBRT practices?

9.2 FIELD TEST PROCEDURE

This research revisited the three study cases/villages selected for the local stakeholders' survey (refer Chapter 7) to test the applicability of the indicators in assessing CBRT programs in the study cases. These field-tests were conducted between 10th of February till 16th of February 2013. The questionnaire consists of a list of indicators which are divided into three categories namely economy (seven indicators), followed by social-cultural with a total of twenty-seven indicators and finally environment and institution with six and seven) indicators respectively (Appendix 4).

A total of fifty respondents took part in the field tests with distribution as follows:

- i. From Seterpa village 10 respondents;
- ii. From Teluk Ketapang 20 respondents and;
- iii. From Kuala Medang 20 respondents.

The respondents were selected using quota sampling; all respondents identified are active participants in the villages' activities including CBRT programmes. There are criticisms that quota sampling is non-representative of the population (Newman, 2011) however, this approach is considered most appropriate here, given the time allocated to conduct the field tests. The respondents who participated in the field tests consisted of both genders with various age groups, i.e. 30 female respondents (60%) and 20 male (40%).

There were two different approaches adopted in conducting the field tests and the decision was made based on the circumstances of each village. In two villages, Kuala Medang and Teluk Ketapang, the researcher held meetings with the respondents in the village community hall (*Balai Raya*) which coincided with the villages' monthly meetings. The villages' representatives purposely requested the researcher to come on these particular days as it was easier to meet the locals. These meetings took approximately two hours where the respondents completed the questionnaires and later discussed any issues related to the field test.

In Seterpa village however, the researcher had to conduct door-to-door sessions with the respondents as it was not possible to meet them collectively during the time allocated for the field test. Seventy percent of these respondents completed the questionnaires on their own with the researcher presence to assist them should they need any clarification or explanation on the questions. For the other thirty per cent of respondents in Seterpa, the researcher completed the questionnaires on their behalf (i.e. questionnaire-guided interview) due to illiteracy and sight problems.

9.3 ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

The data collected are analysed using an index score approach supported by qualitative input from discussions with the respondents and limited participant observation while conducting the field tests. The respondents were asked to rank a list of indicators which consist of economic, socio-cultural, environmental and institution indicators. Each indicator is given an index value of “1” if answers given by respondents fulfil the proposed answer criteria and “0” if answers did not match proposed answer criteria (refer to Table 9.1, 9.4, 9.7 and 9.10). The total sum index values of indicators are then classified into three levels of sustainability, namely low sustainability, moderate sustainability and high sustainability. These index values indicate that where the respondents believed that a low proportion of the indicators could be said to have been achieved by the village, then the overall response is shown as indicating low rates of uptake so far, and the village CBRT program is said to have low sustainability. The total sum of index values for each level of sustainability varies from one category of indicators to another and this will be explained in the presentation of results in the following sections.

9.4 UPTAKE OF SUSTAINABLE ECONOMIC PRACTICES

There are six indicators in this category and the total sum index values of indicators are classified as follows; low sustainability (if the total score is 2 or less); moderate sustainability (if the total score reached between 3 to 5); and highly sustainable (if the total score is 6) (refer to Table 9.2).

Table 9.1: Economic indicators – criteria and index values

Economy Indicators	Criteria/Answers	Index
1. Economic performance – improvement of average earnings	Respondent's monthly income is contributed by their participation in CBRT	1
	CBRT did not contribute towards monthly income of respondent	0
2. Local employment in sustainable CBRT programmes	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
3. Diversification of tourism activities and products	CBRT create diversification of activities and tourism products	1
	There is no diversification of activity or product	0
4. Provision of funding for training, marketing and product development	Local community able to allocate certain amount fund needed for training, marketing and product development	1
	Local community did not have such fund	0
5. Investment in sustainable CBRT projects	Local community did invest in local tourism projects using own funds	1
	Local community was not capable to invest on local tourism projects on their own	0
6. Domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors	Agree	1
	Disagree	0

Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013

Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake for economic measures in CBRT as illustrated in Table 9.2 indicated 54% of respondents agreed that their communities are currently at a "moderately sustainable" level in terms of economic practices, whilst, 40% of respondents agreed that their communities have achieved a high level of economy sustainability. Only 6% of respondents' (or three respondents from Seterpa village) answers indicated a low level of economic sustainability of CBRT in all three villages. Total result for this category is considered as satisfactory with a moderate success of local hosts in implementing/adopting the recommended practices as addressed by the proposed economy indicators for sustainable CBRT.

Table 9.2: Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of economic measures in CBRT program (all villages)

	Index value	Respondents	% of respondents
Low	<2	3	6.0
Moderate	3 – 5	27	54.0
High	6	20	40.0
Total		50	100.0
Note:			
Index score classification:			
<i>Low</i> = total index score of <2, <i>Moderate</i> = total index score between 3-5, <i>High</i> = total index score of >6			

Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013

Further analysis on villagers' evaluation on economic measures in CBRT program of each village has revealed rather interesting findings (Figure 9.1). Respondents in Seterpa have rated the economic measures in CBRT programs as showing low sustainability (30%), while in the other villages 30% and 40% agreed that the economic measures are sustainably-high and moderate respectively. The response is consistent with the current situation of CBRT program in Seterpa which in some aspects has yet to give substantial economic impact to the community. For Teluk Ketapang village, the respondents believed that the economic measures are showing a high level of sustainability, i.e. higher uptake of the sustainable CBRT measures (55%) as compared to 45% of moderate uptake measures. Kuala Medang village on the other hand highlighted at least moderate uptake of sustainable practices (70%) while the remaining 30% of respondents agreed that there is a high level of economic uptake practices.

Based on these findings, it is established that respondents' evaluation of economic measures is very much related to the progress of CBRT development in their villages. Further interviews with local CBRT coordinators in Teluk Ketapang suggested that this is contributed by steady development of CBRT program in Teluk Ketapang as well as active engagement with SMEs and local businesses with relation to CBRT. The scale of CBRT activities also influenced the development of CBRT, which in return a more significant economic impacts to the local hosts. CBRT activities which take place in Teluk Ketapang and Kuala Medang are relatively larger in scale as compared to Seterpa (refer to Chapter 4 for detail discussions), hence could potentially bring more CBRT participants, number of accommodations, number of tourist arrivals, local jobs creation and income generation, etc.

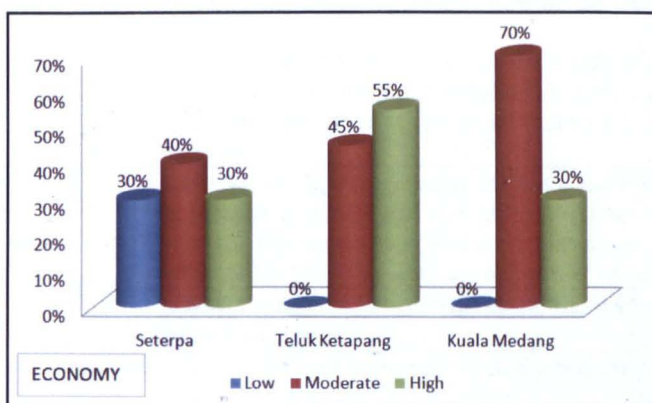


Figure 9.1: Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of economic measures in CBRT program (by village). Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013.

The qualitative data, i.e. comments or feedback from the respondents, were also gathered while they were assessing the indicators of this category. The result of qualitative analysis for economy indicators category is presented in Table 9.3.

Table 9.3: Respondents comments on uptake of CBRT economic practices

Economy Indicators	Respondent comments of indicators
1. Economic performance – improvement of average earnings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ CBRT has increased contributed the household income. ◆ Homestay operators are now enjoyed a more stable income (30% of total household monthly income).
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ There is an issue of distribution of tourist among homestay operators in Seterpa. Those who received more tourists will enjoy greater income.
2. Local employment in sustainable CBRT programmes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ CBRT created local jobs (including homestay operators, cultural group and dance performers, food caterer, stalls selling souvenirs/craft products, managers, etc).
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ CBRT program mainly retained existing jobs created during early stage of CBRT development. Only a small number of new jobs were offered (but many odd-jobs/during special occasions or festivals).
3. Diversification of tourism activities and products	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Local communities offered various CBRT package to suit demand from tourists for instance ecotourism package, village tourism package, cultural tourism packages, etc.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Communities diversified the CBRT activities to distinguish their village with other communities.
4. Provision of funding for training, marketing and product development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Most of the funding was received at the beginning of the program, mostly from government agencies and private/local investors.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Since the government agencies moved their focus in helping the CBRT development in other areas, the community faced difficulty to access to funding.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Many of homestay operators reluctant to upgrade their skills or undergo training because already satisfy with current practices.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Product development is very costly. ◆ Marketing of products might not require large fund since they can use Facebook, blog and other online booking methods (free of charge).
5. Investment in sustainable CBRT projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ All basic infrastructures for tourism already provided during the initial stage of CBRT development.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Only a small number of projects were initiated (upgrading facilities).
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ The communities still heavily dependent on government fund to develop CBRT projects.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Local investors are reluctant to invest in big scale due to the risk of failure. ◆ Maintenance cost is very expensive.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Difficulty to find right person to monitor the CBRT projects on long-term basis. ◆ Most of the investments of new projects only in a form of upgrading private properties (houses, workshops, vehicles, farming activities, etc). ◆ Community fund is relatively small (not sufficient to invest in big projects).
6. Domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ There is a strong linkage between CBRT and other local economic sectors for instance homestay and visit to farm and/or visit to SMEs.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Normally the same person also participates in other economic activities, for instance as a homestay operator and owner of noodle making shop.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Internal linkages only benefited those who owned many businesses and not workers in general.

Note: All comments are applied for all three villages unless mentioned otherwise (or mentioned in specific).

Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013

As shown in Table 9.3, all respondents have given positive input on one indicator, i.e. “diversification in economic activities and products” which is considered as being successfully implemented in the CBRT program. Among comments given to justify this result is that the local hosts have offered different CBRT packages for tourists to choose according to their preferences, based on individual/group interest, or price for each package or the length of stay at the village. Respondents also mentioned the needs for diversification of CBRT attractions and activities due to strong competition from other CBRT sites.

Meanwhile, three indicators had also shown a high level of successful implementation of practices by respondents i.e. “improvement of average earnings” (45 out of 50), “local employment in sustainable CBRT programs” (44 out of 50) and “domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors” (45 out of 50). Based on feedback interview, respondents (especially homestay operators) mentioned that tourism activities have generated approximately 30% of their monthly income while others such as craft and souvenir producers also commented on income generation from CBRT practices. They however, did not specify the exact percentage or gross contribution from CBRT activities to their household income. The agglomeration of economic activities in the village is also another element that contributes to strong internal linkages between CBRT and other local economic sectors. Some of these linkages have been thoroughly discussed in Chapter 4. Based on the interviews, agricultural activities with relation to CBRT e.g. visits to fruit growing and SMEs have been strongly integrated into CBRT packages. These linkages have added value into other rural economic sectors. However, for some respondents they have identified that strong local linkages might benefit certain group of local investors especially those who are involved in and own enterprises related to CBRT.

Only 29 out of 50 respondents were satisfied with progress on practices in this category i.e. “provision of funding for training and product development” and “investment in sustainable CBRT projects”. Many respondents acknowledged training and product development could be very costly, and local hosts, at this moment, did not have sufficient allocation or funding for that purpose. Government roles and contributions in providing funding and assistance (training, product development, and provision of infrastructure) were also regarded as important especially at the beginning of the CBRT program.

However, it is normal practice for government to reduce their intervention as the program progresses as government had to focus on developing CBRT in other areas. Hence, local hosts would then face greater challenges to acquire additional funding.

Host communities' dependency on government intervention for funding CBRT projects is also reflected in respondents' feedback of investment in CBRT projects. Limited government intervention means communities have to rely on private or joint partnership projects with local investors. However, two main issues have emerged in dealing with investment in CBRT i.e. high maintenance cost (for keeping building structure in good condition and regular services especially cleaning of infrastructures and buildings) that could set a limit on the scale of projects and difficulty to employ committed local person as project manager on a long-term basis. Meanwhile, community-based projects are managed by the local CBRT committee. Respondents in the three villages also indicated that each local host community has a fund for CBRT projects available; however the amount of the fund is relatively small and its priority is for the maintenance and upgrading works existing projects.

9.5 UPTAKE OF SUSTAINABLE SOCIO-CULTURAL PRACTICES

There are twenty-seven indicators in this category and the total sum index values of indicators are classified as follows; low sustainability (if the total score is 14 or less); moderate sustainability (if the total score reached between 15 to 24); and highly sustainable (if the total score is 25 or more) (refer to Table 9.5).

Table 9.4: Socio-Cultural indicators – criteria and index values

Socio-Cultural Indicators	Criteria/Answers	Index
1. Access to local amenities	Residents and participants have access for using local amenities	1
	Local people having difficulties to access to local amenities	0
2. Housing quality for sustainable CBRT/Home stay participants	Housing quality has increased during the tourism been introduced	1
	No significant change in housing quality	0
3. Education of local communities	Local community have good access to school/education	1
	Limited access to school/education	0
4. Presence of indigenous / minority groups in	Agree	1

sustainable CBRT	Not all has been included	0
5. Local share in the use and enjoyment of the sustainable CBRT activities	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
6. Operation of tourism businesses by locals and their contribution to the locals' well-being	Agree, the operations are fully managed by the community	1
	Disagree, community only play minor role (paid workers, etc)	0
7. Local community ownership of sustainable CBRT projects	Agree, majority of the projects are owned by the community	1
	Disagree, majority of the projects are owned by people from outside of the community/Community merely involved as workers.	0
8. Involvement of women and youth groups in sustainable CBRT	Agree	1
	Not all has been included	0
9. Improvement of local human capital	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
10. Community acceptance of sustainable CBRT programmes (including non-participants)	Local showing support and positive attitude towards CBRT activities	1
	Local did not support CBRT activities	0
11. Local understanding / awareness of sustainable CBRT issues	Community becoming more aware of issues relating to CBRT	1
	Community did not aware of issues relating to CBRT	0
12. Respect towards land and property right of local hosts	Agree	1
	Community is not satisfy with tourists' attitude	0
13. Encouragement of the continuity of traditional skills	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
14. Use of local resources/ materials for handicraft production	Agree, raw materials are mainly local produce/within the same district	1
	Community have to buy materials from outside of their district	0
15. Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
16. Establishment of education and training programmes – improvement in knowledge of socio-cultural resource management	Agree or frequent (once in every 6 months)	1
	No or less frequent	0
17. Conservation of local architecture identity	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
18. Promotion of local culture, events and history in sustainable CBRT development	Active promotion	1
	No promotion or passive promotion	0
19. Capability of sustainable CBRT programs in conducting 'search and rescue' for visitors	Agree	1
	Disagree, totally depending on security force (police and fireman)	0
20. Complaint/feedback on visitors' safety	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
21. Standard of environmental hygiene	At least once for every month	1
	Sometimes/during certain occasions	0
22. Availability of safety notices and publication of safety information	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
23. Capability of sustainable CBRT regarding prevention of infectious diseases	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
24. Quality of facilities, services and activities	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
25. Willingness to return as repeating tourist	Agree	1
	Disagree	0

26. Expenditure by tourists	Spending by tourists during visit (purchase souvenirs, food, extra services).	1
	Not significant (they just pay what is offered by the package)	0
27. Tourists' satisfaction of the overall tourism experience	Tourists are highly satisfy	1
	There is many complaints received	0
28. Improvement in tourists' understanding and knowledge about other cultures, communities and environment	Tourists received wide exposure about local culture and costumes.	1
	There is many complaints received	0

Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013

The result as illustrated in Table 9.5 indicated 72% of respondents (36 villagers) have agreed that within the socio-cultural category, uptake of CBRT practices is at a high level, hence has been successfully achieved; while the remaining 28% indicated a moderate level of uptake of practices has been achieved. Thus, the analysis has shown a very positive and satisfactory result with no indication of low level of sustainable practices for this category. However, there remains a great opportunity for improvement by moving currently moderate achievement of sustainable socio-cultural practices towards high level of uptake and becoming highly sustainable in future.

Table 9.5: Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of socio-cultural measures in CBRT program (all villages)

	Index value	Respondents	% of respondents
Low	<14	0	0.0
Moderate	15 – 21	14	28.0
High	>22	36	72.0
Total		50	100.0
Note:			
Index score classification:			
<i>Low</i> = total index score of <14, <i>Moderate</i> = total index score between 15-21, <i>High</i> = total index score of >22			

Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013

As illustrated in Figure 9.2, Kuala Medang village has shown a tremendously high uptake of sustainable practices (85%) while the remaining 15% indicated a moderate uptake of socio-cultural practices. Similar patterns of evaluation showed by the villagers of Teluk Ketapang since they have considered a high success of uptake of socio-cultural practices (70%), followed by 30% remaining that considered as at a moderate uptake level. However, for Seterpa village the respondents have evaluated their socio-cultural uptake with an equal value of 50% both a moderate and a high uptake of sustainability practices.

Because there is no low indication of uptake for this category, the total result can be considered as satisfactory with a high success of local hosts in implementing/adopting the recommended practices as addressed by socio-cultural indicators for sustainable CBRT. In addition, the results could suggest the local hosts are aware of values and potentials in maintaining a high level of local socio-cultural practices for tourism activities and attractions.

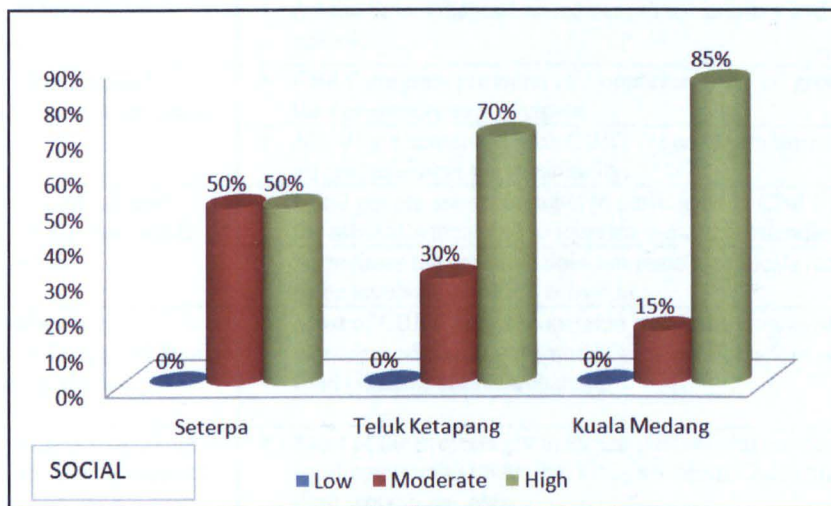


Figure 9.2: Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of socio-cultural measures in CBRT program (by village). Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013.

