

**DEVELOPING A SCALE TO MEASURE RESIDENT ATTITUDES
TOWARD IMPACTS OF TOURISM IN LANGKAWI,
MALAYSIA**

NURHAZANI MOHD SHARIFF

**The Scottish Hotel School
University of Strathclyde
94 Cathedral Street
Glasgow, Scotland
United Kingdom**

**Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

September 2002

**DEVELOPING A SCALE TO MEASURE RESIDENT ATTITUDES
TOWARD IMPACTS OF TOURISM IN LANGKAWI,
MALAYSIA**

NURHAZANI MOHD SHARIFF

**The Scottish Hotel School
University of Strathclyde
94 Cathedral Street
Glasgow, Scotland
United Kingdom**

**Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

September 2002

Declaration of Author's Right:

“The copyright of this thesis belongs to the author under the terms of the United Kingdom Copyright Acts as qualified by the University of Strathclyde Regulation 3.49. Due acknowledgement must always be made of the use of any material contained in, or derived from, this thesis.”

ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of the study is to develop a better scale of measuring resident attitudes toward impacts of tourism development in Langkawi, Malaysia. The second objective is to test whether or not culture is a factor in determining resident attitudes. This is determined by having residents with different racial groups as respondents. The study was comprised of six stages which followed the procedures suggested by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (1991). The first stage began with generating all the items of tourism impacts. The items were obtained from interviews, the Tourism Impact Attitude Scale (TIAS) developed by Lankford and Howard (1994), the latest scale developed by Ap and Crompton (1998) and the current literature. The analysis ended with 48 items. For the next stage, nine judges were selected and were asked to assess the content validity and clarity of the scale. This deliberation eliminated four items to leave it with 44 items. Next, based on Fishbein's attitude model, the items were carefully worded to avoid bias and ambiguity in the questions. The items were then purified by using factor analysis and Cronbach's coefficient alpha. 220 students were used for the pretest analysis and the results ended with 29 items. The next stage of the scale verification involved the same analysis and was tested on 145 residents of Langkawi. The results ended with 13 items and five domains of tourism impact. Finally, the scale was tested for convergent validity and the result indicated a moderate relationship between the scale and the question used to measure the same thing. The study also confirmed that culture is a factor in determining resident attitudes toward impacts of tourism in Langkawi.

The Langkawi Tourism Impact Attitude Scale (LATIAS) has been successfully developed and it shows strong reliability and good content and convergent validity. The scale encompasses 13 items and five domains to fit the Langkawi community's cultural background. Thus, the study makes a methodological contribution to developing an attitudinal scale which is reliable and valid. In addition, it allows for greater understanding of the resident attitudes toward tourism development in the area. However, there is still a need to further verify the scale in other communities in order to substantiate it.

Acknowledgements

“Bismillahirrahmanirrahim”

In the name of Allah, The Most Gracious, The Most Merciful,
above all, I thank YOU

Firstly, I would like to thank UUM and JPA for sponsoring my study. Many thanks go to Professor C.L. Jenkins, my supervisor, for his support and understanding. Not to forget, Sandra and Muriel at the Scottish Hotel School – thank you for all your assistance. Heartfelt thanks to Shuhada and Shah for their friendships and for making life at Cumbernauld so wonderful. Most of all, I would like to dedicate my thanks to my lovely mother, Hajjah Hamidah, for her loves and prayers. I could not make it through without her.

And last but not least, to the four heroes in my life.

To my husband, Azlan – thank you for your loving, support and understanding. I will always cherish them.

To my sons, Ashrof, Afiq and baby Afzat – all of you are my inspiration and will always be.

In memory of my beloved father and father-in-law.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page No.
Abstract	i
List of Figures	vi
List of Tables	vii
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	
Background of the Study	1
Formulation of the Problem	2
Case Study Area	4
Objectives of the Study	5
Significance of the Study	6
Model of the Study	7
Organisation of the Study	9
CHAPTER 2 IMPACTS OF TOURISM	
Introduction	13
Economic Impact of Tourism	16
Environmental Impacts of Tourism	23
Socio-Cultural Impact of Tourism	30
Impacts of Tourism: The Islamic Perspective	43
Conclusion	47
CHAPTER 3 TOURISM IN MALAYSIA	
Introduction	49
Background to Malaysia	50
<i>Physical Profile</i>	50
<i>Historical Profile</i>	52
<i>Society, Culture and Religion</i>	54
Tourism in Malaysia	58
<i>Tourist Attractions, Accommodation and Transportation</i>	58
<i>Government Policy and Roles in Tourism</i>	62
<i>Investment in Tourism</i>	67
<i>The Affects of the Asian Currency Crisis</i>	71
<i>Tourism Growth</i>	74
Conclusion	77

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page No.

CHAPTER 4 CASE STUDY AREA – LANGKAWI

Introduction	79
Background to Langkawi	80
Tourism in Langkawi	84
<i>Tourist Attractions</i>	85
<i>Physical Development</i>	87
<i>Policy and Strategy</i>	88
Langkawi Development Authority (LADA)	90
<i>Introduction to LADA</i>	90
<i>Objectives of LADA</i>	91
<i>Functions of LADA</i>	92
<i>Planning and Tourism Divisions</i>	94
Tourism Growth	97
Conclusion	101

CHAPTER 5 DEVELOPING AN ATTITUDINAL SCALE

Introduction	103
Attitudes Components and Functions	105
Attitude Theories	111
<i>Learning Theory</i>	111
<i>Cognitive Consistency</i>	113
<i>Cognitive Dissonance Theory</i>	114
<i>Self-Perception Theory</i>	117
<i>Expectancy-Value Theory</i>	118
<i>Cognitive Response Theory</i>	119
Attitude Measurement	120
<i>Standard Attitude Scaling</i>	121
<i>Guttman Scale</i>	123
<i>Thurstone Scale</i>	124
<i>Likert Scale</i>	125
<i>Semantic Differential Technique</i>	127
Development of an Attitudinal Scale	130
Conclusion	137

CHAPTER 6 METHODOLOGY

Introduction	140
Research Design	141

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page No.

<i>Types of Research</i>	141
<i>Research Instrument</i>	143
<i>Time Horizon</i>	147
Sampling Design	147
<i>Types of Sample Design</i>	149
<i>Sample Size</i>	152
Data Collection	155
<i>Primary Data</i>	155
<i>Secondary Data</i>	157
Data Analysis	158
<i>Factor Analysis</i>	159
<i>Reliability Test</i>	161
<i>Convergent Validity</i>	163
<i>Cross-tabulation and Chi-square</i>	164
Conclusion	165

CHAPTER 7 FINDINGS: DEVELOPMENT OF THE TOURISM IMPACT SCALE

Introduction	167
Items Generation	169
Panel of Expert Judges	170
Scale Purification	171
Scale Verification	176
Assessment of Convergent Validity	185
Conclusion	186

CHAPTER 8 APPLICATION OF THE TOURISM IMPACT SCALE IN LANGKAWI

Introduction	188
Testing the Scale – the Findings	189
Profiles of the Respondents	194
Conclusion	196

CHAPTER 9 CONCLUSIONS

Discussion and Conclusions	198
Significance and Contribution	204
Limitations of the Study	205
Recommendations for Future Research	206

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page No.
REFERENCES	208
Appendix A	List of the Panel Expert Judges
Appendix B	Panel Judges Survey Questionnaire
Appendix C	Pre-Test Survey Questionnaire
Appendix D	Survey Questionnaire
Appendix E	<i>“Borang Soal Selidik”</i>
Appendix F	List of Original Tourism Impact Items Identified (48 Items)
Appendix G	Pretest Factor Analysis Results with Varimax Rotation of Tourism Impact Scale with all Forty-four Items (n = 220)
Appendix H	Pretest Reliability Analysis Results of Tourism Impact Scale (n = 220)
Appendix I	Factor Analysis Results with Varimax Rotation of Tourism Impact Scale With all Twenty-nine Items: Langkawi Survey (n = 145)
Appendix J	Results of the Tested Scale in Langkawi (Table 8.1-8.13)

LIST OF FIGURES

		Page No.
Figure 1.1	Model for Developing an Attitudinal Scale	8
Figure 1.2	Organisation of the Study	12
Figure 2.1	A Conceptual Framework of Tourism	15
Figure 2.2	Framework for Assessing Economic Impacts of Tourism	19
Figure 2.3	Tourism and The Environment: Impact Interrelationships	26
Figure 2.4	Compounded Cultural and Operational Forces	36
Figure 3.1	Map of Malaysia	51
Figure 4.1	Map of Langkawi	83
Figure 4.2	LADA – Organisation Chart	94
Figure 5.1	ABC Tripartite Model of Attitudes	107
Figure 5.2	Conceptual Framework of Attitudes	109
Figure 5.3	The Balance Theory Model	115
Figure 5.4	Cognitive Dissonance Theory	116
Figure 5.5	Semantic Differential Technique	129
Figure 5.6	Procedure for Developing a Better Scale	136
Figure 7.1	Model for Developing an Attitudinal Scale	168

LIST OF TABLES

		Page No.
Table 2.1	Positive Economic Impacts of Tourism Derived from the Literature	22
Table 2.2	Negative Economic Impacts of Tourism Derived from the Literature	23
Table 2.3	Positive Environmental Impacts of Tourism Derived from the Literature	28
Table 2.4	Negative Environmental Impacts of Tourism Derived from the Literature	30
Table 2.5	Positive Social and Cultural Impacts of Tourism derived from the Literature	40
Table 2.6	Negative Social and Cultural Impacts of Tourism derived from the Literature	41
Table 3.1	Tourist Receipts and Visitors for the Hotel Sector in Malaysia	60
Table 3.2	Government Allocation for Tourism Development 1986 – 2000 (RM million)	69
Table 3.3	Malaysia's International Tourist Arrivals and Receipts (1987 – 1999)	76
Table 4.1	Total Number of Tourists Visiting Langkawi (1986 – 2000)	100
Table 5.1	Self-Perception Versus Cognitive Dissonance	118
Table 5.2	Guttman Scale	124
Table 5.3	Likert Scale	126
Table 5.4	Community Tourism Survey	127
Table 5.5	A Comparison of the Four Attitude Scales	130
Table 5.6	Scale Development and Purification Procedures	132

LIST OF TABLES

		Page No.
Table 6.1	Sample Size for Each District of Langkawi	155
Table 7.1	Factor Analysis Results with Varimax Rotation of Tourism Impact Scale – Pretest Sample (n=220)	174
Table 7.2	Factor Analysis Results with Varimax Rotation of Tourism Impact Scale – Final Test Sample (n=145)	179
Table 7.3	Results of the Reliability Analysis (n=145)	184
Table 7.4	Results of Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient	185
Table 8.14	Respondents’ Profiles	195
Table 9.1	Results of a Chi-Square Test	201
Table 9.2	Procedures of Developing LATIAS	204

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Tourism, like many other industries, plays an important role in developing a country's economy. The growth and development of tourism produces effects on the economic, environmental and social aspects of a community's life. Contributions to income and standard of living, generation of job opportunities, preservation of the natural environment, promotion of cultural exchange, improvement of the public utilities infrastructure, and increases in tax revenues have been noted in the literature as positive outcomes of tourism development. Even with all the benefits, previous studies on perceived impacts also highlight many negative outcomes of tourism development such as high cost of living, overcrowding, prostitution, noise pollution, litter and traffic congestion.

Since impacts of tourism development are many and varied, Lankford and Howard (1994) suggest a continuing need to examine and report the consequences. In fact, according to Allen et. al. (1988), to sustain a tourism based economy in local

communities, resident attitudes and perceptions on impacts of tourism must be continually assessed. In order to determine these impacts, numerous studies have focused on the assessments of resident attitudes and perceptions (Pizam, 1978; Rothman, 1978; Sethna and Richmond, 1978; Thomason, Crompton and Kamp, 1979; Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Brougham and Butler, 1981; Murphy, 1981; Cooke, 1982; Murphy, 1983; Sheldon and Var, 1984; Tyrrell and Spaulding, 1984; Var, Kendall and Tarakcioglu, 1985; Liu and Var, 1986; Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987; Perdue, Long and Allen, 1990; Ross, 1992).

Studies on resident attitudes are not just important in determining positive and negative impacts of tourism development, but they are also found useful by Sethna (1980) in setting up programmes to minimize friction between residents and tourists and in helping government to really understand tourism impacts. In fact, previous studies also note that resident attitudes toward impacts of tourism are the most important factor in determining whether a visitor returned to a destination (Hoffman and Low, 1981) and in predicting a destination choice (Sheldon and Var, 1984). These attitudes may also contribute to the long-term sustainability to tourism in an area.