Based on data analysis of 28 indicators of this category, measures relevant to only eight indicators have been implemented successfully and recognised by all respondents (full selection) i.e. indicators numbered 1, 3, 6, 8, 10, 13, 15 and 17 (Table 9.4). Nineteen indicators have been implemented by more than half of the respondents (or between 25/50 to 49/50) hence are considered as satisfactory results. One indicator, i.e. indicator number 22 (Capability of sustainable CBRT regarding prevention of infectious diseases) only 3 out of 50 respondents agreed on successful implementation of measures. Detail comments or justification of assessing the sustainability level of each indicator for this category is presented in Table 9.6.

Table 9.6: Respondents comments on uptake of CBRT socio-cultural practices

Social-Cultural Indicators	Respondent comments of indicators
1. Access to local amenities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Communities did not face any problem to access and use local amenities.
2. Housing quality for sustainable CBRT/Home stay participants	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Overall, housing quality has been improved due to requirement imposed by the homestay program (provision of extra bedroom and guest toilet facility). ♦ Ministry of Tourism provided additional fund for homestay operators to upgrade facilities for visitors.
3. Education of local communities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ All the three villages located near to the primary and secondary school.
4. Presence of indigenous / minority groups in sustainable CBRT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ CBRT program provided vast opportunity for all groups within the community to participate.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Not all are convinced with CBRT – need more time to engage all groups within the community.
5. Local share in the use and enjoyment of the sustainable CBRT activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Local people are encouraged to participate in CBRT activities for self-enjoyment and to increase their understanding.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Sometimes the schedule does not match, so locals cannot share or be involved in CBRT activities.
6. Operation of tourism businesses by locals and their contribution to the locals' well-being	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Most of CBRT projects operated by locals, employed local workers and contribute some of their profit back to community fund (sharing of profit/charity).
7. Local community ownership of sustainable CBRT projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Most of the projects given by the government are owned by the local community under the Village Central Committee (SMEs, craft workshops, etc). ♦ All homestay operators are owned by local people.
8. Involvement of women and youth groups in sustainable CBRT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ CBRT program provided vast opportunity for all groups within the community to participate and share their ideas about planning and management of CBRT ♦ Involvement of women and youth is regarded as one of the key success for CBRT.
9. Improvement of local human capital	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ There are various training courses provided for CBRT participants. ♦ Sometimes, the community conduct study trips to learn from other successful communities.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Only selected individuals are involved in join training – should involve a wider audience.
10. Community acceptance of sustainable CBRT programmes (including non-participants)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ CBRT bring tourists including day travellers which is good for local businesses (food stalls and private taxi owners).
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Villagers feel uncomfortable moving around especially during tourist peak season.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Some children feel that some tourists did not wear proper attire during their stay.
11. Local understanding / awareness of sustainable CBRT issues	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Regular meetings and discussions between CBRT committee, NGOs, government officials with participants have increased local understanding and awareness about CBRT issues.
12. Respect towards land and property right of local hosts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Majority of tourists show respect towards land and property right of local hosts.
13. Encouragement of the continuity of traditional skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ CBRT has revitalised some traditional activities/passing knowledge to younger generations (craft making, dance and cultural performances).
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Traditional activities only supporting elements in CBRT with low return.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Need more guarantee one future prospects if we want to

	encourage young people to be involved in traditional activities.
14. Use of local resources/ materials for handicraft production	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Main raw materials for crafts (bamboo, rubber leaf, wood) are locally produced.
15. Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ CBRT maintain local traditions.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ With or without CBRT, local hosts still maintain their traditions.
16. Establishment of education and training programmes – improvement in knowledge of socio-cultural resource management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ CBRT encourage education and training to improve knowledge and skills. ♦ Educational trip – arranged to other CBRT sites to share knowledge with them.
17. Conservation of local architecture identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Maintain traditional/original shape of the roof for new building (some of it).
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Difficult to maintain old building with local architecture identity because not many knows how to maintain it. ♦ Only small numbers of traditional Malay houses while others were modern.
18. Promotion of local culture, events and history in sustainable CBRT development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Local culture and events are the main attractions of CBRT activities.
19. Capability of sustainable CBRT programs in conducting 'search and rescue' for visitors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Local hosts have capability to conduct search and rescue because the villages are small and people normally aware with tourist arrivals.
20. Complaint/feedback on visitors' safety	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Feedback from tourists is needed in order to improve local hosts' services.
21. Standard of environmental hygiene	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ For food-based SMEs (food catering, traditional cookie makers), they have been training to handle food in clean environment. ♦ There is no standard for CBRT but local hosts follow general practices in handling food and for accommodation.
22. Availability of safety notices and publication of safety information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Safety notices are available at all checkpoints in the villages. ♦ Provision of safety notices is one of the requirements of the Ministry of Tourism.
23. Capability of sustainable CBRT regarding prevention of infectious diseases	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Local hosts do not have capability to deal with infectious diseases. ♦ For health issues, local hosts usually refer tourists directly to any local clinic.
24. Quality of facilities, services and activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Due to competition, local hosts always ensure local facilities, services and activities at the highest quality.
25. Willingness to return as repeating tourist	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ There were cases where some tourists returned as repeating tourist but they want to explore new things/different packages for new experience.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Mostly did not return however, their stories have promoted to other visitors from their country to visit these villages.
26. Expenditure by tourists	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Some tourists did spend their money to buy craft products and food.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ By the end of their visit, tourists received a token/gift/souvenir.
27. Tourists' satisfaction of the overall tourism experience	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Most of tourists did mention about their satisfaction with cooperation and hospitality of local hosts during their visit.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ It is difficult to measure other people satisfaction.
28. Improvement in tourists' understanding and knowledge about other cultures, communities and environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Tourists' participation in hands-on activities (workshop and demonstration) could improve their understanding about local knowledge and cultures.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ It is difficult to measure other people level of understanding.

Note: All comments are applied for all three villages unless mentioned otherwise (or mentioned in specific).

9.6 UPTAKE OF SUSTAINABLE ENVIRONMENT PRACTICES

There are six indicators in this category and the total sum index values of indicators are classified as follows; low sustainability (if the total score is 2 or less); moderate sustainability (if the total score reached between 3 to 4); and highly sustainable (if the total score is 5 or more) (refer to Table 9.8).

Table 9.7: Environment indicators – criteria and index values

Environment Indicators	Criteria/Answers	Index
1. Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity	Agree	1
	Not concern about environment	0
2. Management of household and tourism waste	Yes, the community have a system of waste management/disposal	1
	Disagree	0
3. Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
4. Maintain the environmental carrying capacity	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
5. Changes in environmental quality (water and air)	Disagree	1
	Agree	0
6. Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials	Agree	1
	Disagree	0

Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013

The result of data analysis as illustrated in Table 9.8 indicated 52% of respondents (26 villagers) have agreed that within the environment category, uptake of CBRT practices is at a high level; followed by 28% indicated a moderate uptake of practices and the remaining 20% of respondents indicated a low level of sustainability practices for this category. Thus the analysis has shown a satisfactory result considering only 20% evaluation of environment practices are considered of low level of successful uptake of environment measures in CBRT program. However, there remains a great opportunity for improvement by moving currently low and moderate achievement of sustainable environment practices towards high level of uptake and becoming highly sustainable in future.

Table 9.8: Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of environment measures in CBRT program (all villages)

	Index value	Respondents	% of respondents
Low	<2	10	20.0
Moderate	3 – 4	14	28.0
High	>5	26	52.0
Total		50	100.0

Note:
 Total score of index values are classified into three:
Low = total index score of <2, **Moderate** = total index score between 3-4, **High** = total index score of >5

Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013

The respondents in Teluk Ketapang village have rated only 10% was evaluated as showing a moderate uptake of the sustainable CBRT measures while for the low and high uptake were measured equally at 45% respectively. Meanwhile, the Seterpa and Kuala Medang both showed positive sign of successful uptake of environment measures with the current practices is at a high level of sustainability for this category (refer to Figure 9.3). Analysis on each village is corresponding with supported information gathered through inventories of CBRT resources and attraction as discussed in Chapter 4. The researcher identified Seterpa and Kuala Medang as two villages endowed with rich natural resources and CBRT has been promoted and marketed using environment resources for tourists attractions (Research fieldwork in 2010). These factors might have influenced the evaluation of successful uptake of environment measures in sustainable CBRT program of these villages.

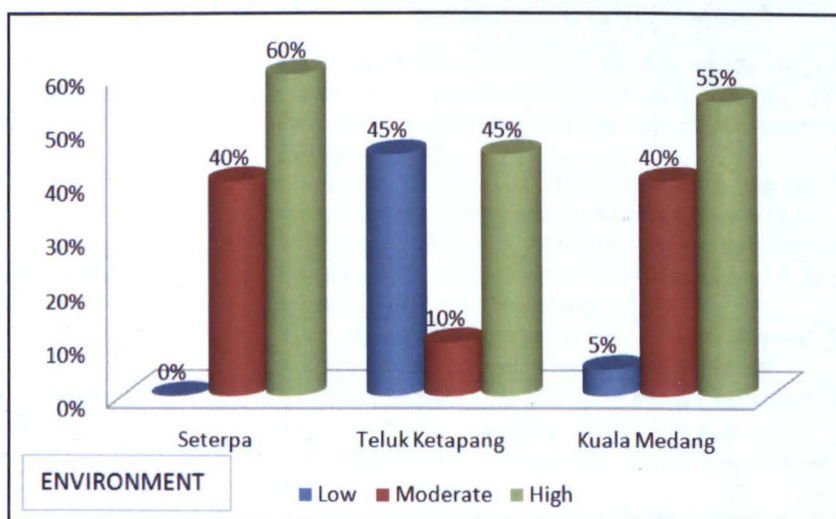


Figure 9.3: Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of environment measures in CBRT program (by village). Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013.

As shown in Table 9.9, the majority of respondents agreed and were satisfied with one indicator, i.e. “maintain the environment carrying capacity” which has been considered as being successfully implemented in CBRT environment practices. Among comments given to justify this result are the local hosts’ capabilities of Teluk Ketapang and Kuala Medang to accommodate large number of tourists even during peak season (normally during school holiday period). Based on discussion with local CBRT coordinators of Teluk Ketapang and Kuala Medang, followed up by the review of villages’ internal report on CBRT, the numbers of tourists’ arrivals have increased steadily over the year; however, local hosts indicate that the number is still below their target and below capacity of accommodation units available.

With regards in maintaining local environment carrying capacity (threshold), interviews with respondents of Kuala Medang did uncover the community effort to explore a new market for the CBRT program (developing niche market) which will be focusing on quality (tourist satisfaction) rather than quantity (getting a bigger and grower number of tourists). Their effort could potentially reduce pressure on natural resource and environment caused by CBRT activities, managing tourism in a more control manner and creating activities, which have bigger chance for mitigating negative impacts in the long term to the local hosts.

Table 9.9: Respondents comments on uptake of CBRT environment practices

Environment Indicators	Respondent comments of indicators
1. Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity	♦ CBRT urged the community to positively think about protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity for instance the Kelah fish sanctuary of Kuala Medang and practice of hand fishing of Seterpa.
	♦ Local farmers need to be educated about the importance of reducing open burning and use of chemical pesticide.
	♦ Difficulty to prevent private landowners to develop their land.
2. Management of household and tourism waste	♦ Local authorities provided garbage collection of domestic waste and still capable to handle local waste.
	♦ There should be a different system of waste disposal for domestic and tourism as not burden community in general
3. Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour	♦ Every tourist was given a briefing about local values (do and don'ts) and code of conduct during their stay.
	♦ It is difficult because tourist only stay in a short while (2 to 3 days).
	♦ Homestay owner cannot control tourist behaviour.
	♦ Local people rather keep quiet and try to avoid confrontation with tourists.
	♦ More time is needed to promote responsible tourist behaviour.

4. Maintain the environmental carrying capacity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ More tourists might create more tension to local people. ◆ Communities are now focusing in developing a niche market (not encourage mass tourism). ◆ Communities tended to maintain the capacity with small allowance for increase of capacity especially during school holiday period.
5. Changes in environmental quality (water and air)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ There is significant change in water or air quality even after they involved in CBRT. This is prove by the constant arrival of tourists. ◆ Tourism may either directly or indirectly contributed for instance increase in water consumption and wastewater generated.
6. Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Communities cannot identify any hazardous materials used in CBRT. ◆ Communities would avoid from using any hazardous materials in tourism. ◆ Communities did not poses appropriate knowledge to manage hazardous materials (if any).

Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013

The data analysis has also identified respondents' concerns regarding the relationship between environment practices in CBRT with other rural economy activities which have also taken place in their villages especially farming activities (Extended fieldwork in 2013). For respondents in Kuala Medang, their concern may not be related with the conflict between types of land uses or land use activities but rather related to farming practices which for them, to some extent, might create conflict with tourism. From respondents' long-term observation, farming practices such as open burning during the dry season and the use of chemical fertilizers and pesticides could pollute the air and river, and will not create a good image for tourism. These issues however, are beyond their control as agriculture land and farming activities are under private control. For respondents, it is now up to the local CBRT organisers to discuss these issues and deliver their concerns to the related parties. Without properly addressing these issues, it could be difficult for CBRT to make progress.

The role of local CBRT organisers is also becoming important in promoting responsible tourist behaviour for CBRT. Some respondents raised their concern on how the local hosts could educate tourists about responsible tourist behaviour in just a short time (may be 2 to 3 days visit) with different cultural value and background between local hosts and tourists.

9.7 UPTAKE OF SUSTAINABLE INSTITUTION PRACTICES

There are seven indicators in this category and the total sum index values of indicators are classified as follows; low sustainability (if the total score is 2 or less); moderate sustainability (if the total score reached between 3 to 5); and highly sustainable (if the total score is 6 or more) (refer to Table 9.11).

Table 9.10: Institution indicators – criteria and index values

Institution Indicators	Criteria/Answers	Index
1. Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas	Agree, there is a village land use map	1
	Did not have a village land use map	0
2. Land use planning for sustainable CBRT and their surrounding areas	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
3. Partnership in sustainable CBRT planning and management process	Agree (direct or indirect)	1
	No partnership	0
4. Improvement of local transport quality and services	Local transportation system is greatly improved	1
	No improvement in local transportation system	0
5. Management plan for sustainable CBRT changing hotspots	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
6. Practice of sustainable design in CBRT projects	Agree	1
	Disagree	0
7. Development control in sustainable CBRT projects	Agree	1
	Disagree	0

Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013

The result of the data analysis as illustrated in Table 9.8 indicated 24% (12 villagers) have agreed that within the institution category, uptake of CBRT practices is at a high level, hence has been successfully achieved; while the majority of 76% (38 villagers) indicated a moderate level of uptake of practices has been achieved. Thus, the analysis is considered as a positive and satisfactory result with no indication of low level of sustainable practices for this category. However, there remains a great opportunity for improvement by moving currently moderate achievement of sustainable institution practices towards high level of uptake and becoming highly sustainable in future.

Table 9.8: Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of institution measures in CBRT program (all villages)

	Index value	Respondents	% of respondents
Low	<2	0	0.0
Moderate	3 – 5	38	76.0
High	>6	12	24.0
Total		50	100.0

Note:
 Index score classification:
Low = total index score of <2, *Moderate* = total index score between 3-5, *High* = total index score of >6

Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013

Based on the result from further analysis of all villages have uncovered a similar pattern of respondents' evaluation of successful uptake of institution measures of CBRT program in their villages. All three villages have indicated a higher percentage for “moderate uptake of institution measures” category than “high uptake” category (Figure 9.4). Seterpa and Teluk Ketapang have produced similar results of 80% showed moderate uptake of the sustainable CBRT measures and the remaining 20% was evaluated as successfully showing a high uptake of practices. Kuala Medang on the other hand, had shown a slightly higher percentage for high uptake with 30%, leaving the remaining 70% to be evaluated as showing moderate uptake of institution practices.

Four indicators of this category has also shown high level of successful implementation of practices by respondents (50 out of 50) i.e. “Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas”, “Partnership in sustainable CBRT planning and management process”, “Management plan for sustainable CBRT changing hotspots” and “Development control in sustainable CBRT projects”.

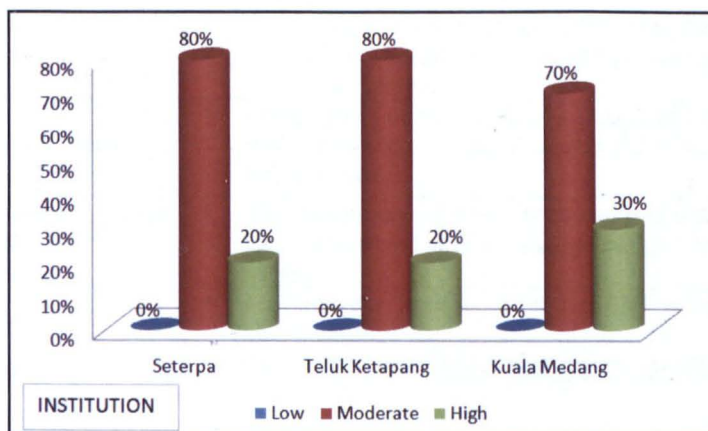


Figure 9.4: Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of institution measures in CBRT program (by village). Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013.

Based on observation, every village has a local land use map that has been located on the community hall wall. This land use map functioned as guidance to local planning and development. Every land use map contained vital information such as types of land use (residential, forest reserve, agriculture, etc) and total area (percentage of each land use). Based on the feedbacks, there are some respondents who wanted the local CBRT program to be carried out in a more control manner and within the community carrying capacity (i.e. maximum number of tourists that can be received by local host without disturbing the quality of nature and culture and maintaining high quality tourist experience and enjoyment). Respondents are also confident that the more controlled tourism activities are, the bigger chance there is for mitigating negative impacts in the long term to the local hosts.

Table 9.9: Respondents comments on uptake of CBRT institution practices

Institution Indicators	Respondent comments of indicators
1. Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ All three villages produced a land use map and follow the map to plan future development. ♦ So far, everybody complied to the existing land use map (on allowable land use activities).
2. Land use planning for sustainable CBRT and their surrounding areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Community prefer to use building planning rather than land use because the area for CBRT is relatively small and scattered.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ There is no specific land use map for CBRT. ♦ Communities did not have knowledge to formulated CBRT land use map/plan (don't know exact form of land use map).
3. Partnership in sustainable CBRT planning and management process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ To allow knowledge transfer (to foster management skill and training of human capital) and sharing of benefits from CBRT. ♦ Expanding learning curve especially for CBRT committee and participants. ♦ Expanding networking between local communities and other tourism actors.
4. Improvement of local transport quality and services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ All the three villages have been provided with basic transportation infrastructures (bus stops).
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Local public services need to be linked with the nearest towns. ♦ Currently, there is still low frequency of buses and limited taxi services. ♦ Communities feel more comfortable using their own vehicles. ♦ Normally the committee provided a pickup service for tourists at nearest bus station.
5. Management plan for sustainable CBRT changing hotspots	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Communities offering various packages of CBRT attractions to reduce pressure to certain resources/risk of depleted due to intensive use.
6. Practice of sustainable design in CBRT projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ The construction of dance theatre utilised wood and bamboo from local sources and have an open-air design (air condition is not needed).
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Modernisation have come before CBRT was introduced into the communities. ♦ To practice sustainable design require specific knowledge and in

	<p>many conditions, would be costly for mass application.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Tourists did not come for the sake of enjoying local sustainable design but to experience the uniqueness of natural and cultural attractions.
7. Development control in sustainable CBRT projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Development is needed (to fulfil basic need and improve quality of life) but in a more controlled manner. ♦ Development need to be in controlled as not to disturb the natural and cultural resources for tourism.

Note: All comments are applied for all three villages unless mentioned otherwise (or mentioned in specific).

Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013

Based on the qualitative data analysis, the majority of respondents have acknowledged the importance of partnership in developing and sustaining a local CBRT program. Similar findings have also been discussed thoroughly in Chapter 4 that indicated most of the early CBRT projects - for instance homestay and SMEs - are the result of partnership between local hosts and government agencies and/or with other investors. As mentioned in Table 9.9, respondents viewed partnership as a means which providing greater benefit by creating a networking chain with other tourism players. Through partnership, local CBRT activities could be promoted and marketed more efficiently. Positive feedback was also gathered concerning efforts in managing the CBRT “changing hotspot” indicator (see Table 9.9, indicator 11). Planning for CBRT changing hotspots is important since local hosts wanted to maintain CBRT attractions and activities by maintaining their standards and quality intact, and not allowing them to degrade over time due to excessive use of these resources. Development control in sustainable CBRT projects is another crucial indicator for this category since all three villages have been using the local land use map to guide all planning and land use activities that taken place in the village. The majority of the qualitative responses have indicated that development activities in the village need to be controlled in order to maintain the quality of natural and cultural resources for tourism.

Data analysis for this category had also shown that one indicator was not successfully implemented i.e. number 6 (Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials). The majority of the qualitative responses have indicated limited knowledge for managing potential hazardous waste poses a major challenge for local hosts, while others felt they preferred not to create any tourism activities that could generate hazardous waste, even if the community might gain more benefits from the activities created.

9.8 DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

The field test of the proposed list of indicators and data analysis from this chapter have captured villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of economic, socio-cultural, environment and institution measures in CBRT program. As presented in the conclusion and Figure 9.5, there are two types or patterns of successful uptake in CBRT practices emerged:

- i. The analysis on uptake of CBRT economic and institution practices has shown a **moderate success level** with both 54% and 76% of an overall achievement.
- ii. The analysis on uptake of CBRT socio-cultural and environment practices has shown a **high success level** with both 72% and 52% of an overall achievement.

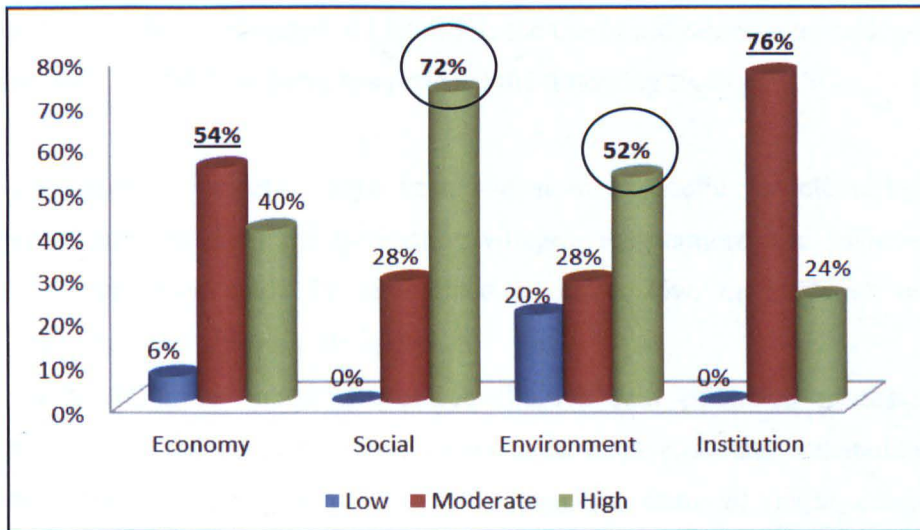


Figure 9.5: Villagers' evaluation of successful uptake of all categories of CBRT program (all villages). Source: Extended fieldwork in 2013.

It is worth reflecting on outcomes of this analysis as shown in Figure 9.5, with earlier findings from the review of literature as presented in Chapter 2 and 3 of this thesis. Findings have indicated a high achievement of uptake for socio-cultural and environment practices in CBRT program in all three villages. These findings could signal a high level of “buy-in” and support from local stakeholders (including local hosts and their organisation) in organising and operating CBRT activities with high consideration of local socio-cultural and environment resources. The findings also concur with literature on the sustainable

CBRT concept that considered the socio-cultural and environment elements as the core components hence these need to be preserved and protected via sustainability practices and management to maintain the long term success of CBRT.

Meanwhile, the economic and institution indicators, which were evaluated as showing moderate uptake, these could considerably motivate the community to continuously upgrade and improve the CBRT programs in their villages. This can be made possible by identifying the weak aspects and focusing on those actions that are more effective. There are particular practices, which were rated as “high uptake” by the respondents; the communities however, still need to plan to maintain the success of such practices especially of environmental and socio-cultural aspects, as these are key to the success of CBRT and attractions for current and potential tourists.

Other than the results as presented in Figure 9.1, the use of indicators in assessing the level of sustainability of CBRT program has revealed the following findings:

- The proposed indicators have been shown to be useful for measuring CBRT performance in the three case study villages. Furthermore, the achievement of CBRT practices could be determined as either low, or moderate or highly sustainable using index score approach.
- The results from quantitative and qualitative data collection processes could provide vital information to researchers, local hosts and other stakeholders about the current performance in the CBRT program from all major categories of indicators: economic, social-cultural, and environment and institution.
- The results from field test of indicators could inform decision makers and the CBRT participants in general about “where they are”, i.e. based on the current level of sustainability practices, and “where they want to go”, i.e. the local hosts’ goal or target setting for development of CBRT program. More importantly, indicators could also reveal to local hosts and other stakeholders “how far they are from achieving their goal/target”. For instance, local CBRT organisation and stakeholders could formulate a five-year plan with a focus on improving from an evaluation of “moderate” and becoming highly sustainable.

Observation of an individual indicator has allowed the current researcher to analyse individual issues and possible shortcomings in detail. From specific reference of each indicator, the local hosts could identify potential issues or shortcomings hence giving them better insights that later on could be used in strategising future mitigation or improvement plan. Furthermore, applying such indicators could function as an early warning system that could alert decision makers about any changes that happen in CBRT activities. The researcher has combined quantitative and qualitative approaches. Although some of crucial information was captured using questionnaire-guided interviews, other information - especially that which cannot be quantified by the questionnaire (e.g. respondents' reasons/justifications in choosing certain answers) were included in the qualitative sections of this research.

Simple random sampling was used and the proposed CBRT indicators were measured quantitatively and qualitatively by the Kuala Medang, Teluk Ketapang and Seterpa communities, their representatives and among other stakeholders. The data analysis was done using index score approach and the results were validated by the results of qualitative data analysis. Therefore, there should be less doubt about the field test procedure and method of measurement of sustainable CBRT indicators.

Overall, the researcher found the proposed indicators have achieved their target in assessing the level of sustainability practices of CBRT and presenting the findings in a more tangible way. Even though the study has identified shortcomings of certain indicators in assessing sustainable practices, mostly due to lack of data and information available, lack of knowledge and insufficient funding, another crucial question that need to be asked here is: can the CBRT decision makers and their local hosts' utilised information from this study to improve current CBRT practices? The answer surely depends on the locals hosts themselves. However, judging from recent event, local hosts selected for this study have shown tremendous efforts, commitment and support towards the study from the beginning by selecting possible key indicators, through to field testing of indicators. Therefore, the results from this study are expected to benefit local hosts hence improve their understanding about the roles and functions of indicators in assessing the performance of CBRT.

CHAPTER 10

CONCLUSION

10.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to:

- i. Revisits the goals and objectives of the research by reassessing the research findings against the original goal and objectives of the research as outlined early on in Chapter 1. The objectives were set based on the research questions as outlined in Section 1.3 (Chapter 1).
- ii. Collates, summarises and discusses the findings of the research and its relation to academic relevance and future practice. This chapter discusses the challenges of the research, followed by the recommendations for future research and recommendations for stakeholders at different level of CBRT development processes.

10.2 MEETING THE AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The goals and objectives of the research are revisited here. The goals of research are:

1. to determine the potential set of sustainability indicators for monitoring CBRT performance, and

2. to evaluate the applicability of the suggested indicators in monitoring the sustainable CBRT performance in the East Coast Economic Region (ECER), Malaysia.

This research is aimed to achieve the following objectives:

1. To review the concept of sustainable CBRT and identify the achievement and forms of rural tourism in the study areas and other relevant cases.
2. To assess the value of sustainability indicators in working towards sustainable CBRT, and the key influences on the development and implementation of such indicators
3. To gather, formulate and assess a set of indicators of sustainable CBRT from both local Malaysian and international experience.
4. To produce a final list of indicators of sustainable CBRT development for the study areas, working in consultation with experts and local stakeholders.
5. To assess the performance of CBRT program for the study areas using the proposed set of indicators.

Each objective is discussed according to the progress made and evaluated on the extent of these objectives are achieved and answered the research questions (as outlined in Section 1.3 – Chapter 1).

Objective one: *Review the concept of sustainable CBRT and identify the achievement and forms of rural tourism in the study areas and other relevant cases.*

The research process began with a literature review stage in order to set a theoretical framework of how the community based rural tourism (CBRT) among other forms of tourism development in rural areas might benefit from the agenda of sustainable development. The literature review, as presented in Chapter 2, encompassed discussions on the general concept of sustainable development, sustainable tourism and sustainable CBRT. From the literature, it was found that there is no doubt that the tourism sector has become one of the most important contributors to development and an “agent of change” for many parts of the world. The strength of tourism has been

described in various forms as a tool for economic and physical development, to enhance social and human capital development and for conservation of the natural environment.

Since the paradigm of sustainable development, as conceived by WCED, has become dominant in international political discourse and practices, it has naturally deeply influenced the debate on tourism. In addition, many writers on tourism appear to have accepted the sustainable development concept as inherently good and appropriate for tourism as it could potentially solve issues resulting from the rapid development of tourism. In response to this growing interest in consideration of the long term success of tourism, the sustainable tourism concept has emerged.

The review also indicated that the concept of sustainable tourism was criticised due to widespread adoption of the term “sustainable tourism”, without meaningful attempts to define it. In Chapter 2, the researcher has attempted to present a working definition for the research based on the common criteria used in formulating sustainable tourism definitions (Table 2.3). It is important to clarify that sustainable tourism development seeks to maintain and enhance the benefits to the host community, and the quality of the tourist experience at destination areas through the promotion of economic developments which conserve (and where necessary preserve) the local built, natural and cultural resources.

The literature review also discussed the concept of sustainable CBRT, which is the focus of this research. The discussion includes the definition, goals and the principal forms of sustainable CBRT. Sustainable CBRT is a bottom-up initiative that is owned by one or more defined rural communities, or run as joint-venture partnerships with the government or private sector with equitable community participation and empowerment. Sustainable CBRT should also be operated using natural and cultural resources in a sustainable manner to improve the standard of living of host communities in an economically viable way. The findings and discussions in Chapter 2 have provided an in-depth understanding of the current situation on the concept of sustainable CBRT, as set out in this first objective of this research.

Objective two: *Assess the value of sustainability indicators in working towards sustainable CBRT, and the key challenges in the development and implementation of such indicators.*

The CBRT programme is being greatly promoted by the Malaysian government and enthusiastically embraced by local communities, and regarded as a catalyst for rejuvenating the rural economy, social and natural environment. As this research has further discovered, there was an issue of lack of monitoring of the implementation of sustainable CBRT programme by the government agencies (refer to Sections 1.2.2 and 8.5.1). This is not surprising, as until now no set of criteria and indicators has been established by the government agencies involved, leaving the debate about monitoring to persist.

Chapter 3 of this thesis is set up to identify and assess the value of sustainability indicators for sustainable CBRT. The reviews first discussed the nature of indicators, followed by discussion of the basis and need for indicators. As set out in section 3.2.1, indicators are used to gather relevant information about the environment surrounding people's everyday lives in the decision-making process, even for the most common circumstances. The review process then continued with an explanation of the sustainable CBRT indicators framework (see section 3.3). One of the most significant elements highlighted in this section was the establishment of criteria for indicators selection, which reflected the second objective of this research. Based on detailed examination of various cases about ideal criteria for selecting the sustainable CBRT indicators, this research has proposed the use of the SMART concept – Simple, Measurable, Accessible, Relevant and Timely. These considerations were further justified in Table 3.6.

Finally, the review discussed the key challenges in developing and implementing sustainability indicators. As presented in section 3.4, sustainability indicators are expected to capture and translate the complex reality into measurable forms or into a manageable amount of meaningful information to inform decisions and direct actions.

However, there are also challenges involved:

- The lack of a clear and simple framework in formulating and presenting the indicators;
- The absence of relevant data and information to support the formulation of sustainability indicators; and
- Access to indicators by potential users and the engagement of the relevant stakeholders and those who are intended to benefit from the indicators have also presented significant challenges in developing indicators.

The elements of subjectivity related to the choices made by decision-makers on the measurement and implementation of sustainability indicators have also been addressed by this research. Furthermore, there seems to be an issue of lack of effort and commitment to implement the sustainability indicators. The challenges mentioned in the literature review have been further explored in Chapter 8 and Chapter 9; some useful insights into the implementation of CBRT indicators for assessing the CBRT performance through field-test process, as discussed in objective number five of this research.

Objective three: *Gather, formulate and assess a set of currently available criteria and indicators of sustainable CBRT from both local Malaysian and international experience.*

This research has reviewed various secondary sources such as journals, government documents, consultation reports and unpublished PhD theses both from local Malaysian and international experience in order to gather and construct the preliminary set of indicators (as described and discussed in section 5.2).

The preliminary list of indicators was sent to an expert panel for further assessment or validation, modification and improvement using the Delphi consensus to produce a “revised set of indicators” of sustainable CBRT. The experts’ assessment during the first stage of the Delphi process was referred to the SMART concept, which was

proposed by this research (Chapter 3). In total, 67 indicators were identified and put in the preliminary list (Table 5.1), in line with objective number three of the research.

Objective four: *Produce a final list of indicators of sustainable CBRT development for the study areas, working in consultation with experts and local stakeholders.*

Following the methodological framework developed in Chapter 5, the fieldwork survey was conducted in three phases. As described in Figure 6.1, the first phase of the survey was the Delphi process, which involved the distribution of questionnaires to 20 experts who have previously been selected based on specific criteria. This process was done initially from the UK via email and post. The completed questionnaires were then analysed (using frequency analysis) to form the revised list of indicators. From the list of 67 indicators (as preliminarily identified in Chapter 5), 47 indicators were selected as “important” by the respondents (Table 6.3). This list was used to conduct a second phase of the survey both for the experts’ panel (second round for Delphi) (Table 6.4) and for local stakeholders in three CBRT sites, who were asked to rank indicators accordingly. Three CBRT sites were selected as study cases namely Kuala Medang village in Pahang state, Teluk Ketapang in Terengganu state and Seterpa in Kelantan state. This second phase was done in a four-month period beginning October 2009 until January 2010 (refer to Chapter 7 for the survey of local stakeholders). 47 indicators from the previous process were ranked according to SMART concept by both experts and local stakeholders and each indicator was assessed using index score approach. Out of 47, 17 indicators were ranked as “very important” while the remaining was considered as “important”. No indicator was excluded from the list; hence, all these indicators have been carried forward for field-testing at the later stage.

Objective five: *To assess the performance of CBRT program for the study areas using the proposed set of indicators.*

Chapter 9 was set to explain the process and procedure of series of field-tests conducted to assess the performance of CBRT program for the study areas using the proposed indicators. It is important for this study to determine the applicability and measurability of these indicators whether the indicators could reflect what is in reality

(current level sustainable CBRT practices and performance of CBRT program towards sustainability). Such information could help the communities to make their choices or plan further actions with regards to CBRT programs.

A total of 50 respondents participated in the field-tests i.e. 10 respondents from Seterpa and for Kuala Medang and Teluk Ketapang with 20 respondents respectively. 47 indicators from previous stage (Chapter 8) were put to test. The indicators were divided into four pillars of sustainable CBRT namely the economy indicators (6 indicators for this category), social (27 indicators), environment (7 indicators) and institution (6 indicators). Index score analysis was adopted to determine the score values and the total score of each pillar was categorised into three level, i.e. low level of sustainability, moderate and highly sustainable. Detail discussion for categorisation of index score is presented in Chapter 9. Findings from field test process revealed 54% respondent acknowledged the economy components of CBRT program is at a moderate level; as compared to 40% indicated high and 6% indicated low sustainability level. Assessment of social sustainability of CBRT revealed 72% respondents indicated moderate level of sustainability and another 28% agreed that it is on the high level. As for environment pillar, 52% respondents indicated high level of sustainability, followed by 28% (moderate sustainability) and 20% (low). For institution pillar, 76% of respondents indicated moderate level of sustainability and another 24% agreed that it is on the high level. Feedbacks from the respondents have shown positive signs on the applicability of the proposed indicators in assessing the sustainability of CBRT program.

Figure 10.1 below summarises the organisation of the research including the processes involved and how the main findings were linked together to reflect the aim and objectives of the research.