FORMULATION OF THE PROBLEM

It will be demonstrated that a study of attitudes is very important in order to identify real concerns and issues in tourism. However, it is noticed that as a field of study, tourism has lagged behind other areas in the development and application of both theory and

methods. Even though a large number of perceived impacts have been reported, additional research still needs to be conducted to develop appropriate attitude scales and better measures of perceived tourism impacts (Tyrrell and Spaulding, 1984; Perdue, Long and Allen, 1990; Lankford and Howard, 1994).

Nowadays, the questions of reliability and validity of the measures have been the main issues in studying tourism impacts. In fact, it has been found that out of 20 published papers on resident attitudes and perceptions of tourism impacts, only one reported on the reliability and validity of the measures used (Ap, 1990). To this end, Crompton (1991) suggests an establishment of a standardized instrument for use in tourism research. To date, a scale had been developed by Lankford and Howard (1994) and Ap and Crompton (1998). The Tourism Impact Attitude Scale (TIAS) developed by Lankford and Howard (1994) emerged from the analysis applied in standardized scaling technique for gauging host community attitudes toward tourism. The 27-item scale has high reliability scores even though the scale validation is incomplete. Ap and Crompton (1998) developed a scale that is intended to provide core domains and items to fit specific characteristics of any particular community. The scale follows a procedure that is recommended by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (1991) and it has an acceptable level of interval consistency and relatively high convergent validity.

Given the above scenario, the researcher however feels that there is still a need for a study to be taken in other communities such as Malaysia, which has a diversity of culture which may determine resident attitudes toward tourism. Both the existing scales

developing it into a world class tourist destination. And with its beautiful beaches, accessible mountainous areas, marine waterways and wealth of legendary tales, Langkawi has captured a total of 1 378 940 tourists' arrivals (LADA, 1999).

In the Langkawi Structure Plan 1990-2005, the government has identified seven areas of tourism development; Kuah, Padang Lalang, Tanjung Rhu, Teluk Datai, Teluk Baru Besar/ Temoyong, Pantai Chenang/Pantai Tengah and Pantai Kok/ Teluk Burau. The development of tourism on the island is the responsibility of Langkawi Development Authority normally known as LADA. Since 1990, LADA has spent more than RM320 million on the infrastructure development of tourism in Langkawi. There is no doubt that tourism in the island has become important to the community and its economic well-being. For this reason, a sample of residents in Langkawi will be surveyed in an attempt to understand their attitudes toward tourism development and how it has impacted on the community.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study aims to develop and provide an attitudinal scale that could be used to monitor the residents' attitudes toward impacts of tourism in Langkawi, Malaysia. Since tourism has been developed quite rapidly in Langkawi, resident attitudes become an important issue to be taken into consideration. In fact, according to Husbands (1989), resident attitudes are important in determining the positive and negative impacts of tourism.

Thus, it is necessary to consider their attitudes and perceptions in the planning and implementation of tourism development.

In doing so, the resident attitudes will be studied because Langkawi has a diversity of races with different backgrounds in culture and belief. This aspect, the researcher believes, might influence the residents' attitudes and perceptions toward impacts of tourism in their area. Thus, the results of the scale development will reflect the residents' culture, and can be used for the purpose of future research.

Based on the above statement, the objectives of this study are specifically;

- to develop and provide an attitudinal scale which is valid and reliable, and could be used by tourism planners and policy makers in order to monitor the resident attitudes toward impacts of tourism in Langkawi, and
- to test whether or not culture is a factor in determining resident attitudes toward impacts of tourism in Langkawi.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study contributes to a methodological and conceptual framework of developing an attitudinal scale and, it also should provide Langkawi tourism marketers, planners and decision makers with greater confidence that it would effectively measure all aspects of resident attitudes and perceptions toward impacts of tourism development (Ap and

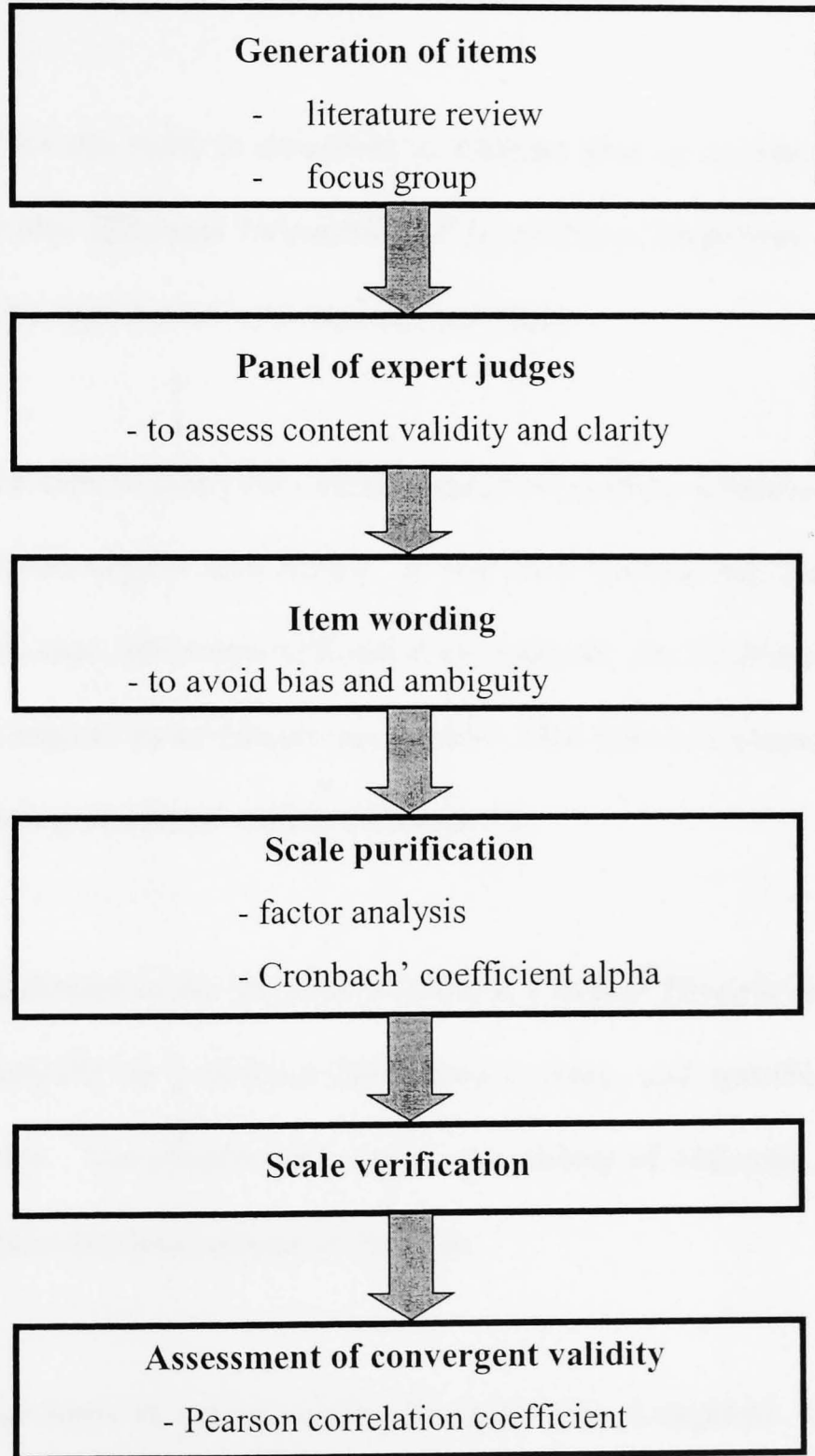
Crompton, 1998). By using a market segmentation approach, the scale could also be a useful measurement tool in characterizing the concerns of those residents who do not support tourism (Davis, Allen and Cosenza, 1988).

MODEL OF THE STUDY

Theoretically, this study is based on the procedures recommended by Fishbein (1963), Likert (1967), Churchill (1979), Zaichowsky (1985), Parasuraman et. al. (1988) and DeVellis (1991) for developing a better survey instrument. Conceptually, this model encompasses six stages in developing a scale. One, the generation of items representing resident attitudes toward impacts of tourism. Two, the selection of a panel of judges for assessing the content validity and clarity of the items. Three, formulation of items wording in order to avoid ambiguity in interpretation. Four, purification of the scale by using factor analysis to assess dimensionality of scale and to delete items with either low or multiple loading factor coefficients and Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Five, verification of the scale by further testing it with a sample survey of Langkawi. Finally, six, assessment of convergent validity by using Pearson correlation coefficient.

Figure 1.1 shows the model of developing an attitudinal scale for measuring resident attitudes toward impact of tourism in Langkawi.

Figure 1.1 : Model for Developing an Attitudinal Scale



ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

The contents of this study are described separately by chapters as follows:

Background of the study is described in *Chapter One* as an introduction to the study. The chapter also discusses formulation of the problem, objectives of the study, the case study area, the significance and model of the study.

Chapter Two aims to study the overall impacts of tourism. Literature on tourism impacts is reviewed thoroughly and deeply. It will first discuss the three main impacts of tourism; economic, environmental and socio-cultural. The chapter also explains in depth the tourism impacts in an Islamic perspective. This aspect is considered to be a relevant issue concerning residents' culture in Langkawi.

After having discussed the impacts of tourism, *Chapter Three* is devoted to introducing Malaysia generally as a tourism destination country, and specifically as a country of diverse culture. The chapter will explain the history of Malaysia, the people and their culture and also the development of tourism.

Chapter Four aims to introduce the case study area, Langkawi. The chapter describes the history of the island up to the growth of tourism development. It will also discuss the role of Langkawi Development Authority or normally known as LADA in developing tourism on the island.

Literature on resident attitudes is reviewed in *Chapter Five* of the study. Aspects such as foundation and measurement of attitude will be included in the discussion. The chapter will also put emphasis on describing resident attitudes toward the impacts of tourism.

The procedures of developing an attitudinal scale are presented in *Chapter Six* of the study. All the stages and methods used in the study are discussed in detail. The chapter also covers the population and sampling method, the sample size, questionnaire design, the method of data collection and the method of data analysis.

In *Chapter Seven*, findings of the study are discussed and presented related to the proposed model for developing an attitudinal scale. Firstly, results of the item generation are presented. Then, it will be followed by the results of the evaluation from the panel of expert judges. In the next stage, the results of the scale purification are discussed, then will be followed by the results of the scale verification, and finally, the discussion on the results of the assessment of convergent validity.

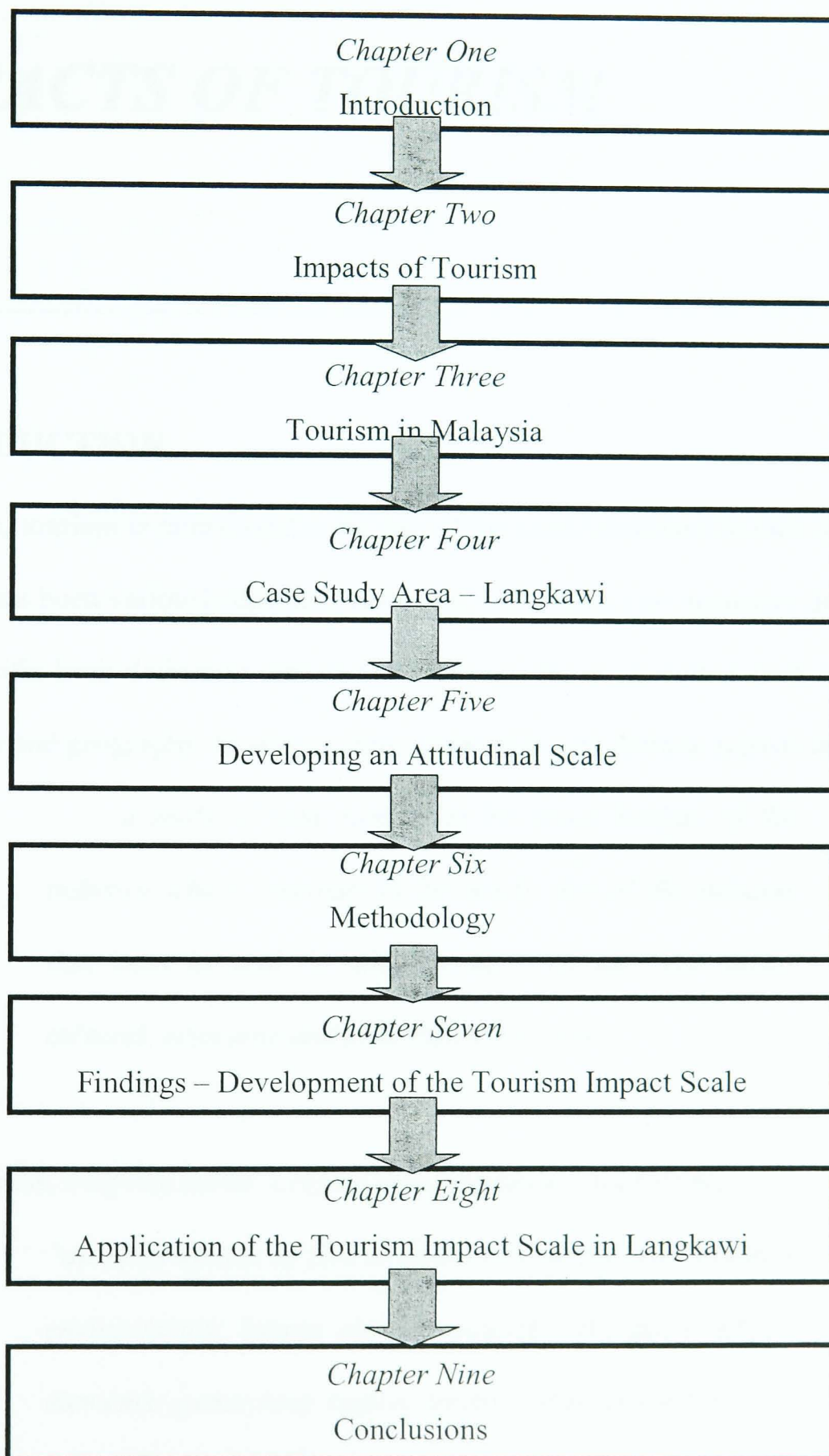
In order to determine resident attitudes toward tourism development, the standardized scale will then be tested in Langkawi. The results of testing the tourism impact scale in Langkawi are presented in *Chapter Eight*. The chapter will also present the background of the respondents.

The study ends with *Chapter Nine* where conclusions are drawn. Discussions of the findings are presented and it will also highlight the significance and limitations of the

study. Accordingly, the chapter recommends further study to be undertaken in the future.

Figure 1.2 shows the organisation of the chapters for the study.

Figure 1.2 : Organisation of the Study



dynamic element comprising persons undertaking travel which is, to some extent, leisure based and which involves a temporary stay away from home of at least one night”.

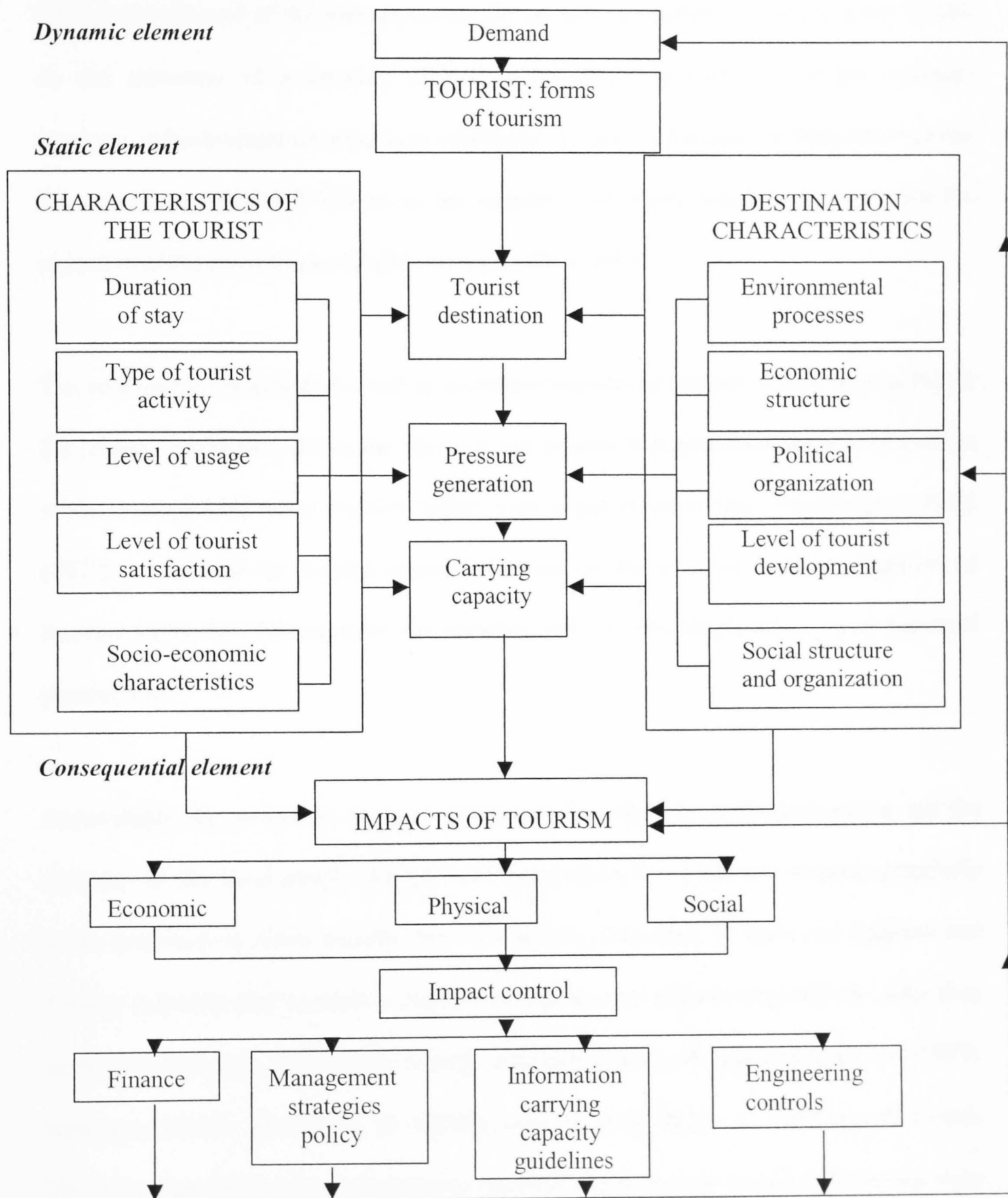
Meanwhile, as an industry which has demand and supply sides, tourism is defined as,

“the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction of tourists, business suppliers, host governments and host communities in the process of attracting and hosting these tourists and other visitors.”

(McIntosh et.al, 1994).

It can be seen clearly that in defining tourism, impacts resulting from the economic, environmental and social systems are stated as part of the tourism phenomena. Thus, Mathieson and Wall (1993:14) conceptualise a framework which is composed of all the elements in defining what tourism really is. Figure 2.1 describes the conceptual framework of tourism which begins with the dynamic element which is demand for tourism, the static element which includes the characteristics of tourists and destinations and the consequential element which is the impact resulting from the process of change. They conclude by defining impacts of tourism as the net change brought about by the process, or sequence of events, of tourist development. In order to understand what the impacts of tourism really cover, this chapter discusses the three main impacts which are the economic, environmental and socio-cultural.

Figure 2.1 : A Conceptual Framework of Tourism



Source: Mathieson and Wall (1993: 15)

ECONOMIC IMPACT OF TOURISM

As a major element of the service sector, the growth of tourism can create major effects on the economy of a country such as employment generation, foreign exchange earnings, infrastructure development and taxes. In fact, in the case of Malaysia, tourism has contributed RM18.7 billion to the country's economy which is in line with the objective of the government (Eighth Malaysia Plan, 2001).

The relationship involved in creating economic impacts of tourism can be seen in Figure 2.2 (Pearce, 1994:193). From the figure, it can be seen that economic impacts of tourism seem to emphasise more positive rather than negative outcomes. According to Jafari (1977), early work in tourism research focuses on the positive economic impacts of tourism while the '70s examine the negative and the '80s emphasize a more balanced perspective.

Accordingly, the economic impacts of tourism also depend on the perceptions and the attitudes of the local people. People tend to perceive the economic impacts positively when they receive direct benefits from tourism development. A study in Langkawi and Penang indicates that economic impacts of tourism are perceived positively since they benefit local people, particularly through increasing more job opportunities (Din, 1993). However, Mohd. Shariff et. al. (2000), note in their study in the State of Kedah, Malaysia, that the local people actually perceive the economic impacts of tourism more

negatively. The results are due to the fact that tourism is not the main economic contributor to the state.

The most publicised positive economic impacts of tourism are the contribution to foreign exchange earnings, the balance of payments, and the generation of income. Furthermore, major outcomes such as direct taxation, fees and service charges, loan repayments and revenue from tourist enterprises have arisen as income for the governments. Thus, looking at the economic aspect of a country, such as Malaysia, it cannot be denied that tourism creates positive economic impacts.

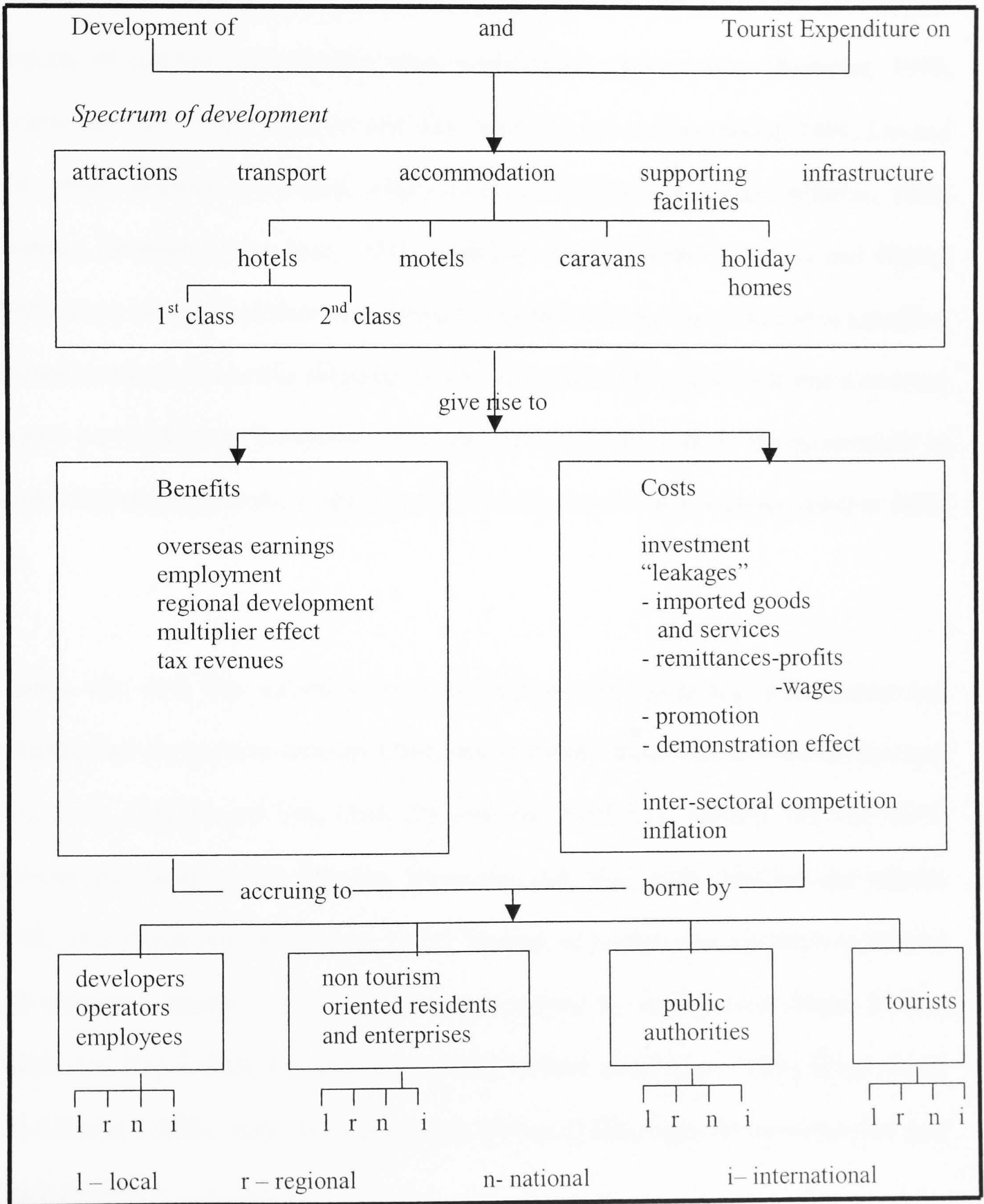
Tourism has also created employment opportunities especially in hotels and transport. The tourist receipts from the accommodation sector in Malaysia for 1999 was RM3 893.5 million and has created jobs opportunities (Tourism Malaysia Statistical Highlight, 2001). As a service sector, besides providing jobs, tourism is even able to retain them in changing economic conditions. It is a fact that this economic impact of tourism is seen as a major contribution to both the people and the country's economy.