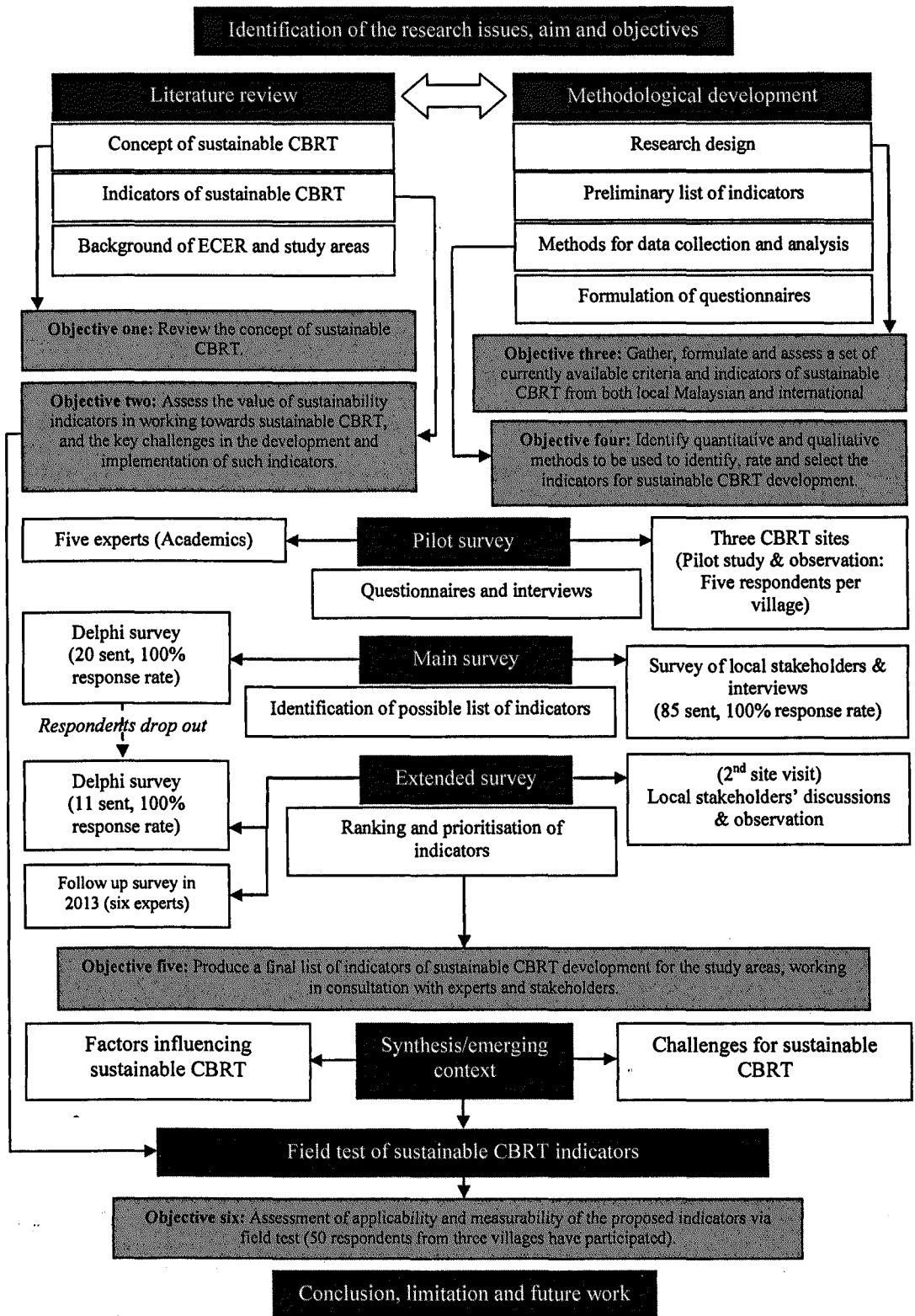


Figure 10.1: The research map – meeting the objectives

10.3 THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE RESEARCH

The contributions of this research to the existing body of knowledge are described from the academic relevance and from the relevance of the research for practice.

10.3.1 Academic Relevance

This research is carried out to formulate sets of indicators of sustainable CBRT and to evaluate the applicability and reliability of these indicators in monitoring the performance of CBRT (via series of field-testing). The review of literature and secondary data (including reports of tourism programmes published by MOTOUR, 2001; FDTCP, 2007; ECER, 2008, GOM, 1996 and 2006 and MRRD, 2010) indicates an area of CBRT research which yet to be explored, i.e. the formulation of indicators for CBRT. The review has also provided useful insights on the concept of sustainable CBRT and the context, which could enable the promotion, and integration of sustainability principles into the development of CBRT indicators. The sets of indicators suggested by this research were formulated based on literature review (e.g. journals, government reports, PhD thesis, and so on), followed by two stages of fieldwork analysis (presented in two chapters) to evaluate, select and refine the list of suggested indicators by adopting the Delphi exercises and survey of local stakeholders in three villages.

The other methodological contribution is by mean of employing the Delphi exercise. The Delphi has been widely used in different fields and for different purposes. In this research, the application of the Delphi had given the opportunity in bringing together experts from various backgrounds, where they could share their knowledge and thoughts to achieve a common goal, i.e. to identify, select and rank the indicators.

The formulation of sustainability indicators however requires a field test as to validate the whole process of developing indicators and to prove the reliability of these indicators (could work on real case). Therefore, a series of field tests were carried out and discussed in Chapter 9. It is understood that at the beginning of the research and

by reviewing research findings, a monitoring process through field test could add more details on sustainability aspects and hence provide greater understanding of the sustainable CBRT concept by all groups of stakeholders involved in planning, developing and managing the sustainable CBRT programme. Graci and Dodds (2010), Twining-Ward (2007) and Miller and Twining-Ward (2005) indicated that the field test process offers great opportunities for transferability of the outcomes of this research (use of indicators to assess the sustainable CBRT performance) into an existing framework or a current tourism and rural development plan and policies for the future. Transferability of the research outcomes into other economic regions in Malaysia, and/or in other Asian countries with CBRT programmes such as Indonesia, Thailand and Cambodia is possible; however, this may require the establishment of thorough follow up studies to include cross-border issues, forms of collaboration, time and financial constraints and so on.

10.3.2 Relevance of the Research for Practice

The set of indicators and their monitoring process via series of field test proposed by this study could offer the potential users such as government agencies, local stakeholders and tourism industry players a decision aid to evaluate the performance of CBRT programmes, hence realising the long-term vision of moving a CBRT programme towards becoming more sustainable in future. Each phase of this research (including formulation of indicators and field test stages) has been confirmed in practice. The multiple methods used in the research have demonstrated a high level of acceptability and applicability by both the experts and local stakeholders in their way of thinking about how to improve and enhance the CBRT performances. As understood from the results of data analysis, those who participated were also interested in the aim of this research and showed their full support during the survey. This involvement can be helpful in gaining longer-term agency commitment for the implementation of an indicator monitoring system.

In relation to the three main stakeholders' groups or potential users identified earlier, the research may be relevance for practice:

1. The study has collated, reviews and discusses the development of tourism in Malaysia from the three tiers of government (the Federal, States and Local). In addition, this study also formulated a specific section exploring the relationship between the selected rural communities of East Coast Economic Region (ECER) and tourism development, and these may have value for the ECER development authority. This study has formulated a list of indicators and conducted field tests using these indicators together with the detail of presentation of results and assessment, which may be useful as future reference for government agencies to monitor and to assess the level of sustainability practices of CBRT program. The suggested list of indicators is comprehensive; it can be utilise to assess the monetary elements of CBRT such as number of new job created and income generated, as well as non-monetary elements such as promotion of responsible tourism behaviour and local culture, events and history in CBRT, etc.
2. Even though results of the survey of local stakeholders represent relatively small sample size of 85 respondents for formulation and rank of indicators, and later 50 respondents who took part in the field tests, the study showed that the local communities and their stakeholders are very interested and committed to participate in the surveys and interviews. The communities recognised and strongly support the importance of CBRT indicators (78% of respondents supported the formulation of sustainability indicators). Furthermore, the local communities also recognised the need of their involvement in the indicators' formulation and implementation processes (Research fieldwork in 2010). Outcomes of the field tests support the literature review, which indicated indicators could help the communities to make their choices and plan further action on CBRT programs.

As mentioned in section 1.2, there are opportunities for transferability of the main outcomes of this research. A set of sustainability indicators and their field testing process can play a more practical role if it can be inserted in the MOTOUR development framework (the Malaysian Rural Tourism Master Plan) and the MRRD long-term planning (Malaysian Second Rural Transformation Plan, 1999-2020).

10.4 THE RESEARCH CHALLENGES

The challenges of this research occurred mainly during the data collection process. As presented in Section 5.7.1, one of the challenges of the Delphi approach was to attain feedback from the respondents within the given period. Considering that the process of identifying and assembling a group of experts can be very time-consuming, preliminary work needs to be carried out as soon as possible. Due to geographical constraints, the preliminary survey was started from the UK via email to establish rapport with experts and local CBRT coordinators. Once the list of expert panellists was confirmed, the research questionnaires were sent off via email and two weeks (approximately) were given for the experts to answer and return them.

The process of obtaining feedback from experts showed mixed results, though most experts, especially the academics, responded within the given time. However, responses from government agencies and non-governmental bodies (NGOs) were relatively slow and exceeded the given period. Based on interviews with the experts, the reason for the slow feedback was because communication via emails (in this research, the questionnaires were sent out as attachments) are not widely used in Malaysia, especially in surveys involving government officers. They prefer a conventional approach (i.e. face-to-face interview). Experts from NGOs, who work for these organisations on a part-time basis, concurrently have commitments to their full-time jobs and therefore had limited time to check emails and participate in such surveys.

As for the survey of local stakeholders, telephone calls were made to local CBRT coordinators and formal introduction letters were posted to inform them about the survey. During the survey, the respondents gave positive response with both CBRT participants and non-participants showing interest in the research and willing to spend time to answer the questionnaires. There were, however, some remaining concerns on the lack of understanding of the general concept of sustainable development and CBRT by the local communities.

It is understood from the data analysis that not all participants of the survey were well informed or had knowledge about the issues related with sustainable development and CBRT. In order to address this issue, the researcher arranged meetings with each local CBRT committee and participants (on one or two occasions) to explain the background of the research, the general idea of sustainable development and CBRT and how these concepts fit into the research and the crucial roles of the participants. By doing so, the research has had better chances of attaining better feedback by minimising confusion and misconception about the research.

Challenges occurred during the stage of ranking of indicators using SMART concept to guide respondents' assessment and selection. Although indicators chosen by the respondents could set the elements to assess and improve CBRT performance, there is concern regarding the availability of relevant data or information to assist the application of indicators especially for indicators that deal with qualitative or subjective matters (measuring perception, opinion, etc.).

The wider institutional issues of sustainable CBRT development were also considered as major challenges of this research (refer to Section 8.5.1). The issues of philosophical differences and overlapping scope of work between the two main agencies that are responsible for planning and developing CBRT (i.e. the Ministry of Tourism Malaysia, MOTOUR and the Ministry of Rural and Regional Development, MRRD) can hold back the prospects of the monitoring process suggested by this research (refer to Chapter 9). Both ministries, however, acknowledged that the leadership aspect is very important in coordinating any further actions including application of sustainability indicators within a monitoring process to evaluate performance at every CBRT site. Given these discrepancies, this study also recommended the establishment of the sustainable CBRT task force to lead the implementation process.

10.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This research can be seen as the first step in a long and continuous process to realise the vision and objectives of sustainable CBRT in Malaysia. Therefore, there

will always be a need for further research. The following recommendations are made to help consideration by the Ministry of Tourism (MOTOUR), Ministry of Rural and Regional Development (MRRD), the East Coast Economic Region Development Committee (ECERDC), host communities and other agencies that are involved in CBRT program:

1. As mentioned in Chapter 1, there is no clear evidence to link the concept of sustainable CBRT with the Malaysia Rural Tourism Master Plan 2001 and the Rural Transformation Plan 1991 – 2020. Although the plans were formulated to develop countryside and rural communities with more profitable economic activities while maintaining the social and environment dimensions in sustainable ways, in reality however its achievement is still far from reaching its goals (Ngah, 2008; ECERDC, 2008; Mohd Balwi, 2005). Likewise, this study has engaged with comprehensive reviews of the sustainable CBRT concept, followed by formulation of indicators and a monitoring process. In other words, the outcome of this research can be utilised to link the research with the fore-mentioned master plan. However, in doing so, further research needs must be identified.
2. It was not possible to cover the whole area of the Malaysia Peninsula within this research because of the time and financial limitations. It is suggested that the scale (coverage areas, numbers of rural settlements, sample size, variety of stakeholders, etc.) of the survey is to be extended to include wider CBRT sites and maybe including other major economic regions such as Iskandar Malaysia (Southern Economic Corridor) and the NCER (Northern Economic Corridor). Indicators developed from this research might not be perfect, and/or incomplete, thus expanding the field-testing scale might provide greater chance for further refinement of these indicators and making it applicable for wider context.
3. A different approach should be explored such as in-depth case studies and narrowing the focus of the study, which can allow detailed elements such as the socio-cultural or environmental dimensions within the sustainable CBRT concept to be investigated more precisely.

10.6 CONCLUSION

It has been a challenge to develop a set of indicators and a monitoring process for evaluating the progress of CBRT programmes towards sustainability. The sustainability indicators and monitoring process can provide not only crucial information regarding the state and issues of CBRT, but are also useful tools for continuous improvement of the quality of CBRT management as an integral part of the sustainable development of ECER. This research is a small contribution towards understanding of sustainable development and sustainable CBRT concepts.

The next step after this research is for the MOTOUR, MRRD, ECERDC and local CBRT stakeholders to recognise the importance of establishing a set of useful indicators and their monitoring process in guiding decision-making and future policy development concerning sustainable CBRT programmes. Findings from the field tests (as presented in Chapter 9) have demonstrated the operability, applicability and transferability of these indicators in assessing performance of CBRT program in the study areas. It is understood from the literature review (refer to Chapters 2 and 3) that the development and implementation of sustainability indicators is a dynamic process. Therefore, continuous refinement and improvement on the list of indicators and monitoring process based on changes in environment, public preferences, availability of new information, and growing experience and knowledge about sustainability, CBRT concept and the study area (ECER) are highly recommended.

REFERENCES

- Adger, W. N. and Jordan, A. (2009). Sustainability: exploring the process and outcomes of governance, in Adger, W. N. & Andrew, J. (2009) *Governing Sustainability (eds.)*, pp. 1-31. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ansley, F. and Gaventa, J. (1997). *Researching for Democracy and Democratizing Research. Doing Community-Based Research: A Reader*. Knoxville: The Loka Institute.
- Aref, F. (2011). Sense of Community and Participation for Tourism Development. *Life Science Journal*, 8 (1): 20-25.
- Aref, F. and Redzuan, M. (2008). Barriers to Community Participation Toward Tourism Development in Shiraz, Iran. *Pakistan Journal of Social Sciences* 5(9):936-940.
- Aronsson, L. (2001). *The Development of Sustainable Tourism*. London: Continuum Publishing.
- Arunotai, N. (2004). Educating the tourists, empowering the community – the way (it should be) for eco- and cultural tourism in Thailand. Paper presented at *the Third UCRC Academic Forum* in Yogyakarta on “Tourism and Education” organized by Osaka University, the Urban Culture Research Center, Chulalongkorn University, and Gadjaja Mada University. Bangkok, December 2004.
- Ashley, C. and Roe, D. (2002). Making tourism work for the poor: strategies and challenges in Southern Africa. *Development Southern Africa*, Vol. 19, No 1, March.
- Ashley, C. (2002). Methodology for Pro-Poor Tourism Case Studies. (on line) http://www.propoortourism.org.uk/10_methodology.pdf (1 August 2010).
- Ashley, C., Goodwin, H. and Roe, D. (2001). Pro-Poor Tourism Strategies: Expanding Opportunities for the Poor. *Pro-poor tourism briefing, No. 1, April 2001*. Available online at: http://www.dfid.gov.uk/R4D/PDF/Outputs/mis_spc/r7557-brief2.pdf.
- Ashley, C. Boyd, C and Goodwin, H. (2000). Pro-poor tourism: putting poverty at the heart of the tourism agenda. *Natural Resource Perspectives*, Num 51, March.
- Ashley, C. and Maxwell, S. (2001). Rethinking Rural Development. *Development Policy Review*, 2001, 19 (4): 395 – 425. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Bahaire, T. and Elliott-White, M. (1999). Community participation in tourism planning and development in the Historic City of York, England. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 2(2&3), pp. 243-276.
- Baker, S. (2006). *Sustainable Development*. London and New York: Routledge Publication.
- Bala, P. (2002). *Changing borders and identities in the Kelabit Highlands: Anthropological reflection on growing up near an international border*. Sarawak: UMS Press.
- Banerjee, A. (2007). *An evaluation of the potential and limitations of ecotourism as a vehicle biodiversity conservation and sustainable development in the protected areas of India*. Unpublished PhD dissertation: University of Delaware.
- Barzekar, G., Aziz, A., Mariapan, M., Ismail, M. H. and Hosseni, S. M. (2011). Delphi technique for generating criteria and indicators in monitoring ecotourism sustainability in Northern forests of Iran: Case study on Dohezar and Sehezar Watersheds. *Folia Forestalia Polonica*, series A, 53 (2): 130 – 141.
- Bell, S. and Morse, S. (2008). *Sustainability indicators: measuring the immeasurable?* (2nd edition). London: Earthscan.
- Berg, B. L. (2004). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences* (5th Edition), Boston: Pearson International Edition.
- Berger, A. R. and Hodge, R. A. (1995). Natural change in the environment: A challenge to the pressure-state-response concept. In, *Scientific Workshop on Indicator of Sustainable Development*, Nov. 15-17, Wuppertal, Germany.
- Berger, A. R. and Hodge R.A. (1997). Natural Change in the Environment: a challenge to the Pressure-State-Response concept. *Social Indicators Research* 44: 255–265, 1998.
- Berke, P. R. and Conroy, M. M. (2000). Are We Planning for Sustainable Development? An Evaluation of 30 Comprehensive Plans. *Journal of the American Planning Association* 66 (1): 21-33.

- Bernardo, J. C. (2011). Framework for the Development of Community-based Rural Tourism and Successful Models of CBRT in Asia. Paper presented at *the Conference on Planning and Developing Community-Based Rural Tourism*. Philippines, 12-14 Jan.
- Blackstock, K. (2005). A critical look at community based tourism. *Community Development Journal*, 40(1), pp. 39-49.
- Blackstock, K. L., Scott, A. J., White, V. and McCrum, G. (2006). *Indicators and sustainable tourism: Summary of interview findings*, Aberdeen: The Macaulay Institute.
- Bloyer, J. M., Gustke, L. D. and Leung, Y. (2004). Indicators for sustainable tourism development: crossing the divide from definitions to actions, in Pineda, F. D., Brebbia, C. A. & Mugica, M. (eds.). *Sustainable Tourism*. Southampton: WIT Press.
- Bramwell, B. (ed.) (1990). *Shades of green: Working towards green tourism in the countryside*. London: English Tourist Board.
- Bramwell, B. (1994). Rural tourism and sustainable rural tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 2 (1&2), pp. 1-6.
- Bramwell, B. and Henry, I. (1996) 'A Framework for Understanding Sustainable Tourism Management' in Bramwell B. et al. (eds), *Sustainable Tourism Management: Principles and Practice*, Netherlands, Tilburg University Press.
- Bramwell, B. and Lane, B. (1993). 'Sustainable Tourism: An Evolving Global Approach', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 1, 1: 1-5.
- Bramwell, B. and Lane, B. (1994). *Rural Tourism and Sustainable Rural Development*, Bristol: Channel View Publications.
- Brandon, P. S. and Lombardi, P. (2011). *Evaluating Sustainable Development in the Built Environment* (2nd Edition). West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- Brewer, J. (2000). *Ethnography*, Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Briedenhann, J. and Butts, S. (2006). Application of the Delphi technique to rural tourism project evaluation, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 9 (2), 171-190.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods* (3rd Edition), Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Butler, R. W. (1999). Sustainable tourism: A state-of-the-art review, *Tourism Geographies*, 1:1, pp. 7-25.
- Cameron, C. E. (2005). *Varying Perceptions of Sustainable Development: Implications for Rural Planning and Development*, Unpublished Master of Environmental Sciences Thesis: Dalhousie University, Nova Scotia.
- Castellani, V. and Sala, S. (2009). Sustainable performance index for tourism policy development. *Tourism Management*, doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2009.10.001
- Cater, E. A. (1993). Ecotourism in the Third World: Problems for Sustainable Tourism Development. *Tourism Management*, 14(2), 85 – 89.
- Ceron, J. P. and Dubois, G. (2003). Tourism and Sustainable Development Indicators: The Gap between Theoretical Demands and Practical Achievements, *Current Issues in Tourism*, Vol.6, No. 1, pp. 54 – 75.
- Chang, Y. C., Hsu, C. J., Williams, G. and Pan, M. L. (2008). Low cost carriers' destination selection using a Delphi method, *Tourism Management*, 29, 898-908.
- Che Leh, F. and Hamzah, M. R. (2012). Homestay tourism and pro-poor tourism strategy in Banghuris Selangor, Malaysia. *Elixir Geoscience*, 45 (2012), 7602-7610.
- Choi, H. S and Sirakaya, E. (2005). Measuring Resident Attitudes toward Sustainable Tourism: Development of a Sustainable Tourism Attitude Scale. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(4): 380-394.
- Choi, H. C. and Sirakaya, E. (2006). Sustainability indicators for managing community tourism. *Tourism Management* 27 (2006): 1274-1289.
- Cinner, J. E., Wamukota, A., Randriamahazo, H. and Rabearisoa, A. (2009). Towards institutions for community-based management of inshore marine resources in the Western Indian Ocean. *Marine Policy*, 33, pp.489-496.
- Clarke, G. *From Measurement to Management – Indicators of Sustainable Tourism Development in the Caribbean and the CTO MIST. Workshop on Methods, Tools and Best*

- Practices for Managing Information for Sustainable Development in Caribbean SIDS* (online) Available at: http://www.un.org/esa/sustdev/natlinfo/indicators/idsd/workshops/workshop10-27-31/11_summary%20of%20OAS%20Presents.doc. (accessed 26.03.2010).
- Clivaz, C., Hausser, Y. and Michelet, J. (2004). Tourism monitoring system based on the concept of carrying capacity – The case of the regional natural park Pfyng-Finges (Switzerland). Working Papers of the Finnish Forest Research Institute 2. Available online at: <http://www.metla.fi/julkaisut/workingpapers/2004/mwp002.htm> (accessed 14.02.2012)
- Cooper, C., Fletcher, J., Fyall, A., Gilbert, D. and Wanhill, S. (2008). *Tourism: Principles and Practice*, (4th Edition). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Cornell, D. (1997). Participatory development: an approach sensitive to class and gender. *Development in Practice* 7 (3), pp. 248-259.
- CSD (1997). *Indicators of sustainable development: Programme of work on indicators for sustainable development of the Commission on Sustainable Development in the report of the Secretary-General to the CSD on Chapter 40 of Agenda 21, "Information for Decision-Making."* (E/CN.17/1995/18) (online). www.un.org/esa/sustdev/program.htm. pp. 8
- Daengnoi, J. and Richards, P. (2006). *Community-based tourism and the responsible ecological Social Tours Projects (REST), Thailand*. Thailand: REST.
- Dale, V. H. and Beyeler, S. C. (2001). Challenges in the development and use of ecological indicators. *Ecological Indicators* 1(2001): 3-10.
- David, M. and Sutton, C. D. (2004). *Social research: The basics*, City Road, London: Sage.
- De Sausmarez, N. (2007). Crisis management, tourism and sustainability: The role of indicators, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15 (6), 700-714.
- Denis, V. S. (1992). Community-based participatory Research: Aspects of the Concept Relevant for Practice, *Native Studies Review*, 8, 2:51-74.
- Dola, K. (2002). *Incorporating sustainable development principles into the local plan preparation process: The case of selected localities in Southern Region of Peninsular Malaysia*, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia: Unpublished PhD thesis.
- Dubois, G. (2005). Indicators for an environmental assessment of tourism at national level, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 8 (2&3), 140-154.
- Dukeshire, S. and Thurlow, J. (2002). *Challenges and Barriers to Community Participation in Policy Development*. Rural communities Impacting Policy Project. <http://www.ruralnovascotia.ca/documents/policy/challenges%20and%20barriers.pdf>
- Dunn, S. (2007). *Toward empowerment: Women and community-based tourism in Thailand*. Unpublished M.A. thesis: University of Oregon.
- Dyer, P., Aberdeen, L. and Schuler, S. (2003). Tourism Impacts on an Australian Indigenous Community: a Djabugay case study. *Tourism Management*, 24:83-95.
- Dymond, S. J. (1997). Indicators of sustainable tourism in New Zealand: A local government perspective, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 5 (4), 279-293.
- Eber, S. (ed.), (1992). *Beyond the Green Horizon: A Discussion Paper on Principles for Sustainable Tourism*, London: WWF and Tourism Concern.
- ECERDC (East Coast Economic Region Development Council) (2008). *ECER Master Plan: Overview*. Available online at: <http://www.ecerdc.com/ecerdc/masterplan4.htm> (accessed 29.09.11)
- Edgell, D. L. (2006). *Managing Sustainable Tourism: A Legacy for the Future*. New York: The Haworth Hospitality Press.
- EPA (1990). Ecological Indicators for the Environmental Monitoring and Assessment Programme. (C.T. Hunsaker and D.E. Carpenter, Eds.). Report no. EPA 600/3-90/060 US Environmental Protection Agency, Research Triangle Park, NC.
- EPA (1995). *A Conceptual Framework to Support Development and Use of Environment Information in Decision-Making*. Report no. EPA 239-R-95-012, US Environmental Protection Agency, Washington DC.
- Economic Planning Unit (2007). *Malaysia Quality of Life*. Economic Planning Unit, Prime Minister Office. Retrieved 21st January 2009 from: www.epu.gov.my.

- FDTCP (Federal Department of Town and Country Planning) (2005). *National Physical Plan*. Malaysia: Ministry of Housing and Local Government.
- FDTCP (Federal Department of Town and Country Planning) (2007). *National Physical Plan (Review)*. Malaysia: Ministry of Housing and Local Government.
- FDTCP (Federal Department of Town and Country Planning) (2010). *Rancangan Fizikal Negara 2 (2nd National Physical Plan)*. Available online at: http://www.townplan.gov.my/new_web/muat_turun/dokumen/Rancangan%20Fizikal%20Negara%20Ke-2%20oleh%20En%20Kamalruddin%20Shamsudin.pdf, (accessed 19.09.11).
- Fennell, D. A. and Ebert, K. (2004). Tourism and the Precautionary Principle. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 12(6), 461-479.
- FEST (Foundation for European Sustainable Tourism) (2011). *Project Management for European Sustainable Development*. FEST Foundation (available online in pdf).
- FHI (Family Health International) (2004). *Monitoring HIV/AIDS Programs: A Facilitator's Training Guide*. Available online at: http://www.fhi.org/NR/rdonlyres/egvot6xzsyssxw477dbd4dlzxp2ne4ukoqdn2vorg455gkw4n_obwkcifw2ngm444vdrsnbayemhn/Mod03.pdf (accessed 27.09.11)
- Fischer, F. (2000). *Citizens, Experts and the Environment: The Politics of Local Knowledge*. Durham: Duke University Press.
- Fletcher, R. (2009). Ecotourism discourse: challenging the stakeholders theory, *Journal of Ecotourism*, 8 (3): 269-285.
- Foggin, T. and Munster, D. O. (2003). Finding the middle ground between communities and tourism. *Africa Insight* 33 (1/2): 18-22.
- Fowler, F. J., Jr. (2002). *Survey research methods* (3rd Edition), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Fraser, E. D. G., Dougill, A. J., Mabee, W. E., Reed, M and McAlpine, P. (2006). Bottom-up and top down: Analysis of participatory processes for sustainability indicator identification as a pathway to community empowerment and sustainable environmental management. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 78, pp. 114-127.
- Garrod, B., Wornell, R. and Youell, R. (2006). Re-conceptualising rural resources as countryside capital: The case of rural tourism, *Journal of Rural Studies*, 22, pp. 117 – 128.
- Geist, M. R. (2009). Using the Delphi method to engage stakeholders: A comparison of two studies, *Evaluation and Program Planning*, doi:10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2009.06.006
- George, E. W. (2004). *Commodifying Local Culture for Tourism Development: The Case of One Rural Community in Atlantic Canada*. The University of Guelph: Unpublished PhD Thesis.
- Glasson, J. (2005). *Development of a Statewide Sustainability Checklist for the Western Australian Planning System: Keeping it Simply Sustainable*. Curtin: Curtin University of Technology.
- Globe 90. 1990. *An Action Strategy for Sustainable Tourism Development*. Ottawa:Tourism Canada.
- Godfrey, K. B. (1993). *Tourism and Sustainable Development: Towards a Community Framework*. Oxford Brookes University: Unpublished PhD Thesis.
- Goodwin, H. (2005). Pro-Poor Tourism: Principles, Methodologies and Mainstreaming, *International Conference on Pro-Poor Tourism Mechanisms and Mainstreaming*, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Working Paper, 4-6 May 2005.
- Goodwin, H. and Santilli, R. (2009). Community-Based Tourism: a success? ICRT Occasional Paper 11, 2009. Available online at: <http://www.haroldgoodwin.info/uploads/CBTaSuccessPubpdf.pdf>
- Gordon, T. and Pease, A. (2006). RT Delphi: An efficient, “round-less” almost real time Delphi method, *Technological Forecasting & Social Change*, 73, 321-333.
- GOM (Government of Malaysia) (1996). *Seventh Malaysia Plan*, Government of Malaysia Printers: Kuala Lumpur.
- GOM (Government of Malaysia) (2006). *Ninth Malaysia Plan*, Government of Malaysia Printers: Kuala Lumpur.

- GOM (Government of Malaysia) (2010). *Tenth Malaysia Plan*, Government of Malaysia Printers: Kuala Lumpur.
- Gossling, S., Hall, M., Lane, B. and Weaver, D. (2008). Report: The Helsingborg Statement on Sustainable Tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(1), 122-124.
- Graci, S. and Dodds, R. (2010). *Sustainable Tourism in Island Destinations*. London: Earthscan.
- Graham, B., Regehr, G. and Wright, J. G. (2003). Delphi as a method to establish consensus for diagnostic criteria, *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, 56, 1150-1156.
- Grybovych, O. and Hafermann, D. (2010). Sustainable practices of community tourism planning: lessons from a remote community, *Community Development*, 41 (3): 354-369.
- Haas, P. M., Levy, M. A. and Parson, E. A. (1992). Apprising the Earth Summit: How should we judge UNCED's success? *Environment*, 34 (8): 6 – 33.
- Hall, C. M. and Lew, A. A. (1998). The geography of sustainable tourism development; an introduction. In C. M. Hall and A. A. Lew (eds) *Sustainable Tourism; a geographical perspective (pp. 1 – 12)*. Essex: Addison Wesley Longman Ltd.
- Hamzah, A. and Hampton, M. (2012). *Tourism Development and Non-linear Change in Small Islands: Lessons from Perhentian Kecil, Malaysia*. Working Paper No. 246, February 2012. Kent: Kent Business School.
- Hamzah, A. (2002). A tale of three Kampung: A case study of the Homestay Programme at Kampung Banghuris, Sepang, Malaysia. *Fifth Biennial Conference "Tourism in Asia: Development, Marketing and sustainability, 2002*, Hong Kong.
- Hamzah, A. (2004). Policy and Planning of the Tourism Industry in Malaysia. Proceedings. *The 6th ADRF General Meeting, 2004*, Bangkok, Thailand.
- Hardy, A., Beeton, R. and Pearson, L. (2002). Sustainable tourism: an overview of the concept and its position in relation to conceptualisation of tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 10(6), 475-496.
- Hart, M. (1999). *Guide To Sustainable Community Indicators (2nd Ed.)*. North Andover: Hart Environmental Data. www.sustainablemeasures.com
- Hassan, F., Badarulzaman, N., Omar, M. Z. and Rindam, M. (2006). Sustainable Tourism in Plantation Areas in Malaysia: Case of FELDA Land Scheme, paper presented at *the NIE-SEAGA Conference: sustainability and Southeast Asia*, Singapore, 28-30 November.
- Hassan, F. and Che Lah, F. (2007). Pembangunan Pelancongan Lestari di FELDA Gugusan Trolak: Satu Analisis (Sustainable Tourism Development of FELDA Trolak Settlement: An analysis), paper presented at *the National Conference on Geography (Persidangan Geografi Kebangsaan)* UPSI, Perak, 10-11 September. Available online at: <http://sssums.files.wordpress.com/2007/09/pembangunan-pelancongan-lestari-di-felda-gugusan-trolak-satu-analisis.pdf>, accessed 04.04.12.
- Hassan, M. N. (2001). Indicators of sustainable development: The Malaysian perspective, in J. J. Pereira and I. Komoo (eds). *Geoinicators for Sustainable Development*. Bangi: Institute for Environment and Development.
- Hezri, A. A. (2003). Sustainability indicators and policy processes: Experience from Malaysia, paper presented at *the International Conference on Sustainability Indicators*, Valetta, Malta, November, pp. 6-8.
- Hezri, A. A. (2004). Sustainability indicator system and policy processes in Malaysia: a framework for utilisation and learning. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 73, 357 – 371.
- Hilden, M. and Rosenstrom, U. (2008). The Use of Indicators for Sustainable Development. *Sustainable Development*, 16, 237-240.
- HMSO (1996). *Indicators of Sustainable Development for the United Kingdom*. London: HMSO.
- Holman, N. (2009). Incorporating local sustainability indicators into structures of local governance: a review of the literature, *Local Environment*, 14 (4): 365-375.
- Hunter, C. (1995). Key concepts for tourism and the environment in C. Hunter and H. Green (eds). *Tourism and the Environment*. London: Routledge.

- Hunter, C. and Green, H. (1995). *Tourism and the Environment: A Sustainable Relationship*. London: Routledge.
- Hussain, M. H. (1997). Falsafah Baru – Satu Visi Pembangunan Luar Bandar Menjelang 2020 (New Paradigm – A Vision for Rural Development by 2020), in Ngah, I. (ed.) *Cabaran Perancangan Pembangunan Luar Bandar Menjelang Abad ke 21*. KPKLB, UTM. Monograf Perancangan Luar Bandar-1.
- IISD (International Institute for Sustainable Development) (1997). *Assessing Sustainable Development: Principles in Practice*. Canada: IISD Publications.
- Iqbal, S. and Young, L. P. (2009). The Delphi method, in *The Psychologist*, July 2009, vol. 22, no. 7, 598-600.
- Irshad, H. (2010). *Rural Tourism – an overview*. Agriculture and Rural Development report. Government of Canada.
- IUCN (International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources) (1980). *World Conservation Strategy: Living Resources Conservation for Sustainable Development*, Gland: IUCN.
- IUCN/UNEP/WWF (1991). *Caring for the earth: A strategy for sustainable living. Second report on world conservation and development*. Switzerland: Earthscan.
- Jamieson, W. and Noble, A. (2000). *A Manual for Sustainable Tourism Destination Management*. CUC-UEM Project, AIT.
- JKKK (The Village Development and Security Committee) Kuala Medang (Unpublished). *Annual Report of Kuala Medang Village 2009*. Unpublished report.
- JKKK (The Village Development and Security Committee) Seterpa (Unpublished). *Annual Report of Kuala Medang Village 2009*. Unpublished report.
- JKKK (The Village Development and Security Committee) Teluk Ketapang (Unpublished). *Annual Report of Kuala Medang Village 2009*. Unpublished report.
- Jasch, C. (2000). Environmental performance evaluation and indicators. *Journal of Cleaner Production* 8, pp. 79-88.
- Kamarudin, K. H. and Ngah, I. (2007). *Sustainable Development of the Orang Asli*, Skudai, Johor: UTM Press.
- Kayat, K. and Mohd Nor, N. A. (2006). Penglibatan Ahli Komuniti Dalam Programme Pembangunan Komuniti: Satu Kajian ke atas Programme Homestay di Kedah (community Members Involvement in Community Development Programme: Homestay Programme in Kedah), *Akademika* 67 (January): 77-102.
- Kayat, K. (2010). The Nature of Cultural Contribution of a Community-based Homestay Programme. *Tourismo*, 5(2), 145-159.
- Keane, M. (1992). Rural Tourism and Rural Development. In H. Briassoulis and J. Straaten (eds) *Tourism and the Environment; Regional, Economic and Policy Issues* (pp. 43 – 55). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Keeney, S., Hasson, F. and McKenna, H. P. (2001). A critical review of the Delphi technique as a research methodology for nursing, *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 38, 195-200.
- Khalili, N. R. (2011). *Practical Sustainability: from Grounded Theory to Emerging Strategies*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Ko, T. G. (2005). Development of a tourism sustainability assessment procedure: a conceptual approach, *Tourism Management*, 26, 431-445.
- Krajnc, D. and Glavic, P. (2003). Indicators of sustainable production. *Clean Technology Environment Policy*, 5, 279-288.
- Krank, S., Wallbaum, H. and Gret-Regamey, A. (2010). Constraints to implementation of sustainability indicator systems in five Asian cities, *Local Environment*, 15 (8): 731-742.
- Krippendorf, J. (1982). Towards new tourism policies: The importance of environmental and sociocultural factors. *Tourism Management* 3, 135-48.
- Kumaraswamy, M. M. and Anvuur, A. M. (2008). Selecting sustainable teams for PPP projects, *Building and Environment*, 43, 999-1009.