Even with all the positive economic impacts of tourism, several negative economic impacts (Mathieson and Wall, 1993:86) are also identified. They are, opportunity costs of an investment which refer to the relative economic benefits of investing in tourism as opposed to investing in another industry; overdependence on tourism where destinations might become vulnerable to change in tourist demand; inflation and a rise in land value;

and, external costs which include increased costs of garbage collection and disposal and increased maintenance costs for tourist attractions damaged by crowding and vandalism.

According to Goeldner et.al (2000: 430), some areas find that the seasonal character of tourism leaves severe economic and social effects on the host region. This can be seen in the case of Malaysia during the economic crisis (see Chapter Three). Aspects such as overdependence on tourism and seasonality have become important issues of negative economic impacts to the country. Langkawi, is an example of a tourism destination which is overdependent on tourism and suffers from its seasonality. During the economic crisis, the island was visited by tourists only on school holidays. In fact, tourists arrivals were only 1,295,341 in 1998 compared to 1,622,044 in 1997 (LADA, Economic Statistics, 2001).

Figure 2.2 : Framework for Assessing Economic Impacts of Tourism



Source: Pearce (1994: 193)

Many studies and literature support the positive and negative economic impacts of tourism. Such literature shows that the main positive outcome derives from economic impacts of tourism in generating more employment opportunities (Rothman, 1978; Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Sheldon and Var, 1984; Tyrrell and Spaulding, 1984; Liu and Var, 1986; Milman and Pizam, 1988; Ross, 1992; King, Pizam and Milman, 1993; Johnson, Snepenger and Akis, 1994; Lankford, 1994; Haralambopoulos and Pizam, 1996). Even though contribution to foreign exchange earnings is considered as a positive economic impact of tourism (Mathieson and Wall, 1993), this study finds that it does not impact on residents of Langkawi. It would probably contribute to the government in terms of generating income to the country, thus, the impact item is not included in Table 2.1.

Studies also find that attracting more investment and improving development and infrastructure are positive outcomes from the economic impacts of tourism (Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Sheldon and Var, 1984; Liu and Var, 1986; Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987; Milman and Pizam, 1988; Johnson, Snepenger and Akis, 1994; McCool and Martin, 1994; Akis, Peristianis and Warner, 1996). Impacts of tourism also contribute to income and improved standard of living. This is supported by studies from Pizam (1978), Belisle and Hoy (1980), Liu and Var (1986), Milman and Pizam (1988), King, Pizam and Milman (1993), Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996), and Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996).

Besides all the main positive outcomes (Table 2.1), there are still other outcomes derived from the economic impacts of tourism. Such outcomes are improvement in the local economy (Tyrrell and Spaulding, 1984; Liu and Var, 1986; Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987; Allen et.al, 1988; Bystrzanowski, 1989; Perdue, Long and Allen, 1990), increases in tax revenues (Rothman, 1978; Brougham and Butler, 1981; Tyrrell and Spaulding, 1984; Milman and Pizam, 1988; Haralambopoulos and Pizam, 1996), increased opportunity for shopping (Liu and Var, 1986; Husbands, 1989), enhanced rural and regional development (Lankford, 1994), improvement in public utilities infrastructure (Rothman, 1978; Sethna and Richmond, 1978) and improvement of transport infrastructure (Belisle and Hoy, 1980).

Even though the economic impacts of tourism create positive outcomes, some negative outcomes are still noted in the literature (Table 2.2). Many studies find that increases in prices of goods and services is the main negative outcome of economic impacts (Pizam, 1978; Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Brougham and Butler, 1981; Liu and Var, 1986; Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987; Husbands, 1989; Ross, 1992; Johnson, Snepenger and Akis, 1994; Akis, Peristianis and Warner, 1996; Haralambopoulos and Pizam, 1996). Nevertheless, studies also find that high cost of living (Liu and Var, 1986; Perdue, Long and Allen, 1990; Ross, 1992) and increases in price of land and housing (Pizam, 1978; Var, Kendall and Tarakcioglu, 1985; Bystrzanowski, 1989; Perdue, Long and Allen, 1990; Ross, 1992) are negative outcomes from economic impacts of tourism.

Table 2.1 : Positive Economic Impacts of Tourism
Derived from the Literature

1. Generating more employment opportunities.	Rothman (1978), Belisle and Hoy (1980), Sheldon and Var (1984), Tyrrell and Spaulding (1984), Liu and Var (1986), Milman and Pizam (1988), Ross (1992), King, Pizam and Milman (1993), Mathieson and Wall (1993), Johnson, Snepenger and Akis (1994), Lankford (1994), Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996).
2. Attracting more investment and development.	Belisle and Hoy (1980), Sheldon and Var (1984), Liu and Var (1986), Liu, Sheldon and Var (1987), Milman and Pizam (1988), Johnson, Snepenger and Akis (1994), McCool and Martin (1994), Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996).
3. Generation of income and improved standard of living.	Pizam (1978), Belisle and Hoy (1980), Liu and Var (1986), Milman and Pizam (1988), King, Pizam and Milman (1993), Mathieson and Wall (1993), Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996), Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996).
4. Improvement on the local economy.	Liu and Var (1986), Liu, Sheldon and Var (1987), Allen et.al (1988), Bystrzanowski (1989), Perdue, Long and Allen (1990), Mathieson and Wall (1993).
5. Increases in tax revenues.	Rothman (1978), Broughman and Butler (1981), Tyrrell and Spaulding (1984), Milman and Pizam (1988), Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996).
6. Increases opportunities for shopping.	Liu and Var (1986), Husbands (1989).
7. Improves public utilities infrastructure.	Rothman (1978), Sethna and Richmond (1978).
8. Improve transport infrastructure.	Belisle and Hoy (1980).
9. Enhance rural and regional development.	Lankford (1994).

Table 2.2 : Negative Economic Impacts of Tourism
Derived from the Literature

1. Increases in price of goods and services.	Pizam (1978), Belisle and Hoy (1980), Brougham and Butler (1981), Liu and Var (1986), Liu, Sheldon and Var (1987), Husbands (1989), Ross (1992), Johnson, Snepenger and Akis (1994), Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996), Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996).
2. High cost of living.	Liu and Var (1986), Perdue, Long and Allen (1990), Ross (1992).
3. Increases in price of land and housing.	Pizam (1978), Var, Kendall and Tarakcioglu (1985), Bystrzanowski (1989), Perdue, Long and Allen (1990), Ross (1992), Mathieson and Wall (1993).

It is noted from the literature above that tourism contributes more positive economic impacts rather than negative impacts. However, these impacts depend significantly on the benefits receive from the tourism development. As long as there are several negative economic impacts which due to tourism still occur in the area, sustainability of tourism cannot be achieved. In addition, impacts gains to the economy and gains to the individual also need to be balanced in order to pursue sustainable tourism growth.

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM

Environmental impacts of tourism are also acknowledged as the physical impact of tourism. The growth of tourism has effected the nature of the environment both positively and negatively. Lerner (1977:2) defines physical environment as,

“...not only land, air, water, flora and fauna, but may also encompass people.....”.

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development or known as OECD (1980), however, defines environment in a broad term but stresses that the environment is an important input and a good environment is essential to further growth of tourism.

In order to understand the environmental impacts of tourism, one must first understand the relationships between tourism and the environment. There are three relationships which exist between tourism and environment (Budowski, 1976:27):

- Tourism and environmental conservation can exist in a situation when both camps promote their respective positions, remain in isolation and establish little contact with each other. However, this situation depends on the substantial changes in the environment;
- Tourism and environment is a symbiotic relationship. Tourism and environmental conservation organized in such a way where the environmental features and conditions provide benefits for the tourists who view and experience them; and
- Tourism and environmental conservation can be in conflict when tourism induces detrimental effects to the environment.

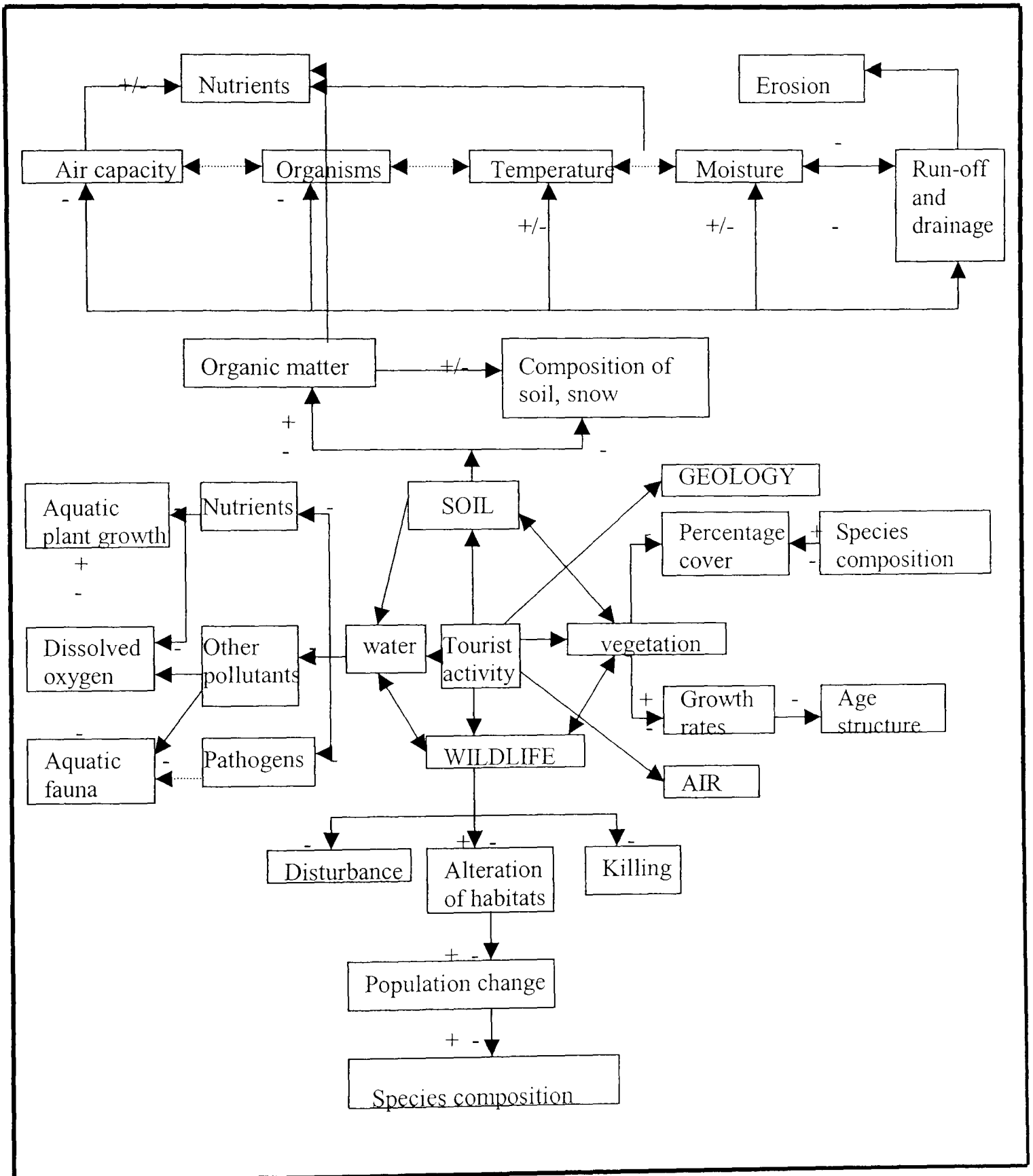
In the case of Malaysia, environment is considered as something to be preserved and restored. According to Khalifah and Tahir (1997), Malaysia's tropical rainforests are

among the oldest and most diverse ecosystems in the world. In addition, the government has also planned to promote and target ecotourism and 'green' environment as an intensive tourism development (Seventh Malaysia Plan, 1996).