- Landeta, J. (2006). Current validity of the Delphi method in social sciences, *Technological Forecasting & Social Change*, 73, 467-482.
- Landeta, J., Matey, J., Ruiz, V. and Galter, J. (2008). Results of a Delphi survey in drawing up the input-output tables for Catalonia, *Technological Forecasting & Social Change*, 75, 32-56.
- Lane, B. (1989) Will rural tourism succeed? In S. Hardy, T. Hart and T. Shaw (eds) *The Role of Tourism in the Urban and Regional Economy* (pp. 34-9). London: Regional Studies Association.
- Lane, B. (1990) Sustaining host areas, holiday makers and operators alike. In F. Howie (ed.) *The Proceedings of the Sustainable Tourism Development Conference*. Queen Margaret College, Edinburgh.
- Lane, B. (1994a). What is rural Tourism? in B. Bramwell & B. Lane (eds.) *Rural Tourism and Sustainable rural Development*. Avon: Channel View Publications.
- Lane, B. (1994b). Sustainable Rural Tourism Strategies: A Tool for Development and Conservation, in B. Bramwell & B. Lane (eds.) *Rural Tourism and Sustainable rural Development*. Avon: Channel View Publications.
- Lawn, P. (2006). *Sustainable development: concept and indicators*, in P. Lawn (ed.) *Sustainable Development Indicators in Ecological Economics. Current Issues in Ecological Economics*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Lee, C. K., Song, H. J. and Mjelde, J. W. (2008). The forecasting of International Expo tourism using quantitative and qualitative techniques, *Tourism Management*, 29, 1084-1098.
- Lee, M. H. (2005). Farm Tourism Cooperation in Taiwan. In D. Hall, I. Kirkpatrick and M. Mitchell (eds) *Rural Tourism and Sustainable Business* (pp. 201 – 224). Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Lehtonen, M. (2008). Mainstreaming Sustainable Development in the OECD through Indicators and Peer Reviews. *Sustainable Development*, 16, 241-250.
- Leksakundilok, A. (2004). *Ecotourism and community-based ecotourism in the Mekong Region*. Working Paper No. 10.Sydney: University of Sydney Printing Service.
- Lele, S. M. (1991). Sustainable development: a critique, *World Development*, 19: 607 – 621.
- Lepp, A. (2007). Residents' Attitude towards Tourism in Bigodi Village, Uganda, *Journal of Tourism Management*, 28, pp. 876 – 885.
- Levy, M. A. (1993). UNCED: Mileposts along the road from Rio. *Environment*, 35 (5): 4 – 45.
- Lim, C. C. and Cooper, C. (2009). Beyond sustainability: optimising island tourism development, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 11 (1): 89-103.
- Liu, A. (2006). Tourism in rural areas: Kedah, Malaysia. *Journal of Tourism Management*, 27 (2006), pp. 878 – 889.
- Liu, Z. (2003). Sustainable Tourism Development: A Critique. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, Vol. 11, No. 6, pp. 459 – 475.
- Logar, I. (2010). Sustainable tourism management in Crikvenica, Croatia: An assessment of policy instruments, *Tourism Management* 31 (2010), pp. 125-135. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2009.02.005
- Lundberg, K.; Balfors, B. and Folkesson L. (2009). Framework for environmental performance measurement in a Swedish public sector organization, *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 17(11): 1017-1024.
- Macaulay, A. and Commanda, L. (1999). Participatory Research Maximizes Community and Lay Involvement. *British Medical Journal* 319:774-778.
- Manoliadis, O., Tsolas, I. and Nakou, A. (2006). Sustainable construction and drivers of change in Greece: a Delphi study, *Construction Management & Economics*, 24, 113-120.
- Manyara and Jones (2007). Community based Tourism Enterprises Development in Kenya: An Exploration of Their Potential as Avenues of Poverty Reduction. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15: 6, 628-644.
- Mapjabil, J., Mohd Rosdi, S. A., Shuib, M. and Abdullah, S. (2011). Pembangunan program homestay di Wilayah Utara Semenanjung Malaysia: Profil, produk dan prospek (the

development of the homestay programme in the North Region of Peninsular Malaysia: Profile, products and prospect). *GEOGRAFIA Online Malaysia Journal of Science and Space*, 7(2) 45-54.

Marker, M. A., Blanco, A., Lokanathan, S. and Verma, A. (2008). *Ecotourism in Malaysia*. Project for PP5279: Clusters and National Competitiveness. Lee Kuan Yew School of Public Policy.

http://www.spp.nus.edu.sg/aci/docs/Ecotourism_in_Malaysia_2008_Paper.pdf, accessed 20.09.11.

Matarrita-Cascante, D., Brennan, M. A. and Luloff, A. E. (2010). Community agency and sustainable tourism development: the case of La Fortuna, Costa Rica, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18 (6): 735-756.

Mathew, E. W. (2002). *The Identification of Criteria and Indicators of Ecotourism in Kinabalu Park, Sabah: The right approach to sustainable ecotourism management*. Unpublished M.Sc. Thesis. Oxford Brookes University.

Markey, S., Halseth, G. and Manson, D. (2008). Closing the implementation gap: a framework for incorporating the context of place in economic development planning, *Local Environment*, 13 (4): 337-351.

Marzuki, A. (2008). Decision making and community participation: A case study of the tourism industry in Langkawi, *Original Scientific Paper*, 56 (3): 227-241.

McKercher, B. (2003). Sustainable tourism development – Guiding principles for planning and management. Paper presented at *the National Seminar on Sustainable Tourism Development*, Bishkek, Kyrgystan. November 5 – 9, 2003.

McKinlay, P. (2006). The challenge of Democratic participation in the community development process. *Community Development Journal*, 41 (4), pp. 492-505.

Mebratu, D. (1998). Sustainability and sustainable development: historical and conceptual review. *Environmental Impact Assessment Review*, 18: 493-520.

Memon, A. and Johnston, K. (2008). Institutional Barriers to Developing Community Indicators in New Zealand: A Preliminary Assessment. *Commonwealth Journal of Local Governance*, Issue 1: May 2008. <http://epress.lib.uts.edu.au/ojs/index.php/cjlg>

Merriam, (1998). *Qualitative research and case study: Application in education*, California: Jossey-Bass Publication.

Miller, G. (2001). The development of indicators for sustainable tourism: results of a Delphi survey of tourism researchers, *Tourism Management*, 22, 351-362.

Miller, G. And Twinning-Ward L. (2005). *Monitoring for a sustainable tourism transition: The challenge of developing and using indicators*. CABI Publishing.

Mitchell, G., May, A. D. and McDonald, A. T. (1995). PICABUE: A Methodological framework for the development of indicators of sustainable development. *International Journal Sustainable Development World Ecology* 2: 104 – 123.

MoF (Ministry of Finance) (2007). *Laporan Ekonomi 2007/2008 – Prestasi Ekonomi dan Prospek (Economic Report 2007/2008 – Economic achievement and prospect)*.

http://www.treasury.gov.my/pdf/ekonomi/le/0708/bab3_0708.pdf, accessed 19 September 2011.

Moffatt, I. 1996. *Sustainable Development; Principles, Analysis and Policies*. London: The Parthenon Publishing Group.

Mohd Balwi, M. K. (2005). Rural Development in Malaysia: Visionary Rural Movement as Mechanism for Rural Communities Development. *Journal Teknologi*, 42(E), June 2005, pp. 31-48. UTM Press.

Moldan, B. and Billharz, S. (1997). Introduction, in Moldan et al. (eds). Sustainability indicators: A report on the project on indicators of sustainable development. ICSU, UNEP and Bundesumwelt-ministerium. *SCOPE 58*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, pp. 1 – 5.

Mowforth, M. and Munt, I. (2003). *Tourism and Sustainability: development and new tourism in the third world* (2nd edition). London: Routledge.

MRRD (Ministry of Rural and Regional Development) (2010). *Pelan Induk Pembangunan Luar Bandar (Rural Development Master Plan)*.

- <http://www.infra.gov.my/html/upload/pernebitan/BukuPelanIndukPembangunanLuarBandar.pdf>, (accessed 19.09.11).
- Muhammad, Z. (1997). Perancangan Luar Bandar Mampan (Sustainable Rural Planning), in Ngah, I. (ed.) *Cabaran Perancangan Pembangunan Luar Bandar Menjelang Abad ke 21*. KPKLB, UTM. Monograf Perancangan Luar Bandar-1.
- Muhammad, Z. (2001). Development of Urban Indicators: A Malaysian initiative, in J. J. Pereira and I. Komoo (eds). *Geoinicators for Sustainable Development*. Bangi: Institute for Environment and Development.
- Nardi, P. M. (2006). *Doing survey research: A guide to quantitative methods* (2nd Edition), Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.
- NCER Online (2008). *Introduction: Northern Corridor Implementation Authority*. <http://www.ncer.com.my/site/?f=catmain&catname=ncia&catsub=&aliascat=&tracking=&relatedpages=1&q=NCIA/introduction>, accessed 19 September 2011.
- Ngah, I. (2003). *Pelan Tindakan Desa (Rural Action Plan)*. Johor: UTM Publisher
- Ngah, I. (2008). Challenges in Rural Development and Change within the Malaysian Political Context, paper presented in *Department of Geography Seminar*, University of Leeds, 11 March 2008.
- Ngah, I. (2009). *Manual Pelan Tindakan Desa (Manual for rural action plan)*. Selangor: Institute for Rural Advancement.
- Ngah, I. Preston, D. and Azman, N. (2010). Current Planning Priorities in Rural Villages in Malaysia: Learning from the New Malaysian Village Action Plans. Paper presented at *ISDA 2010 Conference, Innovation and Sustainable Development in Agriculture and Food*, Montpellier, France, June 28-30, 2010.
- Nguru, A. I. (2010). *Resilience in Tourism Business: A case study of Cherating Lama Village, Pahang*. Johor: Unpublished Masters Thesis.
- Njoh, A. J. (2002). Barriers to Community Participation in Development Planning: Lessons from the Mutengene (Cameroon) Self-Help Water Project. *Community Development Journal*, 37 (3), pp. 233-248.
- NSGIC (2006). *Strategic Planning Process Map: For Use by All Stakeholders in the Geospatial Community*. National States Geographic Information Council, March 2006. (available online: www.fgdc.gov/policyandplanning/.../3_strategic_planning_process_map_final_v1-3.doc)
- NST (News Strait Times) (2011). *2010 tourist arrivals hit record 24.6m*, 23/2/2011.
- OECD (1993). OECD Core Set of Indicators for Environmental Performance Reviews. *Environment Monographs* no. 83. Paris: OECD.
- OECD (1999). *Environmental Performance Indicators: OECD Overview*. Document no. ENV/EPOC/SE/CONF(99)4. Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
- Okazaki, E. (2008). A Community-Based Tourism Model: Its Conception and Use. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 16 (5), pp. 511-529.
- Omar, M. (2004). Economic impact from re-groupment scheme of the Jakun Community in Mukim Bekok, Segamat, Johor, proceeding paper during *'Seminar Hasil Penyelidikan Peringkat Kebangsaan*, 21 Feb. 2004. Unit of Research Development & Commercialization (URDC), UiTM Johor.
- Oranratmanee, R. (2008). *Rural homestay: interrelationship between space, social interaction and meaning in Northern Thailand*. Unpublished PhD Thesis: Oxford Brookes University.
- Othman, A. and Pereira, J. J. (2005). Sustainable Development Indicators – Providing Environmental Statistics for National Reporting. In *14th Conference of Commonwealth Statisticians 2005*. Millennium +5: Managing statistics for more equitable societies, Sept. 7, 2005, South Africa.
- Ott, W. (1978). *Environmental Indices: Theory and Practice*. Ann Arbor, Michigan.
- Oxford English Dictionary (2005). *The Oxford Compact English Dictionary* (Second Edition). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Payne, R. (1993). Sustainable tourism: Suggested indicators and monitoring techniques. In R. Butler, J. G. Nelson, & G. Wall (Eds.), *Tourism and sustainable development: Monitoring, planning, managing* (pp. 249-253). Department of Geography Publication Series.
- Perry, M. and Singh, S. (2001). Corporate Environmental Responsibility in Singapore and Malaysia; the potential and limits of voluntary initiatives. *Technology, Business and Society Programme Paper Number 3*, April 2001. United Nations Research Institute for Social Development.
- Peterson, P. J. (1997). *Indicators of Sustainable Development in Industrializing Countries Vol. 1 Management Response Strategies*. Bangi: UKM Press.
- Peterson, P. J. (2003). *Indicators of Sustainable Development in Industrializing Countries. Vol. V, Linking Strategies with National Policies*, Bangi, Lestari: UKM Press.
- Peterson, P. J. (2006). *Indicators of Sustainable Development in Industrializing Countries. Vol. VI, Transforming Data into Effective Indicators*, Bangi, Lestari: UKM Press.
- Pfarr, C. (2004). Policy-making for sustainable tourism, in Pineda, F. D., Brebbia, C. A. & Mugica, M. (eds.). *Sustainable Tourism*. Southampton: WIT Press.
- Prabhu, R., C. J. P. Colfer, P. Venkateswarlu, L. C. Tan, R. Soekmadi, and E. Wollenberg. (1996). *Testing criteria and indicators for the sustainable management of forests: Phase 1 final report*. CIFOR, EU, GTZ, FF, and USAID. CIFOR Special Publication, Jakarta, Indonesia. Pp. 217.
- Punch, K. F. (2003). *Survey research: The basics*, London: Sage.
- Rattanasuwongchai, N. (2001). *Rural Tourism – The Impact on Rural Communities II*. Thailand.
- Ratz, T. and Puczko, L. (1998). Rural Tourism and Sustainable Development in Hungary, In D. Hall – L.O'Hanlon (eds.) "*Rural Tourism Management: Sustainable Options*". International Conference, Scottish Agriculture College, UK, pp. 450-464 (online): http://docs.google.com/viewer?a=v&q=cache:VJL1WW8qr1QJ:www.ratztamara.com/rural.pdf+Rural+Tourism+and+Sustainable+Development+in+Hungary&hl=en&gl=uk&pid=bl&srcid=ADGEESjqV2WqdILJ9quDAPF1ywJ2HMXY2zs6WomtcOFV5ijzKB-YYIh7u6SQUOTv5v-r6IRa3WZEKEvt4Yu9v_p0gOIBXt8kqUJSiowL5p9rs3SgEQUwi1EkdVefR5AqiAqITg2CRvc&sig=AHIEtbQtSyXgGcfY-VyujkhFOYRiqVSA. (accessed 26.03.2010).
- Reid, D. (1995). *Sustainable Development; an introductory guide*. London: Earthscan Publication Ltd.
- Reberts, S. and Tribe, J. (2008). Sustainability Indicators for Small Tourism Enterprises – An Exploratory Perspective. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16 (5), pp. 575-594.
- Robinson, J. (2004). Squaring the circle? Some thoughts on the idea of sustainable development, *Ecological Economics*, 48 (4), pp. 369 – 384.
- Rogers, P. P., Jalal, K. F. and Boyd, J. A. (2008). *An Introduction to Sustainable Development*. London: Earthscan.
- Rowe, G., Wright, G. and McColl, A. (2005). Judgement change during Delphi-like procedures: The role of majority influence, expertise and confidence, *Technological Forecasting & Social Change*, 72, 377-399.
- Rozemeijer, N. (2001). *Community-Based Tourism in Botswana: The SNV experience in three community-tourism projects*. SNV Botswana. Available online at: <http://portal.snvworld.org/irj/go/km/docs/SNVdocuments/community%20based%20tourism%20in%20Botswana.pdf>
- Sanusi, Y. A. (2011). Pressure-state-Response Framework Analysis of Residential Development on Ecologically Unstable Land in Minna, Nigeria. *Ozean Journal of Applied Sciences* 4(2): 145-169.
- Scheyvens, R. (2002). *Tourism for development: empowering communities*. Essex: Pearson Press.
- Scheyvens, R. and Momsen, J. (2008). Tourism in Small Island States: From Vulnerability to Strengths. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(5), 491-510.

- Schianetz, K., Kavanagh, L. and Lockington, D. (2007). Concepts and Tools for Comprehensive Sustainability Assessments for Tourism Destinations: A Comparative Review. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15(4), 369-389.
- Scoones, I. (2009): Livelihoods perspectives and rural development, *The Journal of Peasant Studies*, 36:1, 171-196
- Sebele, L. S. (2010). Community-based tourism ventures, benefits and challenges: Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust, Central District, Botswana, *Tourism Management* 31 (2010), pp. 136-146.
- Sedai, R. C. (2006). *Assessing the Sustainability of Tourism in Rural Areas: A case study of Tamang Heritage Trail, Rasuwa*. Unpublished Master Thesis: Purbanchal University, Nepal.
- SEDIA Online (2010). Sabah Development Corridor. Available online at: http://www.sedia.com.my/About_us.html, (accessed 19.09.11).
- SEERA (2008). *The South East Regional Sustainability Framework: Towards a better quality of life*. Guildford: SEERA Ltd.
- Sham Sani (2001). *Public Lecture: Developing Urban Sustainability Indicators for Malaysia*. No. 3. Bangi: Penerbit UKM.
- Sharpley, R. (1993). *Tourism and Leisure in the Countryside*. Huntingdon: ELM publication.
- Sharpley, R. (2001). Sustainable Rural Tourism Development: Ideal or Idyll? in Lesley, R. & Derek, H. (eds.). *Rural Tourism and Recreation – Principles to Practice*, Oxon: CABI Publishing.
- Sharpley, R. (2003). Rural Tourism and Sustainability – A Critique. In D. Hall, L. Roberts and M. Mitchell (eds). *New Directions in Rural Tourism* (pp. 38 – 53). Hants: Ashgate Publishing Ltd.
- Sharpley, R. (2007). Flagship Attractions and Sustainable Rural Tourism Development: The Case of the Alnwick Garden, England. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15(2), 125-143.
- Sharpley, R. and Sharpley, J. (1997). *Rural Tourism: An Introduction*. London: International Thomson Business Press.
- Shaw, K. (2002). Encountering Clayquot, Reading the Political, in w. Mangnusson and K. Shaw (eds.) *A Political Space: Reading the Global through Clayquot Sound*. University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, pp.25-66.
- Silverman, D. (2005). *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook* (2nd Edition), London: Sage.
- Sirakaya, E., Sonmez, S. F., and Choi, H.S. (2001). Do Destination Images Really Matter?: Predicting Destination Choices of Student Travellers, *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 7(2): 125-142
- Spangenberg, J. H. and Bonniot, O. (1998). Sustainability Indicators – A Compass on the Road Towards Sustainability. *Wuppertal Paper*, No. 81, February 1998, pp. 1 – 34.
- SPICe (2001). *Rural Tourism. 02/92. Produced for the Enterprise and Lifelong Learning Committee*. The Scottish Parliament The Information Centre (SPICe).
- Statistic Department of Malaysia (2008). *Distribution of rural population*. Statistic Department of Malaysia printers: Kuala Lumpur.
- STCRC (Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre) (2006). *Achieving sustainable local tourism management: Phase 1 – Practitioners guide*. CRC for Sustainable Tourism Pty Ltd.
- Steck, B., Strasdas, W. and Gustedt, E. (1999). *Tourism in Technical Co-operation. A guide to the conception, planning and implementation of project-accompanying measures in regional rural development and nature conservation*. Eschborn: Deutsche Gesellschaft fur (available online: <http://www.gtz.de/de/dokumente/en-tourism-tc-guide.pdf>) (assessed 29.09.11).
- Stewart, A. M. (1994). *Empowering People*. London: Pitman Publishing.
- Stone, L. S. and Stone, T. M. (2011). Community-based tourism enterprises: challenges and prospects for community participation: Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust, Botswana, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19 (1): 97–114.

- Strange, T. and Bayley, A. (2008). *Sustainable Development: Linking economy, society, environment*. OECD Insights. OECD Publishing.
- Strong, M. (1991). Preparing for the UN Conference on Environment and Development, *Environment*, 33 (5), pp. 5 – 40.
- Strzelecka, M. and Wicks, B. E. (2010). Engaging residents in planning for sustainable rural-nature tourism in post-communist Poland, *Community Development*, 41 (3): 370-384.
- Swarbrooke, J. (1999). *Sustainable Tourism Management*. Wallingford: CABI Publishing.
- The Countryside Commission (1995). *Sustainable Rural Tourism: Opportunities for Local Action, An advisory booklet*. Countryside Commission, Cheltenham.
- Theron, F. (2005). *Trends in micro-level development*: Pretoria: J.L. Van Schaik Publishers.
- TMI (The Mountain Institute) (2000). *Community Based Tourism for Conservation and Development: A Resource Kit*. Washington: The Mountain Institute.
- Tosun, C. (2000). Limits to community participation in the tourism development process in developing countries. *Tourism Management*, 21:613-633.
- Tosun, C. (2001). Challenges of sustainable tourism development in the developing world: the case of Turkey. *Tourism Management*. Vol. 22 (2001), pp. 289 – 303.
- Tosun, C. (2006). Expected nature of community participation in tourism development. *Tourism Management*, 27(3), 493-504.
- TourismJohor (2010). Ucapan Penutupan. Paper presented at “Seminar Pembangunan Modal Insan Sektor Hospitaliti dan Pelancongan di Iskandar Malaysia”, 16 Disember 2011. Johor: Mercure Hotel, Senai.
- Tourism Malaysia (2011). *Statistics – Malaysia Tourist Arrivals (by country)*. http://corporate.tourism.gov.my/tourismmalaysia_corpx/rpt1_arrival.cfm?rpt=1, (accessed 19.09.11).
- Tourism Malaysia Online Media Centre (2011). *Research: Facts and figures – tourist arrivals and receipts to Malaysia*. <http://corporate.tourism.gov.my/research.asp>, (accessed 19.09.11).
- TPRG (2009). *Business Strategy and Implementation Plan for the Proposed Homestay and Kampungstay Tourism Development*. Johor: Bureau Innovation & Consultancy, UTM. Unpublished consultation report.
- TPRG (2010). *TPRG – Personal communication*.
- Tsaur, S. H., Lin, Y. C. and Jo-Hui, L. (2006). Evaluating ecotourism sustainability from the integrated perspective of resource, community and tourism. *Tourism Management*, 27, pp. 640-653.
- Twinning-Ward, L. (2007). *A Toolkit for Monitoring and Managing Community-Based Tourism*. Hawaii: School of Travel Industry Management. (available online: <http://www.snvworld.org/en/Documents/Knowledge%20Publications/A%20toolkit%20for%20monitoring%20and%20managing%20community-based%20tourism.pdf>)
- Twining-Ward, L. and Butler, R. (2002). Implementing STD on a small island: Development and use of sustainable tourism development indicators in Samoa, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 10 (5), 363-387.
- UN (United Nations) (1996). *Indicators of Sustainable Development. Framework and Methodologies*. New York: United Nations.
- UN (United Nations) (2007). *Indicators of Sustainable Development: Guidelines and Methodologies (Third Edition)*. New York: UN Publications. Available online at: www.un.org/esa/sustdev/natlinfo/indicators/guidelines.pdf
- UNDP India (United Nations Development Programme) (2008). *Redefining Tourism – Experiences and Insights from Rural Tourism Projects in India*. Ministry of Tourism, Government of India/UNDP India. Available online at: http://books.google.co.uk/books?id=e4sBLTM-K8UC&pg=PA126&lpg=PA126&dq=guideline+for+monitoring+rural+tourism&source=bl&ots=KuAXUoY90j&sig=VMgMFbZpU2sn9-gx92H2MRmf80Y&hl=en&sa=X&ei=zO0XT_q8DsHp8QO2m_maCw&sqi=2&ved=0CD

[AQ6AEwAA#v=onepage&q=guideline%20for%20monitoring%20rural%20tourism&f=false](#), assessed 19 January 2012.

- UNEP and WTO (United Nations Environmental Programme and World Tourism Organisation) (2005). *Making Tourism More Sustainable: A guide for policy makers*. Paris: UNEP.
- UNEP (2002). *Sustainable Tourism: Briefing Paper – Towards Earth Summit 2002*. Economic Briefing No. 4, August 2002.
- UNFPA (United Nations Population Fund) (2004). *Programme Manager's Planning Monitoring & Evaluation Toolkit*. Access 5 September 2011 (source: <http://www.unfpa.org/monitoring/toolkit/tool6.pdf>)
- UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organisation) (2011). *Facts & Figures*, available online at: www.unwto.org/facts, assessed 06/10/2011.
- Valentine, A. and Spangenberg, J. H. (2000). A guide to community sustainability indicators. *Environmental Impact Assessment Review*, 20, pp. 381-392.
- Van den Berg, E. (2007). *Successful Implementing Condition Specific Indicators in Dutch Hospitals*. Masters Thesis: University of Twente, The Netherlands.
- Verbole, A. (1997). Rural tourism and sustainable development: a case study on Slovenia, in De Haan, H., Kasimis, B. & Redclift, M. (eds.). *Sustainable Rural Development*. Hants: Ashgate Publishing Limited.
- Wahab, S. (1997). Sustainable Tourism in the Developing World. In S. Wahab and J. J. Pigram (eds) *Tourism, Development and Growth* (pp. 129 – 146). London: Routledge.
- Walker, J. and Walker, J., (2011). *Tourism: Concepts and Practices*. New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc., publishing as Prentice Hall.
- Wall, G. and Mathieson, M. (2006). *Tourism: change, impacts and opportunities*. Harlow: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- WCED (World Commission on Environment and Development) (1987). *Our Common Future*. World Commission on Environment and Development. England: Oxford University Press.
- Weaver, D. (2006). *Sustainable Tourism*. Oxon: Taylor and Francis Group
- Wisker, G. (2008). *The Postgraduate Research Handbook* (2nd Edition), New York: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Wood, K. (2005). *Pro-poor tourism as a means of Sustainable Development in the Uctubamba Valley, Northern Peru*. Unpublished MSc in Responsible Tourism Management Thesis. University of Greenwich.
- Woodley, A. (1993): Tourism and Sustainable Development: The Community Perspective. In: Nelson, J., Butler, R. and Wall, G. (eds.). *Tourism and Sustainable Development: Monitoring, Planning, Managing*. Heritage Resources Centre, University of Waterloo, pp. 135–147.
- WTO (World Tourism Organisation) (1993) *Indicators for the Sustainable Management of Tourism. Report of the International Working Group*. W.T.O., IISD and ISTC.
- WTO (World Tourism Organisation) (1995). *What Tourism Managers Need to Know: A Practical Guide to the Development and Use of Indicators of Sustainable Tourism*. Ottawa: Consulting and Audit Canada.
- WTO (World Tourism Organisation) (1996). *What Tourism Managers Need to Know: A practical guide to the development and use of indicators of sustainable tourism*. Madrid: World Tourism Organization.
- WTO (World Tourism Organisation) (1997). *What Tourism Managers Need to Know*. Madrid: World Tourism Organisation.
- WTO (World Tourism Organisation) (2001). *The concept of sustainable tourism*. Madrid: World Tourism Organisation.
- WTO (World Tourism Organisation) (2001b). Workshop on Sustainable Tourism Indicators for the Islands of the Mediterranean: Final report. Kukljica, Island of Ugljan, Croatia, 21-23 March 2001.
- WWF Malaysia (2001). *Study on the Development of Hill Stations*. Malaysia: Economic Planning Unit, Prime Minister's Department.

- WWF Malaysia (2002). *Study for the Sustainable Development of the Highlands of Peninsular Malaysia*. Malaysia: Economic Planning Unit, Prime Minister's Department.
- Yahaya, I. (2010). *Homestay Program and Rural Community Development in Malaysia* (available online: http://www.ritsumei.ac.jp/acd/re/k-rsc/hss/book/pdf/vol02_03.pdf) (assessed 06.01.12).
- Yaman, A. R. and Muhd, A. (2004). Community-based Ecotourism: A New Proposition for Sustainable Development and Environmental Conservation in Malaysia. *Journal of Applied Sciences* 4 (4): 583-589.
- Yeung, J. F. Y., Chan, A. P. C. and Chan, D. W. M. (2008). Establishing quantitative indicators for measuring the partnering performance of construction projects in Hong Kong, *Construction Management and Economics*, 26, 277-301.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th edition), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Young, J. W. S. (1995). A Framework for the ultimate environmental index – putting atmospheric change into context with sustainability. *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment*. Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publisher (46): 135 – 149.
- Zaaba, Z. A. (1999). *The identification of criteria and indicators for the sustainable management of ecotourism in Taman Negara National Park, Malaysia: A Delphi consensus*, Indiana University: Unpublished PhD thesis.
- Zhuang, H., Lassoie, J. P. and Wolf, S. A. (2011). Ecotourism development in China: prospects for expanded roles for non-governmental organisations, *Journal of Ecotourism*, 10 (1): 46–63.
- Zughart, W., Benzler, A., Berhorn, F., Sukopp, U. and Graef, F. (2008). Determining indicators, methods and sites for monitoring potential adverse effects of genetically modified plants to the environment: the legal and conceptual framework for implementation, *Euphytica* (2008) 164: 845-852.

Online newspaper:

- Berita Harian Online (2011). Inap Desa palsu jejas industry pelancongan. Available online at: <http://www.bharian.com.my/bharian/articles/Inapdesapalsujejasindustriplancongan/Article/index.html>, (accessed 02.05.11).
- BERNAMA (2010). Pelancongan diiktiraf dalam RMK-10: Yen Yen. Available online at: <http://www.bernama.com/bernama/v5/bm/newsrmk10.php?id=505422>, (accessed 26.04.11).
- Bername (2008). Majlis Tindakan Pelancongan dimansuhkan tahun depan (Tourism Action Council to be cancelled next year). Available online at: http://ww2.utusan.com.my/utusan/special.asp?pr=PR11&y=2008&dt=1125&pub=Utusan_Malaysia&sec=Terkini&pg=bt_16.htm, (accessed 19.09.11).
- Utusan Malaysia (2011). Kolam Air Panas Rengas Terbiar. Available online at: http://www.utusan.com.my/utusan/info.asp?y=2011&dt=0215&pub=Utusan_Malaysia&sec=Timur&pg=wt_01.htm, (accessed 19.09.11).

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: List of Experts participated in Delphi exercise

Institutional category	Designation (s) and Institution
Educational / Academics	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Professor in Rural Development/Deputy Director, Centre for Innovative Planning and Development CiPD), Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM). *, @@ 2. Senior Lecturer / Community Based Tourism, Department of Planning, UTM. * 3. Senior research Official, Tourism Planning Centre, UTM. * 4. Assoc. Prof./Tourism researcher, School of Housing, Building and Planning, Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM). * 5. Senior Lecturer/Sustainable tourism, School of Housing, Building and Planning, USM. *, @@ 6. Assoc. Prof./Tourism economics, School of Housing, Building and Planning, USM. 7. Senior Lecturer/Head, Department of Tourism Management, Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM).
Government officials	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Deputy Secretary General (Tourism Industry), Ministry of Tourism Malaysia. *, @@ 9. Head (Research and Development), Institute for Rural Advancement (INFRA) Malaysia. * 10. Project Manager, East Coast Economic Region (ECER) (Terengganu State office). *, @@ 11. Director, State Tourism Board (Terengganu). 12. Director, State Tourism Board (Kelantan). 13. Director, State Tourism Board (Pahang). 14. Secretary General, Strategic Planning Division, Ministry of Rural and Regional Development Malaysia. * 15. Director General, Islamic Tourism Centre (ITC), Malaysia.
NGOs	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 16. President, Malaysian Nature Society (MNS). *, @@ 17. Deputy Director, Center for Orang Asli Concerns (COAC). 18. Chairman for Education, Training and Leadership, Malaysian Youth Council (MYC).
Tourism consultant	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 19. Principle, POSAD Solution, Sabah, Malaysia. 20. Tourism Planning Research Group (TPRG), UTM. *, @@

Note:

- 20 experts were participated for the Stage 1 (selection of important indicators)

* - 11 experts that were participated for the Stage 2 (ranking of indicators)

@@ - 6 experts that were participated for the follow up survey in 2013.

APPENDIX 2 – Questionnaire for expert panel

QUESTIONNAIRE (Delphi Process) – STAGE 1: Round 1

Research Title: Criteria and Indicators for Sustainable Community-based Rural Tourism (SCBRT) Development: The Case of East Coast Economic Region (ECER), Malaysia

By
Khairul Hiyam, KAMARUDIN

Dear Sir/Madam,

Firstly, thank you for your willingness to participate in this Delphi process to identify criteria and indicators for sustainable community-based rural tourism (SCBRT) development. This note will elaborate further about questionnaire instruction, treatment of information and personal contact.

Questionnaire instruction:

This questionnaire consists of three sections. *Section A* will ask for some personal background information. *Section B* will ask you to select indicators for sustainable community-based rural tourism (SCBRT) by ticking boxes. In *Section C*, you will be asked to give any further feedback or comments you have.

In *Section B*, you are asked, as an expert, to rank each criterion for SCBRT, followed by a second task to choose indicators for each criterion, showing those that you feel are important to assess sustainable community-based rural tourism development.

- * For each criterion, please select indicators (tick where applicable) either "Important" or "Not important".
- * Kindly offer reasons why you feel each indicator is important or not important to be selected in measuring each criterion.

Please return this questionnaire with your response even if you are unable to answer all the questions within the time given. Your participation is very important for this research and your cooperation is very much appreciated.

You will have the opportunity to modify and re-consider your responses in *Section B* after getting the feedback from other experts during next stage of this iterative process (Stage 1 – Round 2).

Your answers will be kept strictly confidential and anonymous. Should you have any enquiries, please do not hesitate to contact me via email at hiyamudin@brookes.ac.uk or hiyazamini@uih.com. Your co-operation in this research process is most appreciated. Thank you.

Sponsors:



Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia



In cooperation with:



Questionnaire no. : _____ (for office use)
Mode of interview : Face to face Email Telephone Postal

Section A: General information

1. Gender : Male Female
2. Age : _____ years old
3. Working experience: _____ years

Section B: Identification of Criteria and Indicators for Sustainable Community-based Rural Tourism (SCBRT)

Kindly do the following tasks:

1. Please identify each indicator (tick where applicable) as "Important" or "Not important" in the spaces provided. Then, kindly offer your reasons.

Criterion:	Community participation in SCBRT development	
	Indicators	Reasons
1	Local control over SCBRT development	Important / Not important
2	Operation of tourism businesses by locals and their contribution to the locals' well-being	Important / Not important
3	Equitable distribution of benefits in all supply chains	Important / Not important
4	Financial incentives for local people to participate in tourism sector	Important / Not important
5	Improvement of local human capital	Important / Not important
6	Community acceptance over SCBRT programmes (including non-participants)	Important / Not important
7	Involvement of women and minority groups	Important / Not important
8	Local community ownership over SCBRT projects	Important / Not important
9	Local understanding / awareness of SCBRT issues	Important / Not important

Criterion:	Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values			
	Indicators	Important	Not important	Reasons
1	Respect towards land and property right of local hosts			
2	Conservation of local cultural diversity			
3	Encouragement of the continuity of traditional skills			
4	Local attitude towards cultural change			
5	Ability of local communities to maintain native language			
6	Use of local resources/materials for handicraft production			
7	Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion			
8	Conservation of local architecture identity			
9	Establishment of education and training programmes - improvement in knowledge of socio-cultural resource management			
10	Promotion of local cuisine, events and history in SCERT development			

Criterion:	Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality			
	Indicators	Important	Not important	Reasons
1	Environmental carrying capacity			
2	Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity			
3	Management of household and tourism waste			
4	Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials			
5	Environmental impact assessment appraisal in SCERT programs			
6	Changes in environmental quality (water and air)			
7	Management plan for SCERT changing hotspots			
8	Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour			

Criterion:	Consumer / Tourist satisfaction			
	Indicators	Important	Not important	Reasons
1	Quality of facilities, services and activities			
2	Tourists' perception on SCERT programs			
3	Willingness to return as repeating tourist			
4	Expenditure by tourists			
5	Number of complaints / suggestions by tourists			
6	Tourists' willingness to pay for SCERT facilities, services, products and activities			
7	Tourists' satisfaction of the overall tourism experience			
8	Improvement in tourists' understanding and knowledge about other cultures, communities and environment			

Criterion:	Economic benefits to the local communities and SCERT participant			
	Indicators	Important	Not important	Reasons
1	Diversification of tourism activities and products			
2	Provision of funding for training, marketing and product development			
3	Economic performance - improvement of average earnings			
4	Local employment in SCERT programmes			
5	Patterns of ownership in SCERT programs			
6	Investment in SCERT projects			
7	Domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors			
8	Changes in domestic prices (services and products)			

Criterion:	Visitors' safety			
	Indicators	Important	Not important	Reasons

1	Provision of medical facilities in SCERT programs		
2	Capability of SCERT programs in conducting 'search and rescue' for visitors		
3	Complaint/feedback on visitors' safety		
4	Standard of environmental hygiene		
5	Availability of safety notice and publication		
6	Feedback on tourism-related accident in SCERT programs		
7	Capability of SCERT in prevention of infectious diseases		
8	Education for tourists to learn local desirable and acceptable behaviour		

Criterion: SCERT planning and management	Indicators		Reasons
	Important	Not important	
1	Local land use planning including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas		
2	Land use planning for SCERT and their surrounding areas		
3	Partnership in SCERT planning and management process		
4	Development control in SCERT projects		
5	Improvement of local transportation quality and services		
6	Practice of sustainable design in SCERT projects		
7	Provision of planning and management of SCERT		
8	Ownership of SCERT infrastructure		

Criterion: Local communities' well-being	Indicators		Reasons
	Important	Not important	
1	Access to local amenities		
2	Population trends and stability		
3	Housing quality for SCERT Home stay participants		
4	Report or feedback on crime rate		
5	Anti-social related areas / vandalism		
6	Education of local communities		

7	Communities' health status		
8	Local share in the use and enjoy the SCERT activities		
9	Presence of indigenous / minority groups in SCERT		

Section C: Comments and Feedback

1. For our record, please indicate how much time you spent in completing this questionnaire: _____ (so that, the process can be improved in a future research exercise).

2. You are also invited to add new indicator(s) (if you have any) for each criterion. Please state the indicator(s) and kindly offer your reasons.