Wang and Miko (1997) identify tourism's contribution to the degradation of major elements of the natural environment into several aspects such as water quality, air quality, vegetation (flora), wildlife (fauna) and coastlines/shorelines. Meanwhile, in the State of Sarawak, Malaysia, environmental preservation is based on ecotourism which is being demonstrated through the concepts of time-sharing, interval ownership and holiday ownership (Edmonds and Leposky, 2000). This has been discussed more in Chapter 3.

Even though tourism and the environment are variously defined, the main target of identifying the positive and negative environmental impacts due to tourism development is to sustain the tourism industry based on ecotourism. However, the term 'sustainability' can be and has been hijacked by many to give moral rectitude and 'green' credentials to tourist activities (Mowforth and Munt, 1998:84). Thus, Wall and Wright (1977) describe the relationships of tourism and the natural environment in a framework as illustrated in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3 : Tourism and Environment: Impact Interrelationships



Source: Wall and Wright (1977)

Such positive environmental impacts of tourism derived from the literature are the preservation and restoration of historic buildings and sites, creation of national parks and wildlife parks, protection of reefs and beaches and maintenance of forests (Cooper et. al, 1993: 103). In fact, studies on environmental impacts of tourism have identified the major positive outcomes as providing an incentive for restoration of historical buildings and conservation of natural resources (Sethna and Richmond, 1978; Sheldon and Var, 1984; Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987; Akis, Peristianis and Warner, 1996).

Furthermore, studies also note that road and other facilities are kept at a higher standard as another positive outcomes from environmental impacts of tourism (Liu and Var, 1986; Bystrzanowski, 1989; Perdue, Long and Allen, 1990; Akis, Peristianis and Warner, 1996; Wang and Miko, 1997).

Besides the two major impacts mentioned above, tourism has also contributed to more parks and other recreational areas for swimming, etc. (Liu and Var, 1986; McCool and Martin, 1994) and in addition, preservation of the natural environment does not cause ecological decline (Sethna and Richmond, 1978; Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Sheldon and Var, 1984; Liu and Var, 1986; Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987). Table 2.3 summarises the positive environmental impacts of tourism as derived from the literature.

Table 2.3 : Positive Environmental Impacts of Tourism**Derived from the Literature**

1. Tourism provides an incentive for restoration of historical buildings and conservation of natural resources.	Sethna and Richmond (1978), Sheldon and Var (1984), Liu, Sheldon and Var (1987), Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996).
2. Road and other facilities are kept at a higher standard.	Liu and Var (1986), Bystrzanowski (1989), Perdue, Long and Allen (1990), Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996), Wang and Miko (1997).
3. More parks and other recreational areas for swimming etc.	Liu and Var (1986), McCool and Martin (1994).
4. Preservation of the natural environment does not cause ecological decline.	Sethna and Richmond (1978), Belisle and Hoy (1980), Sheldon and Var (1984), Liu and Var (1986), Liu, Sheldon and Var (1987).

Besides creating positive environmental impacts from tourism, studies also identify the negative impacts. Such effects are unpleasantly crowded beaches, parks and picnics (Pizam, 1978; Rothman, 1978; Thomason, Crompton and Kamp, 1979; Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Var, Kendall and Tarakcioglu, 1985; Liu and Var, 1986; Akis, Peristianis and Warner, 1996) and traffic congestion (Pizam, 1978; Rothman, 1978; Brougham and Butler, 1981; Sheldon and Var, 1984; Tyrrell and Spaulding, 1984; Var, Kendall and Tarakcioglu, 1985; Liu and Var, 1986; Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987; Perdue, Long and Allen, 1990; Caneday and Zeiger, 1991; Kavallinis and Pizam, 1994; Akis, Peristianis and Warner, 1996).

Tourism can also degrade the natural environment by construction of hotels and other tourist facilities (Akis, Peristianis and Warner, 1996). In addition, a study by Wang and Miko (1997) has suggested that tourists disrupt the peace and tranquility of public parks and is one of the negative environmental impacts of tourism.

Furthermore, studies also find that tourism effects the environment by increasing noise pollution and litter (Pizam, 1978; Rothman, 1978, Caneday and Zeiger, 1991; Kavallinis and Pizam, 1994; Wang and Miko, 1997). A recent study in the Maldives and Nepal by Brown et.al (1997) also found that solid waste disposal and water resources are negative environmental impacts. Table 2.4 summarizes the negative environmental impacts of tourism as derived from the literature.

Developing tourism does not mean the environment has to be destroyed. In fact, based on the literature quoted, tourism development has caused some preservation and restoration of wildlife and natural flora and fauna. In order not to damage and destroy the environment, tourism planners and policy makers need to have strong support from local people. Local people have to understand that to allow development, the environment should not be damaged and destroyed at any cost. Tourism can only be developed without creating negative environmental impacts when there is support from local people.

Table 2.4 : Negative Environmental Impacts of Tourism**Derived from the Literature**

1. Tourism results in unpleasantly crowded beaches, parks, picnic areas.	Pizam (1978), Rothman (1978), Thomason, Crompton and Kamp (1979), Brougham and Butler (1981), Var, Kendall and Tarakcioglu (1985), Liu and Var (1986), Caneday and Zeiger (1991), Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996).
2. Add to traffic congestion.	Pizam (1978), Rothman (1978), Brougham and Butler (1981), Sheldon and Var (1984), Tyrrell and Spaulding (1984), Var, Kendall and Tarakcioglu (1985), Liu and Var (1986), Liu, Sheldon and Var (1987), Caneday and Zeiger (1991), Kavallinis and Pizam (1994), Perdue, Long and Allen (1990), Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996).
3. Construction of hotels and other tourist facilities has destroyed the natural environment.	Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996).
4. Tourist disrupt the peace and tranquility of public parks.	Wang and Miko (1997).
5. Increased noise pollution and litter.	Pizam (1978), Rothman (1978), Caneday and Zeiger (1991), Kavallinis and Pizam (1994), Wang and Miko (1997).

SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPACT OF TOURISM

The social and cultural impacts of tourism are defined as,

“the ways in which tourism is contributing to changes in value systems, individual behaviour, family relationships, collective life styles, safety levels, moral conduct, creative

expressions, traditional ceremonies and community organizations” (Fox, 1977:27).

Furthermore, Gartner (1996: 160) refers the social and cultural impacts of tourism as the changes to the social organization of a group of people as well as more fundamental reorganisation of a society’s culture. Since there are various definitions of what the social and cultural impacts of tourism really are, Wolf (1977: 3) defines it in simple terms as,

“the effects on the people of host communities of their direct and indirect associations with tourists”.

However, due to the diversity of culture existing in a country such as Malaysia, one can also look at both of the impacts as separate terms. The social impacts of tourism are more to the changes in the quality of life of residents of tourist destinations (Mathieson and Wall, 1993: 137) where else, the cultural impacts of tourism refer to the changes in culture which consists of traditional ideas and values (Singer, 1968: 528).

There are many ways of understanding the meaning of culture. Moghaddam, Taylor and Wright (1993 in Feldman, 1995:484) define culture as a subject created and shaped by people and at the same time it shapes people’s behaviour. Their definition of culture can simply be related to attitude. Another aspect where culture plays a strong role is in influencing people’s behaviour, it is seen as a typical subject which is associated with languages and political entities (Sabini, 1995:258).

In addition, Feldman (1995:485) defines culture as comprising the learned behaviours, beliefs and attitudes which are characteristics of an individual society or population. Furthermore, in an organisation body which can be related to the residents in a destination, culture is described as,

“ the dominant pattern of basic assumption, perceptions, thoughts, feelings and attitudes held by members on an organization” (Schein 1990 in Feldman, 1995:478).

In order to understand the relationship between tourism and culture, Dogan (1989) describes that ‘we need to recognise culture as internally differentiated, active and changing. We must also recognise that cultures are not passive, and must become sensitive to the cultural strategies people develop to limit, channel, and incorporate the effects of international tourism’.

Meanwhile, Mathieson and Wall (1993:158 & 159) define culture as, ‘patterns, norms, rules and standards which find expression in behaviour, social relations and artifacts’. Forms of culture are important as a base line for assessing the socio-cultural impacts in countries where culture is a main factor determining their ways of life and beliefs. The impacts can also be categorised by looking at the contact between hosts and tourists. This is normally known as the direct social and cultural impacts of tourism. There are three categories of such contact as describes by De Kadt (1979):

➤ The first one is when the tourists buy goods and services from the hosts:

-
- The second one is when the hosts and tourists share a facility such as beach, transport and restaurant; and
 - The third one is when tourists and hosts meet for cultural exchange.

The interaction between hosts and tourists is described theoretically in Doxey's Irridex Model (Doxey, 1975). According to Doxey, there are four stages of hosts' attitudes toward tourism development. In the first stage, known as 'euphoria', where tourism is only started to be developed, tourists are welcome by hosts. In the second stage, where tourism has already been developed, the hosts' attitudes are known as 'apathy'. In this stage, the hosts beginning to accept tourists and the interaction become more formal. Meanwhile, in the third stage, known as 'annoyance', the hosts start to feel annoy with tourists in the area and they begin to perceive tourism development negatively. Finally, in the last stage, known as 'antagonism', where tourism is successfully developed, both the tourists and tourism are being blamed for the all the troubles in the community.

In the case of Malaysia, a study in the State of Kedah (Mohd. Shariff et. al., 2000) notes that residents' attitudes toward tourism development has gone through all the stages in Doxey's Irridex Model. However, the findings need to be further clarified since the study has not taken into account the factors which may influence the attitudes. In fact, culture is also considered as one of the factors influencing residents' attitudes toward social and cultural impacts of tourism (Lickorish, 1991). Thus, Doxey's model has to be studied carefully before being fully accepted in determining residents' attitudes since there are many factors which may influence the attitudes.

In addition, Jafari (1989) has raised the issues of culture in tourism which are related to host, tourist, residual and transitional companies (Figure 2.4);

- A host culture can be described as one which possesses certain norms and standards directing daily life for members of the host society (Gartner, 1996:162). One can see that different host societies will have different cultures and the cultures, when encountered by tourists, sometimes can be changed. The changes will in fact change the host attitudes. In a case where the host culture is not strong, their attitudes toward the tourists may be changed in order to accept the tourist culture.

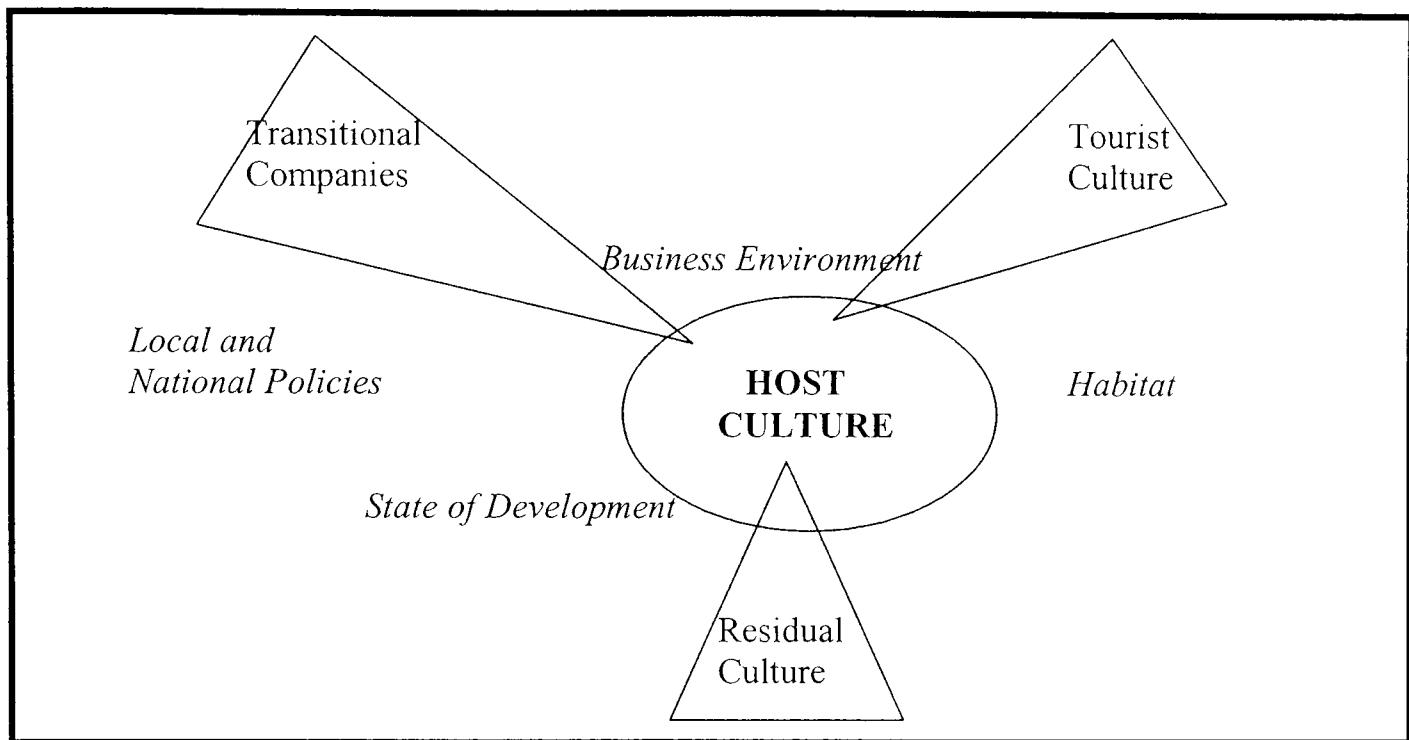
- Tourists cultures on the other hand, are formed by observing the behaviour of other tourists. In this case, a clash of cultures normally occurred between the tourists with other tourists and the host. The tourists cultures can cause negative attitudes for the host when their cultures are accepted as part of the host society. For example, if it is a culture for tourist to lie on a beach without wearing anything. However, it is not a culture in certain destinations especially for an Islamic destination. If that culture is accepted by the Islamic society, than negative reactions may occur and culture will have changed.