Criteria	Suggestion of new indicator(s)	Reason for importance
Community participation in SCERT development		
Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values		
Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality		
Consumer / Tourist satisfaction		
Economic benefits to the local communities and SCERT participant		
Visitors' safety		
SCERT planning and management		
Local communities' well-being		

3. Please provide any comments that you have regarding the format of the Delphi process. Is it easy and helpful for you to answer this questionnaire? Or do you have any suggestion for improvement?

Thank you for your co-operation

Research Title: Criteria and Indicators for Sustainable Community-based Rural Tourism (SCBRT) Development: The Case of East Coast Economic Region (ECER), Malaysia

By
Khairul Hisyam, KAMARUDIN

Dear Sir/Madam,

Firstly, thank you for your willingness to participate in this local communities process to identify criteria and indicators for sustainable community-based rural tourism (SCBRT) development. This note will elaborate further about questionnaire instruction, treatment of information and personal contact.

Questionnaire Instruction:

This questionnaire consists of four sections. *Section A* will ask for some personal background information. *Section B* will ask about your perception on tourism activities in your village. In *Section C*, you will be asked about your perception on the concept of sustainable community-based rural tourism (SCBRT). *Section D* will ask you to determine and choose the best indicators for each criterion, showing those that you feel are important to assess SCBRT development in your area by circle the most appropriate answers.

Please return this questionnaire with your response even if you are unable to answer all the questions within the time given. Your participation is very important for this research and your cooperation is very much appreciated.

You will have the opportunity to modify and re-consider your responses in *Section B* after getting the feedback from other experts during next stage of this iterative process (Stage 2 – Round 2).

Your answers will be kept strictly confidential and anonymous. Should you have any enquiries, please do not hesitate to contact the principal researcher via email at: khkamarudin@brookes.ac.uk or khisyamutm@yahoo.com. Your co-operation in this research process is most appreciated.

Thank you.

Sponsors:



Ministry of Higher
Education Malaysia



OXFORD
BROOKES
UNIVERSITY

In cooperation with:

Questionnaire No.

Please or fill your answer

Section A: Profile of Respondent

1. Gender:
 - Male Female
 2. Age: _____ years old
 3. Race:
 - Malay
 - Chinese
 - Indian
 - Orang Asli
(Please state your sub-ethnic: _____)
 - Others (please specify _____)
 4. Your education level:
 - No formal education
 - Primary school
 - Secondary school
 - Certificate / Diploma
 - Degree
 - Post-grad degree
 - Others (Please specify _____)
 5. Your occupation (full-time basis):
 - Not related / student
 - Unemployed
 - Retiree
 - * Tourism-related activities
(Please specify _____)
 - Businessman/entrepreneur
 - Professional
 - Government servant
 - Housewife
 - Manual worker / labour
 - Others (please specify _____)
- If * please answer the following questions:
- 5.1 How long have you involved in this job?
 - years

- 5.2 Is any of your family members involve/help you in this job?
 - No
 - Yes (please specify):
- 5.3 Did you employ any workers?
 - No
 - Yes (please specify):
..... local workers
..... foreign workers

6. Your occupation (part-time basis):
 - Not related
 - * Tourism-related activity (please specify):
 - Non-tourism related activity (please specify):

If * please answer the following questions:

- 6.1 How long have you involved in this job?
 - years
- 6.2 Is any of your family members involve/help you in this job?
 - No
 - Yes (please specify):
- 6.3 Did you employ any workers?
 - No
 - Yes (please specify):
..... local workers
..... foreign workers
7. Do you live here (permanent resident)?
 - Yes, for year
 - No (please specify)
Where :
 - Reasons :
8. Gross monthly income (RM):
 - Below RM750 (national poverty line)
 - RM751 – RM1000
 - RM1001 – RM3000
 - RM3001 – RM5000
 - RM5001 – RM7000
 - More than RM7001

Section B: Respondent perception on tourism activities in their village / local area

9. If you involved as a participant in tourism activities in your village (full-time or part time), please state reasons that encourage you to be involved.

Economic reasons

■
■
■
■

Socio-cultural & leadership reasons

■
■
■
■

Environmental reasons

■
■
■
■

Other reasons

■
■
■
■

10. If you are not involved in tourism activities in your village (not even as a part-time jobs), please state your reasons.

Economic reasons

■
■
■
■

Socio-cultural & leadership reasons

■
■
■
■

Environmental reasons

■
■
■
■

Other reasons

■
■
■
■

11. In your opinion, what are the major advantages of tourism activities in your village?

	Advantages
■ Economic	
■ Socio-cultural	
■ Environment	
■ Community leadership & entrepreneurship	

12. In your opinion, what are the major disadvantages of tourism activities in your village?

	Disadvantages
■ Economic	
■ Socio-cultural	
■ Environment	
■ Community leadership & entrepreneurship	

13. How do you rate the quality of tourism services in your village?

- Improving
- Declining
- Not sure

14. How do you rate the local roles and chances for them to be involved in tourism discussion, plan formulation and implementation in your village?

- Improving
- Declining
- Not sure

15. How do you rate the situation of natural resources exploitation and conservation since the introduction of tourism in your village?

- Uncontrolled exploitation of natural resources
- Controlled exploitation of natural resources but less conservation
- Less exploitation and more conservation of natural resources
- Not sure

16. Do you think your village/community need more or less tourists in the future?

- Yes, we need more
- Yes, but with certain measures or control
- No, reduced the number of tourists
- Not sure

Section C: Respondent perception on the concept of Sustainable Community-based Rural Tourism (SCBRT)

Make it simple to a lay person:

- i. *Sustainable: any actions or activities that contribute to the profitability of economic, socio-cultural, environment and local institution continuously (in a long term period), then how the same profit could be maintain or sustain for the enjoyment of future generation.*
- ii. *An indicator: is a measure (measurement tool – like a ruler) that be used to measure or describe the progress/performance and current situation of tourism development in your village (either moving towards sustainability or otherwise).*

17. Have you heard about Sustainable Community-based Rural Tourism / SCBRT?

- Yes (please specify source of information):
- No

18. What do you understand about SCBRT? (you may choose more than one answer)

- Tourism that take place in rural areas
- Small-scale and function to serve rural services
- Involved conservation of local culture and natural resources
- Tourism activities that portray traditional character
- Provide bigger benefits to local community
- Local community / stakeholders must be included in decision-making process
- Other (s) (please specify):

19. In your opinion, what should be the best goals and structures for SCBRT? (you may choose more than one answer)

- To encourage local participation and empowerment
- Owned and managed by community group; or family; or joint venture with other agencies
- Must contribute or support local development (jobs provision, stable income, etc.) and improve the quality of life
- As tools for local conservation (cultural, natural and ecological resources)
- Most activities must based on local attractions and resources
- Tourism that respect local cultures and their environment
- Involves knowledge and experience sharing
- Involves marginalised group within community (especially women and Indigenous people)
- Other (s) (please specify):

20. How important is it for community-based tourism to incorporate the sustainable development agenda?

- Very important
 - Important
 - Neither important or unimportant
 - Unimportant
 - Very unimportant
- (Please specify reasons for your answer):

21. What are the main constraints to encourage the SCBRT practices in your village?

- Lack of understanding on SCBRT concept
- Lack of coordination within community and between communities with agencies
- Lack of support especially from those who are not directly involved in CBRT programs
- Degradations of tourism resources (forest area, agriculture land, traditional culture, out-migration, etc.)
- Poor tourism infrastructure and facilities
- Other (s) (Please specify):

22. In your opinion, what could motivate local communities to carry out the SCBRT agenda?

- If it gives greater incentives from the government agencies (financial, marketing and physical facilities)
- If it open wider opportunity for local communities / stakeholders to be involved in decision-making process
- If it improves efficiency of leadership and local tourism action committee
- If it gives income stability (and good jobs prospect) and improvement in quality of life
- If it could assure long-term resource and ecological conservation
- Other (s) (Please specify):

23. In your opinion, who is in the best position to implement SCBRT programs? (Rank your answer as 1= the most important and 5= the least important)

- Ministry of Tourism Malaysia
- Local authority / District Council
- Rural Advancement Division, Ministry of Rural & Regional Development
- Local community through Local Tourism Committee
- Private-driven agencies
- Other (s) (Please specify):

24. Do you think formulation of indicators is a part of important process in SCBRT programmes? (Please specify reasons for your answer)

- Yes, reasons:
- No, reasons:

25. Do you think you and other community members should be involved in the process of developing indicators of SCBRT? (Please specify reasons for your answer)

- Yes, reasons:
- No, reasons:

26. Do you think with availability of sustainability indicators for CBRT could improve / enhance tourism activities in your village to be more sustainable in the future? (Please specify reasons for your answer)

- Yes, reasons:
- No, reasons:

Section D: Ranking the Indicators for Sustainable Community-based Rural Tourism (SCBRT)
(Derived from the Delphi exercise – Stage Two)

27. Which do you think could be the most appropriate indicators for SCBRT?
(Circle the most appropriate answers)

- 1 = Very not important
- 2 = Not important
- 3 = Neither important or not important
- 4 = Important
- 5 = Very important

The Agreed List of Themes and Indicators of Sustainable CBRT	Voting for the indicators as				
	1	2	3	4	5
TA: Protect and enhance the built and natural environment quality					
INDICATOR					
Maintain the environmental carrying capacity					
Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity					
Management of household and tourism waste					
Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials					
Changes in environmental quality (water and air)					
Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour					
TB: Local communities well-being					
INDICATOR					
Access to local amenities					
Housing quality for SCBRT/Home stay participants					
Education of local communities					
Local share in the use and enjoy the SCBRT activities					
Presence of indigenous / minority groups in SCBRT					
TC: Community participation in sustainable CBRT development					
INDICATOR					
Operation of tourism businesses by locals and their contribution to the locals' well-being					
Improvement of local human capital					
Community acceptance over SCBRT programmes (including non-participants)					
Involvement of women, youth and minority groups					
Local community ownership over SCBRT projects					
Local understanding / awareness of SCBRT issues					
TD: Economic benefits to the local communities and sustainable CBRT participant					
INDICATOR					
Diversification of tourism activities and products					
Provision of funding for training, marketing and product development					
Economic performance – improvement of average earnings					
Local employment in SCBRT programmes					
Investment in SCBRT projects					
Domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors					

The Agreed List of Themes and Indicators of Sustainable CBRT	Voting for the indicators as				
	1	2	3	4	5
IE: Maintain and support local social, culture, religion and historical values					
INDICATOR					
Respect towards land and property right of local hosts					
Encouragement of the continuity of traditional skills					
Use of local resources/ materials for handicraft production					
Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion					
Conservation of local architecture identity					
Establishment of education and training programmes – improvement in knowledge of socio-cultural resource management					
Promotion of local culture, events and history in SCBRT development					
IF: Sustainable CBRT planning and management					
INDICATOR					
Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas					
Land use planning for SCBRT and their surrounding areas					
Partnership in SCBRT planning and management process					
Development control in SCBRT projects					
Improvement of local transportation quality and services					
Practice of sustainable design in SCBRT projects					
Management plan for SCBRT changing hotspots					
IG: Visitors' safety					
INDICATOR					
Capability of SCBRT programs in conducting 'search and rescue' for visitors					
Complaint/feedback on visitors' safety					
Standard of environmental hygiene					
Availability of safety notice and publication					
Capability of SCBRT in prevention of infectious diseases					
IH: Consumer / Tourist satisfaction					
INDICATOR					
Quality of facilities, services and activities					
Willingness to return as repeating tourist					
Expenditure by tourists					
Tourists' satisfaction of the overall tourism experience					
Improvement in tourists' understanding and knowledge about other cultures, communities and environment					

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

MEMBANGUNKAN “SET PENGUKURAN” BAGI PELANCONGAN DESA 2013 (Field Test of Indicators)

Mohon jasa baik Tuan/Puan untuk menjawab soalan-soalan yang diberikan. Segala maklumat yang diberikan adalah SULIT dan hanya akan digunakan bagi tujuan akademik dan pembelajaran. Identiti Tuan/Puan dikira SULIT dan akan dipelihara.

Kerjasama Tuan/Puan terhadap kajian saya dahului dengan ucapan terima kasih.

Tarikh Temubual/Date: <input type="checkbox"/> Feb. 2013	No. Borang: <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	Lokasi/Location: <input type="checkbox"/> Kampung Teluk Ketapang, Terengganu <input type="checkbox"/> Kampung Seterpa, Kelantan <input type="checkbox"/> Kampung KualaMedang, Pahang
---	--	---

Arahan/Instruction:

- Borang bancian ini terbahagi daripada 2 bahagian.
- Tiada jawapan BETUL atau SALAH. Justeru Tuan/Puan tidak perlu risau untuk memberikan jawapan. Diharap Tuan/Puan memberi jawapan mengikut pertimbangan sendiri dan berpandukan kepada keperluan serta kesesuaian dengan kampung Tuan/Puan.
- Mudah-mudahan penglibatan Tuan/Puan terhadap kajian ini akan mendatangkan manfaat kepada bidang ilmu dan bidang pelancongan di masa hadapan.

Pengkaji:

KHAIRUL HISYAM BIN KAMARUDIN
 Penyelidik Kedoktoran di Bidang Perancangan (Pelancongan Lestari)
 Jabatan Perancangan
 Oxford Brookes University, Oxford, UK
 khkamarudin@brookes.ac.uk

Pensyarah
 UTM Sekolah Razak bagi Kejuruteraan dan Teknologi Termaju
 Universiti Teknologi Malaysia Kuala Lumpur, Jalan Semarak
 khisyam@ic.utm.my

BAHAGIAN I/Section 1

Economy Indicators	Answers	Comments of indicators
1. Economic performance – improvement of average earnings	Respondent's monthly income is contributed by their participation in CBRT	
	CBRT did not contribute towards monthly income of respondent	
2. Local employment in sustainable CBRT programmes	Agree	
	Disagree	
3. Diversification of tourism activities and products	CBRT create diversification of activities and tourism products	
	There is no diversification of activity or product	
4. Provision of funding for training, marketing and product development	Local community able to allocate certain amount fund needed for training, marketing and product development	
	Local community did not have such fund	
5. Investment in sustainable CBRT projects	Local community did invest in local tourism projects using own funds	
	Local community was not capable to invest on local tourism projects on their own	
6. Domestic linkages and value added from other local economic sectors	Agree	
	Disagree	

BAHAGIAN 2

Environment Indicators	Criteria/Answers	Comments of indicators
1. Protection, conservation and management of local biodiversity	Agree	
	Not concern about environment	
2. Management of household and tourism waste	Yes, the community have a system of waste management/disposal	
	Disagree	
3. Promotion of responsible tourist behaviour	Agree	
	Disagree	
4. Maintain the environmental carrying capacity	Agree	
	Disagree	
5. Changes in environmental quality (water and air)	Disagree	
	Agree	
6. Management (including minimisation) of hazardous materials	Agree	
	Disagree	

BAHAGIAN 3/Section 3

Socio-Cultural Indicators	Criteria/Answers	Comments of indicators
1. Access to local amenities	Residents and participants have access for using local amenities	
	Local people having difficulties to access to local amenities	
2. Housing quality for sustainable CBRT/Home stay participants	Housing quality has increased during the tourism been introduced	
	No significant change in housing quality	
3. Education of local communities	Local community have good access to school/education	
	Limited access to school/education	
4. Presence of indigenous / minority groups in sustainable CBRT	Agree	
	Not all has been included	
5. Local share in the use and enjoyment of the sustainable CBRT activities	Agree	
	Disagree	
6. Operation of tourism businesses by locals and their contribution to the locals' well-being	Agree, the operations are fully managed by the community	
	Disagree, community only play minor role (paid workers, etc)	
7. Local community ownership of sustainable CBRT projects	Agree, majority of the projects are owned by the community	
	Disagree, majority of the projects are owned by people from outside of the community/Community merely involved as workers.	
8. Involvement of women and youth groups in sustainable CBRT	Agree	
	Not all has been included	
9. Improvement of local human capital	Agree	
	Disagree	

Socio-Cultural Indicators	Criteria/Answers	Comments of indicators
10. Community acceptance of sustainable CBRT programmes (including non-participants)	Local showing support and positive attitude towards CBRT activities	
	Local did not support CBRT activities	
11. Local understanding / awareness of sustainable CBRT issues	Community becoming more aware of issues relating to CBRT	
	Community did not aware of issues relating to CBRT	
12. Respect towards land and property right of local hosts	Agree	
	Community is not satisfy with tourists' attitude	
13. Encouragement of the continuity of traditional skills	Agree	
	Disagree	
14. Use of local resources/ materials for handicraft production	Agree, raw materials are mainly local produce/within the same district	
	Community have to buy materials from outside of their district	
15. Preservation and conservation of local traditions (food, dress), events and religion	Agree	
	Disagree	
16. Establishment of education and training programmes – improvement in knowledge of socio-cultural resource management	Agree or frequent (once in every 6 months)	
	No or less frequent	
17. Conservation of local architecture identity	Agree	
	Disagree	
18. Promotion of local culture, events and history in sustainable CBRT development	Active promotion	
	No promotion or passive promotion	

Socio-Cultural Indicators	Criteria/Answers	Comments of indicators
19. Capability of sustainable CBRT programs in conducting 'search and rescue' for visitors	Agree	
	Disagree, totally depending on security force (police and fireman)	
20. Complaint/feedback on visitors' safety	Agree	
	Disagree	
21. Standard of environmental hygiene	At least once for every month	
	Sometimes/during certain occasions	
22. Availability of safety notices and publication of safety information	Agree	
	Disagree	
23. Capability of sustainable CBRT regarding prevention of infectious diseases	Agree	
	Disagree	
24. Quality of facilities, services and activities	Agree	
	Disagree	
25. Willingness to return as repeating tourist	Agree	
	Disagree	
26. Expenditure by tourists	Spending by tourists during visit (purchase souvenirs, food, extra services).	
	Not significant (they just pay what is offered by the package)	
27. Tourists' satisfaction of the overall tourism experience	Tourists are highly satisfy	
	There is many complaints received	
28. Improvement in tourists' understanding and knowledge about other cultures, communities and environment	Tourists received wide exposure about local culture and costumes.	
	There is many complaints received	

BAHAGIAN 4

Institution Indicators	Criteria/Answers	Comments of indicators
1. Local land use planning, including types of allowable land use activities in the rural areas	Agree, there is a village land use map	
	Did not have a village land use map	
2. Land use planning for sustainable CBRT and their surrounding areas	Agree	
	Disagree	
3. Partnership in sustainable CBRT planning and management process	Agree (direct or indirect)	
	No partnership	
4. Improvement of local transport quality and services	Local transportation system is greatly improved	
	No improvement in local transportation system	
5. Management plan for sustainable CBRT changing hotspots	Agree	
	Disagree	
6. Practice of sustainable design in CBRT projects	Agree	
	Disagree	
7. Development control in sustainable CBRT projects	Agree	
	Disagree	