- Residual culture consists of the norms and standards operational in the tourist's ordinary life which may not be totally rejected when he/she becomes a member of the tourist culture (Gartner, 1996:163). A residual culture means an individual's

culture and this culture is within one self no matter what he/she does or goes. The conflict of attitudes will occur when the residual cultures are rejected in order to accept the host or tourist cultures. In fact, this will create negative attitudes.

- Transitional companies are companies which direct the flow of tourists to an area (Jafari, 1989). These companies are involved in promoting and encouraging tourism and tourist culture. In addition, the companies also make up different cultures of their own which on the other hand may affect the host culture. In fact, the companies can control the type of activities in the host destination through promotion. The companies' cultures can influence not just the host attitude but also the tourist attitude towards each other.

Figure 2.4 : Compounded Cultural and Operational Forces



Source: Jafari (1989 in Gartner, 1996:167)

The relationship between attitude and culture has been found in several studies on residents' attitudes toward tourism impacts (Haukeland: 1984, Sheldon and Var: 1984). It is confirmed that a person's attitude towards a certain object can be determined by his/her culture. In fact one cannot argue or say that the attitude of the person is wrong basically because it is based on his/her culture. This is discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

Islamic countries are very particular about this matter because they believe that activities such as prostitution, gambling and drinking alcohol are tourists' cultures which have invaded the Muslims' culture. In fact, tourism impacts on the society and culture are caused mostly by the difference in culture between regions even within the same

country. These have sometimes brought problems such as prostitution, drugs, gambling and vandalism (Archer and Cooper, 1998).

The issues of social impacts of tourism appear to be more problematic in the Malaysian community where social impacts are found to be related to values, ethics and religion while the cultural impacts are related to the artistic and craft aspects (Din, 1982). In fact, in a recent study, Kayat (2000) finds that residents' general values such as religion, culture and environment have more direct influence on the evaluation of the social impacts of tourism in Langkawi, Malaysia.

The importance of culture in determining attitudes toward tourism leads to the understanding of the concept 'globalisation'. In addition, according to Harrison (2001:8), tourism is both a feature of and a cause of globalisation. Since there exists a set of values across a range of countries which raise difficulty in determining attitudes toward tourism, such a concept or theory needs to be applied in order to achieve a sustainable tourism development. In fact, it has been noted that the economic and political relations between nations and regions are increasingly framed by 'cultural convergence' (Burns and Holden, 1995:75). In studying the socio-cultural impacts, Gartner (1996) suggests that culture shock, relocation, displacement and dependency are the main social and cultural impacts of tourism. He also suggests that the benefits would be peace and understanding, cultural pride and education. One of the major positive outcomes of the social impacts noted in the literature is improvements in the quality of life (Pizam, 1978; Allen et. al, 1988; Milman and Pizam, 1988; Bystrzanowski, 1989;

Perdue, Long and Allen, 1990; King, Pizam and Milman, 1993; McCool and Martin, 1994).

Increases in recreation facilities are also noted as positive outcomes from the social impacts of tourism (Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Sheldon and Var, 1984; Liu and Var, 1986; Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987; Pizam, 1988; Ross, 1992; Akis, Peristianis and Warner, 1996). Other positive outcomes of the social impacts are improvements in quality of fire protection (Pizam, 1978; Milman and Pizam, 1988) and improvements on quality of police protection (Pizam, 1978). Recent studies, however, come out with new positive outcomes of social impacts which are, that meeting tourists from all over the world is a valuable experience (Akis, Peristianis and Warner, 1996), courtesy and hospitality towards strangers (King, Pizam and Milman, 1993; Haralambopoulos and Pizam, 1996) and mutual confidence among people (King, Pizam and Milman, 1993).

Besides the positive outcomes of the social impacts of tourism, studies also identify several positive outcomes which can be classified as the cultural impacts of tourism. Such outcomes are the improvement of the community's image and culture (Pizam, 1978; Sheldon and Var, 1984; Liu and Var, 1986; Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987; Milman and Pizam, 1988) and promotion of cultural exchange (Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Brougham and Butler, 1981; Sheldon and Var, 1984; Liu and Var, 1986; Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987).

Furthermore, studies also find that increased demand for historical and cultural exhibits (Liu and Var, 1986; McCool and Martin, 1994), preservation of cultural identity of host

population (Liu and Var, 1986) and facilitation on meeting visitors (Sheldon and Var, 1984; Liu and Var, 1986; Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987) as positive outcomes from cultural impacts of tourism. The positive outcomes from both the social and cultural impacts of tourism are summarised in Table 2.5.

No matter how many studies have focused on the positive outcomes of the social and cultural impacts of tourism, there are still studies that stress the negative social and cultural impacts. A major impact which one is already aware of, is prostitution. This effect has been identified by studies from Belisle and Hoy (1980), Liu and Var (1986), Liu, Sheldon and Var (1987) and Opperman and Kye-Sung (1997).

Besides prostitution, alcoholism (Pizam, 1978; Milman and Pizam, 1988), drug addiction (King, Pizam and Milman, 1993; Haralambopoulos and Pizam, 1996), smuggling/crime (Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Milman and Pizam, 1988; Haralambopoulos and Pizam, 1996), and hectic community and personal life (Rothman, 1978) have also increased due to tourism. In addition, studies also find that changes in traditional culture (Akis, Peristianis and Warner, 1996), creation of a phony folk culture (Brougham and Butler, 1981) and heightened tension among the host population (Rothman, 1978) as negative outcomes which derive from the social and cultural impacts of tourism. Table 2.6 summarises the negative outcomes from the social and cultural impacts of tourism.

Table 2.5 : Positive Social and Cultural Impacts of Tourism**Derived from the Literature**

1. Improves the quality of life.	Pizam (1978), Allen et al (1988), Milman and Pizam (1988), Bystrzanowski (1989), Perdue, Long and Allen (1990), King, Pizam and Milman (1993), McCool and Martin (1994).
2. Increases recreational facilities.	Pizam (1978), Belisle and Hoy (1980), Sheldon and Var (1984), Liu and Var (1986), Liu, Sheldon and Var (1987), Ross (1992), Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996).
3. Improves community image and culture.	Pizam (1978), Sheldon and Var (1984), Liu and Var (1986), Liu, Sheldon and Var (1987), Milman and Pizam (1988).
4. Promotes cultural exchange.	Belisle and Hoy (1980), Brougham and Butler (1981), Sheldon and Var (1984), Liu and Var (1986), Liu, Sheldon and Var (1987), Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996).
5. Facilitates meeting visitors.	Sheldon and Var (1984), Liu and Var (1986), Liu, Sheldon and Var (1987).
6. Improves quality of fire protection.	Pizam (1978), Milman and Pizam (1988).
7. Increases demand for historical and cultural exhibits.	Liu and Var (1986), McCool and Martin (1994).
8. Courtesy and hospitality towards strangers.	King, Pizam and Milman (1993), Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996).
9. Meeting tourist from all over the world is a valuable experience.	Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996).
10. Mutual confidence among people.	King, Pizam and Milman (1993).
11. Preservation of cultural identity of host population.	Liu and Var (1986).
12. Improves quality of police protection.	Pizam (1978).

Table 2.6 : Negative Social and Cultural Impacts of Tourism**Derived from the Literature**

1. Prostitution.	Belisle and Hoy (1980), Liu and Var (1986), Liu, Sheldon and Var (1987), Opperman and Kye-Sung (1997).
2. Alcoholism.	Pizam (1978), Milman and Pizam (1988).
3. Smuggling/crime.	Belisle and Hoy (1980), Milman and Pizam (1988), King, Pizam and Milman (1993), Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996).
4. Drug addition.	King, Pizam and Milman (1993), Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996).
5. Changes in traditional culture.	Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996).
6. Increased in hectic community and personal life.	Rothman (1978).
7. Creation of a phony folk culture.	Brougham and Butler (1981).
8. Heightened tension.	Rothman (1978).

It is a fact that studies on impacts of tourism are important in determining residents' attitudes. For those who benefit from tourism development, the impact is perceived as positive, otherwise, it is perceived as negative. Since tourism is a major source of employment both directly and indirectly in Malaysia, it is therefore being perceived as a positive impact (Wells, 1982). For example, in the State of Kedah, Malaysia, residents

are found to perceive tourism development positively. This is due to the positive environmental impacts of tourism on the destination (Mohd Shariff et. al., 2000).

This, in another way indicates that community involvement is important in order to determine the progress of tourism planning. In fact, community involvement in the planning and implementation of tourism development has been recognized in several studies (Butler, 1974; Murphy, 1980; Kendall and Var, 1984; Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987). This aspect could also determine the sustainability of tourism in the area. Besides community involvement, several concepts also need to be applied in order to balance tourism growth with sustainability. For example, the carrying capacity concept needs to be given serious attention in order to make sure that the levels of tourism development in the tourism life cycle stage did not exceed the elements of capacity. The balance of having hosts and tourists in the same area need to be controlled so that tourism growth will not lead to negative impacts.

In the case of Malaysia, the community involvement in tourism planning has started to play an important role in order to ensure long-term acceptance and social sustainability of the industry (Din, 1997:116). In addition, sustainable tourism requires a comprehensive approach to include economic, environmental and socio-cultural aspects related to the community. In fact, Waters (1995) suggests that globalised tourism reflects tourists' perceptions of the world. Thus, the benefits could be share between both the hosts and tourists.

IMPACTS OF TOURISM : THE ISLAMIC PERSPECTIVE

In the Islamic perspective, tourism is viewed as the goal of submission to the ways of God (Graburn, 1977). It is seen as travelling from one place to another to fulfill God's will. In Islam, Muslims are encouraged to travel in order to strengthen relationships among Muslims, this is known as "*silaturrahim*". In the Holy Quran itself, the need for Muslims to travel is mentioned in several "*Surah*". Such examples where God urges people to travel are found in "*Surah Al-An-Aam*"(11), "*Surah Ali 'Imran*"(137), "*Surah An-Nahl*" (36), "*Surah An-Naml*" (69), "*Surah Ar-Rum*" (42), "*Surah Muhammad s.a.w.*" (10) and "*Surah Yusuf*" (109).

Travel, in Islam is seen as,

"Spiritually purposeful to make Muslims aware of the greatness of God, through observing the signs of history and natural and manmade wonders all of which are gifts of God" (Din, 1989).

However, the main reason for Muslims to travel is to perform "*hajj*" (pilgrimage to Mecca) and this is where tourism begins in Islam (Holy Quran, "*Surah Al-Baqarah*":196). Besides referring it to the Holy Quran, in the Islamic perspective itself, tourism is defined in various ways. Din (1989) for example, refers to tourism in Islam as a trying task which subjects individuals to the tests of patience and perseverance.

Nowadays, tourism has grown rapidly in Islamic countries such as Morocco, Turkey, Egypt, Maldives and Malaysia. The local adaptation of tourism in the Islamic countries, however, is found to be related in three aspects:

- tourism in some destinations is discouraged, for example, Libya,
- tourism for example in Maldives and Saudi Arabia, is isolated from the host community, and,
- tourism is treated with a *laissez faire* attitude and this can be seen in Malaysia, Indonesia and Egypt.

It is a fact that the growth of tourism has even created such effects on the economy, environment and socio-cultural aspects of the Islamic countries. For example, in Malaysia, the economic impacts of tourism are seen positively since it contributes on job opportunities and increases the residents' standard of living. However, in the environmental and socio-cultural aspects, tourism is seen negatively as it destroys the 'green' environment and encourages the imitation of Western culture (Din, 1997:106). As a matter of fact, in countries such as Indonesia and Egypt where prostitution, gambling, alcoholism and drug abuse have already existed, the development of tourism has been blamed for making the problems worse.

The Muslim attitudes toward tourism depends on the degree to which Islam influences their lives. Even though in the Holy Quran, it is stated that a Muslim is forbidden to drink alcohol, gamble and engage in prostitution, attitudes can vary between one person and even between countries. This is a fact where one can see that even among Muslims,

the religion and beliefs are not being practiced. According to Din (1989), this is because the position taken by Islamic societies ranges from discouragement through to isolation, accommodation and *laissez faire*.

Islam, however, encourages good relationships between the hosts and the travellers. The hosts are asked to be polite and to accept travellers even though they are not invited. This is important in Islam, as Prophet Muhammad s.a.w. says,

“If you stay with some people and they entertain you as they should for a guest, accept their hospitality, but if they do not do it, take the right of the guest from them”.

The differences in culture, beliefs and values between the Muslims as hosts and the foreigners as travellers have created some negative effects on the community. The questions of how to develop sustainable tourism without having to bring up the issues of prostitution, gambling and alcohol as negative impacts of tourism are becoming important to Islamic countries. In order to achieve sustainable tourism, the negative impacts need to be recognized and managed (Lindberg et.al, 1997).

Thus, some Islamic countries have to enforce policies and regulations in order to avoid negative impacts. For example, in Egypt, gambling is opened to foreigners but not to the Egyptians. Another example can be seen in the State of Terengganu, Malaysia, which is ruled by the Islamic Party. In order to control the tourists, but at the same time to increase demand for tourism in the area, the government has warned the foreign tourists

to be more sensitive to the local culture. In addition, only eight outlets in the whole state have been authorised to sell alcohol to both the local Chinese community and tourists (Harrison, 2000). In fact, according to Adam (1984), in some areas of Indonesia, input for tourism policies are solicited from ideas of religious groups.

For Malaysia, as an Islamic country, the more tourism is developed, the more its impacts are seen as negative. Even wearing bikinis on the beach and kissing in public places are considered as negative impacts by Muslims. Since tourism is one of the industries which plays important role in the economy of the country, Malaysia faces a conflict between balancing sustainable tourism and the Muslims' beliefs and cultures. And as tourism needs to be sustained, the three main criteria; economic, social and bio sustainability need to be achieved (Tisdell and Wen, 1997).

As tourism continues to grow in the Islamic countries, studies of how Muslims attitudes are toward the tourists need to be conducted. It is not wrong for Muslims to share what they believe to be their correct way of life with the tourists. Such studies could create good environmental impacts which can be shared by both parties. In fact, according to Din (1997), the tourism industry is capable of developing certain rallying points which may serve to enhance the shared values among various ethnic groups, such as sanitation and cleanliness, love of nature, cultural tolerance of others and a hospitable attitude to travellers.

The concept of globalisation in tourism actually has occurred in Malaysia. In a case study of university students in Malaysia, it was found that majority of respondents regardless of their religion, agree that tourism as a whole, benefits them and the country (Omar, 1996). In another way, the study indicates that even though there exists different cultural backgrounds, the respondents share a global culture of values and beliefs. In a study regarding tourism and Islam, Horsfall (1996) suggests that in order for tourism to develop, the government need to banish the perception of tourism as a threat to Islamic cultural values. Thus, if the globalisation concept is being applied, this action does not need to be taken. In order to remove this negative perception, more studies on residents' attitudes toward impacts of tourism need to be conducted. As stressed by Brohman (1996), for tourism to begin contributing to the social, political and economic goals of development, institutional mechanisms need to be put in place to facilitate the participation of local residents in tourism planning. Thus, the results need to be taken seriously not just by the government but also by all the parties involved in the tourism industry.

CONCLUSION

This chapter describes the major impacts of tourism on the economy, environment and society. These impacts on a community's life have become an important issue. Studies on the impacts of tourism upon the country's economic structure have found several significant effects such as increased in national income and job opportunities which contribute positively to a country's economy.

In addition, effects on the environment are more negative rather than positive. Studies seem to find that impacts on the environment such as air and water pollution are important issues which need to be taken into consideration during the planning process in order to develop a “green” and sustainable tourism. However, the socio-cultural aspects are found to create several positive effects to the community. Preservation of historical buildings, exchange of culture and increased recreational areas and facilities have contributed in developing tourism to some countries.

As for the Islamic countries, tourism is found to have created more positive impacts on the economic structure and the environment. However, the socio-cultural impacts of tourism are seen negatively and tourism is blamed for its effects on the community’s life. Such effects are prostitution and gambling which are considered as “*haram*” (wrong attitudes) for Muslims. Even though these impacts have been studied quite repeatedly, there is still one aspect that needs to be taken into consideration when preparing the development planning process - the local residents’ attitudes and their participation in the planning process. It is also an important aspect in order to avoid some negative economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism.

CHAPTER 3

TOURISM IN MALAYSIA

INTRODUCTION

Since this study is focusing on Langkawi, Malaysia, it is important to understand the country. Today, the tourism industry in Malaysia is expanding quite rapidly as in other developing countries. Besides the economic, environmental and the social impacts of tourism on the residents' life, the growth of tourism in Malaysia has also led to sports tourism such as the World Amateur Inter-team Golf Championship and the Sepang Moto Grand Prix.

This chapter presents Malaysia in two sections. The first section generally describes the background to Malaysia. The physical and historical profile of Malaysia is presented as an introduction to the country. Since it has a diversity of culture, one part of the section concerns the Malaysian society, culture and religion. The second section presents tourism in Malaysia. Several aspects are covered such as the tourist attractions; accommodation and transportation; the government policy and its role in managing and marketing tourism; investment in tourism; the effects of the currency crisis on the

tourism industry and tourism growth. The two sections are then summarised as a conclusion to the chapter.

BACKGROUND TO MALAYSIA

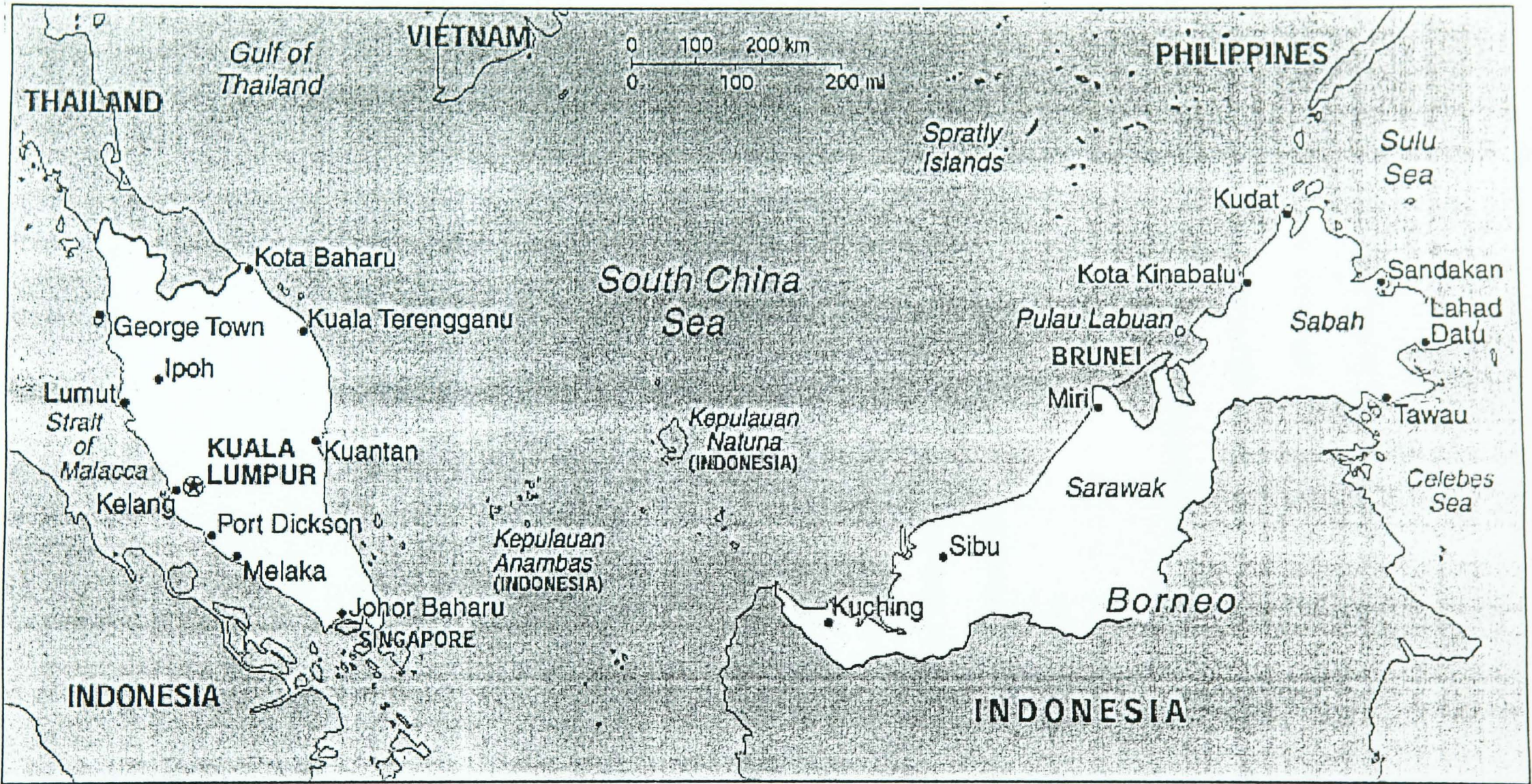
Physical Profile

As an extremely large country, Malaysia covers a land area of 329,758 square kilometers. The country comprises of Peninsular Malaysia which consists of 11 states; Perlis, Kedah, Penang, Perak, Selangor, Negeri Sembilan, Melacca, Johore, Pahang, Kelantan and Terengganu. Meanwhile, Sabah and Sarawak are situated in East Malaysia, on the Island of Borneo (Figure 3.1: Map of Malaysia).

Being a thriving, cosmopolitan country, Malaysia is mostly covered by tropical rain forest. The eastern part of the Peninsular Malaysia is separating from the western part by a mountainous spine known as the “*Banjaran Titiwangsa*”. As a tropical country, the average temperature of Malaysia is 26 degree C throughout the year. However, due to a variation in temperature and rainfall, several parts of the country have a mild temperature of 18 degree C up to 27 degree C.

Historically known as ‘*The British East Indies*’ and ‘*The Fabled Spice Islands of The East*’, Malaysia, a multi-racial society with a multi-ethnic character has a population of over 20 million. Malaysia is a nation of diversity in unity where it consists of three main

Figure 3.1: Map of Malaysia



ethnic groups; the Malays, the Chinese and the Indians. Being a multi-cultural nation, it also includes the indigenous people of Sabah and Sarawak, Eurasians, Arabs and Europeans.

Historical Profile

The historical development of the inhabitants in Malaysia started over 5000 years ago. In the early years, Malaysia inhabitants were known as the “*Orang Asli*” or “*Melayu Proto*”. They were the pioneers of the movement of peoples and were living a largely nomadic way of life. Some of the well-known “*Orang Asli*” in Malaysia are, Jakun, Temuan, Semelai, “*Orang Laut*”, Negrito and Senoi.

The Malays or “*Melayu*” were the next movements of peoples after “*Orang Asli*”. They were the ones who gave rise to the complex and variegated ethnic pattern of Malaysia today. However, in historical and socio-cultural terms, “*Melayu*” are not just defined as peoples of Malaysia, but also as Javanese, Minangkabau, Aceh and Banjar. The Malays and the “*Orang Asli*” made up the peoples of Malaysia which are known today as the Bumiputera.

In the 1st century B.C., the Hindu and Buddhist cultures established a major impact on Malaysia’s history. These cultures were brought by Hindu and Buddhist traders. During this period, the peoples of Malaysia were influenced by the language, literature and social customs of the Hindus and Buddhists. In fact, today, the social customs of Hindus

can still be seen in certain Malays' cultures such as "*bersanding*" and "*berinai*", which are practiced in the Malay marriage ceremony.

In the early 13th century, Arab traders had brought Islam into Malaysia. This ended the Hindu-Buddhist influences in Malaysian history. Islam has dominated most parts of the peninsular and affected the Malays' way of life and culture. Islam has also affected the Malays language, art and education. In fact, Melacca was first ruled using the Islamic system. As stated in the Malaysian Federal Constitution, Section 3(1), "Islam is the religion for the Federation". Thus, today, Malaysia is known to all over the world as an Islamic country.

The Europeans started to influence the Malays culture beginning in 1511 when Melacca fell to Portugese assault, followed by Holland in 1641, and then in 1786, when the British invaded Penang. The Europeans not only influenced the Malays' way of life but mostly the process of the political integration of Malaysia. In fact, in the Pangkor Agreement of 1874 , it was stated that, in all matters concerning the country, except for matters concerning Islam, the *Sultan* was advised by the Resident. The Europeans' influences ended in 1941 when the Japanese invaded Malaysia. This started a new element of culture into the Malay way of life and changed the political and economic situation.

In 1945, once again, Malaysia fell to British assault and the latter formed a British Military Administration (BMA). BMA was only a temporary administration by the

British. The purpose of BMA was to establish a Malayan Union and it was formed in 1946. The Malays, however, did not support the Malayan Union. They believed that the British had forced “*Raja-Raja Melayu*” (The Malay Kings) to sign the agreement for the establishment of the Malayan Union, and that “*Raja-Raja Melayu*” did not have any power to rule under the administration of the Malayan Union. The Malays were also worried that their rights would be affected. Thus, UMNO (United Malays National Organization) was formed to fight for the Malays. In 1948, the Malayan Union failed and was replaced by a Federation of Malaya. The Malays had gained back their rights and “*Raja-Raja Melayu*” were given back their power.

In 1956, head by Tunku Abdul Rahman, 8 Malaysians’ representatives went to London to discuss Malaysia’s independence. Malaysia was granted its sovereignty on 31st August 1957 when UMNO (United Malays National Organization)-MCA (Malaysian Chinese Association)-MIC (Malaysian Indian Cooperation) Alliance succeeded in pressuring the British for independence. The idea for the formation of Malaysia came in 1961 in Singapore. Malaysia, at last, was formally promulgated in 1963 and comprised of the Federation of Malaya, Singapore and the Kalimantan States.

Society, Culture and Religion

Malaysians fall into two main groups:

- ***The Bumiputera*** - whose cultural affinities are indigenous to the region and to one another. They also share a common racial background and culture. Most of all, they

share the same religion and the bond of Islam. The Malays, Javanese, Minangkabaus, Ibans, Melanaus and “*Orangs Dusun*” are considered as the Bumiputera.

- ***The Non-Bumiputera*** – whose cultural affinities lie outside the region. Most of them keep to their traditional animistic beliefs and values. The Chinese and the Indians are the two majority groups of non-Bumiputera. There are various categories of the Chinese such as the Hokkiens, Cantonese and Hakkas where else the Indians are the Tamils, Sikhs, Ceylonese and Bengalis.

Since Malaysia is a multi-racial country, various cultures have developed and influenced the people’s way of life. Today, Malaysian culture is a healthy mix of five cultures; its own indigenous culture, Islamic, Chinese, Indian and Western cultures (Syed Amir, 1991:8). Even though these cultures are different in many ways, they are known as the Malaysian culture which represents the national culture.

The Malays culture is based on the Islamic way of life. As Muslims, the Malays have numerous festivals. For example, “*Hari Raya Puasa*” is a special occasion for Muslim when their fasting and abstinence for a month is fulfilled. The Muslims also celebrate “*Hari Raya Haji*”, “*Israk Mikraj*”, “*Maal Hijrah*” and Prophet Muhammad’s Birthday.

The Malay cuisine reflects the traditional values of the Malays such as “*nasi lemak*” which is served in a banana leaf, “*laksa*” which is famous especially in Kedah, Penang

and Johore, “*sate*” which is believed to be brought along by the early Arab traders and “*rojak*”, a salad which is served as a meal.

Most of the Malays traditional games and pastimes evolved during breaks in the agricultural calendar (MTPB. Malaysian Culture, 1991:18). Such games and pastimes which have become popular sports among the Malays are “*gasing*”, kite-flying, “*wayang kulit*” and “*sepak takraw*”. The traditional Malay costumes such as “*baju kurung*”, “*baju cekak musang*” and “*baju Kedah*” are part and parcel of Malaysia’s cultural heritage.

The Chinese, however, celebrate Chinese New Year with festivals such as dragon dances, acrobats, lion dances and stilt walkers. “*Chap Goh Mei*” is also celebrated by the Chinese on the 15th day after the Chinese New Year. It is the day which marks the end of the Chinese New Year celebrations. The Chinese popular dishes are chicken rice which is rice with roasted chicken, “*Wan tan mee*” (soya noodle with prawn, roast pork and vegetables) and “*Bubur cha-cha*” which is a desert with sweet potato and jelly.

The lion dance is one of the Chinese events besides the “*Chingay*”. “*Taici*” is another integral aspect of the Chinese way of living and promotion of good health (MTPB, Malaysian Culture, 1991:38). The well-known Chinese costume is known as “*Chongsam*” and it is worn by the Chinese women.

A variety of cultural values and beliefs of the Indians have created many Hindu Gods such as “*Brahma*”, “*Vishnu*” and “*Shiva*”. The Indians celebrate “*Thaipusam*”, a festival for the atonement of sins where they carry “*Kavadis*” and self-mortify their bodies with skewers, hooks and other forms of punishment. The main festival where the Indians decorate their houses with lights is called “*Deepavali*”.

The Indian cuisine is easily identified by the manner in which it is served. Most of the Indian dishes are hot and spicy. The popular Indian foods are “*nasi briyani*”, “*roti canai*”, “*murtabak*” and tandoori chicken. The Indian wear “*Saree*” as their traditional costumes.

As for its religion, the Constitution has accepted Islam as the official religion of Malaysia. However, every person is given a right to profess and practice his own religion such as Hindu and Buddhist. Under the provisions for the freedom of religion, the Constitution states the following:

- That no person may be compelled to pay any tax, the proceeds of which are allocated in whole or part of the purpose of any religion other than his own; and,
- That every religious group has the right to manage its own religious affairs, to establish and maintain institutions for religious and charitable purposes and to acquire and hold property, and administer its in accordance with the law.

TOURISM IN MALAYSIA

Tourist Attractions, Accommodation and Transportation

Tourist attraction is ultimately subjective and may differ among visitors from different geographic regions. Malaysia, however, offers a range of attractions to suit all tastes. In fact, in his study, Hofman (1979) noted that Peninsular Malaysia has five prime tourist attractions; recreation, food, excursions, multi-ethnic people and shopping. Traditional fine old cities can be found in Melacca, Johore, Penang and Kedah. Furthermore, tourists can also enjoy endless white sandy beaches in Langkawi, Terengganu, Pangkor and Tioman.

According to Gearing, Swart and Var (1974), tourist attractions can be categorised into five factors and in the case of Malaysia, the examples are:

- Natural factors which involve the natural beauty and climate. These are more likely to be seen in Langkawi, Penang, Sabah and the National Park in Pahang.
- Social factors which involve artistic and architectural features, festivals, distinctive local features, fairs and exhibits and attitudes towards tourists. These attractions can be seen in the temple sites of Lembah Bujang and Kuala Merbok in Kedah.

-
- Historical factors which involve an ancient ruin, religious significance and historical prominence. Malaysia offers these attractions in areas such as Melacca and Langkawi.

 - Recreational and shopping which can include facilities for sport, education, health, rest and tranquility, night time recreation and shopping. Kuala Lumpur, Ipoh and Penang are the destinations which provide such attractions to tourists.

 - Infrastructure, food and shelter which involve infrastructure above 'minimal' touristic quality, food and lodging facilities above 'minimal' touristic quality. These attractions can be seen in many destinations in Malaysia which promote tourism such as Langkawi, Penang and Kuala Lumpur.

Malaysia also offers various types of accommodation. Such accommodation in the informal sector are "*kampung*" or village-based which is famous in Kuantan, and mini camps which are located in Pangkor. The hotel sector had introduced luxury class accommodation in Malaysia beginning in the early 1980s. Such luxury well-known hotels at that time were Regent and Holiday Inn. During that period, most of the hotels were located in Kuala Lumpur, Penang and Johore Baharu. In the 1990s, demand for hotel accommodation had increased with a total of 90,652 rooms at the end of 1995 (MTPB, 1996). The development of budget class hotels had increased resulting from more demand especially from the domestic market. In addition, there had also been more demand from foreign markets such as China.

Due to the government's initiative in promoting and marketing the tourism industry, there were increases in the hotel sector's tourist receipts and visitors 1998 – 1999 (Tourism Malaysia Statistical Report, 2000; Table 3.1). The hotel industry in Malaysia received RM3,893.5 million of tourist receipts in 1999 compared to RM2,968.8 million in 1998, which was about a 31.1% increase. Furthermore, it also received 10,339,913 visitors in 1999 compared to 9,891,682 visitors in 1998, an increase of 4.5%. With high technology and with more business conferences and conventions in hotels, the tourist expenditure in the hotels sectors had in fact increased by 32.8% for the year 2000.

Table 3.1: Tourist Receipts and Visitors for the Hotel Sector in Malaysia

Year	Tourist Receipts (RM Million)	Visitors
1998	2,968.8	9,891,682
1999	3,893.5	10,339,913

Source: Tourism Malaysia Statistical Report, 2000

The increased number of tourist arrivals was also due to the accessibility and availability of transportation facilities. During the 1960s, the government had not given serious attention to the transportation facilities in Malaysia. In fact, there was only one

international airport and it had to compete with the more established airports such as in Singapore and Bangkok. In accordance to the allocation in the Third Malaysia Plan (1976-1980), the government had taken an initiative by establishing five international airports which were in Subang, Penang, Senai, Kuching and Kota Kinabalu. The establishment of these airports had facilitated more tourist arrivals in Malaysia.

Air transport has become an important type of transportation for the international tourist.

The Malaysian Airline System (MAS), had been formed as the national flag carrier, and today, has become the main air carrier which plays a major role in increasing the total number of international tourist arrivals. Besides MAS, the government had also formed other air transport services such as Pelangi Air and Mofaz Air. In order to facilitate the demand for both national and international tourism, in the last couple of years, MAS has expanded its routes to Johannesburg, Mexico City, South Africa, Rome and recently to India and China.

The transportation sector in Malaysia had received RM1,170.5 million of tourist receipts in 1999 compared to RM557.7 million in 1998 (Tourism Malaysia Statistical Report, 2000). The 109.9% increase was due to the accessibility and availability of transportation facilities which has supported tourism development. Besides providing faster and easier access to tourist destinations, the rapid improvements of the transportation system in Malaysia have also facilitated the increase in domestic tourism.

Government Policy and Its Role in Tourism

Government policy on tourism was generally stated in the New Economic Policy (NEP) 1970. The main purpose of the NEP was to foster national unity among various races, thus, to promote growth with equity. Since the growth of the tourism industry during the 1970s was commendable with the number of tourist arrivals about 1,224,815 visitors in 1976 (Din, 1982), the government had emphasized on providing Bumiputeras opportunities to participate in the tourism sector. This was stated under the NEP, in the Third Malaysia Plan (1976-1980), and was implemented by the Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (MTPB).

The NEP had succeeded in promoting the Bumiputeras' interest in the tourism industry. This was stated in the Third Malaysia Plan where the Bumiputeras participation in tourism had reached up to 30% (Din, 1982). In addition, a total of 14,800 jobs in the hotel industry were taken by the bumiputeras (Fourth Malaysia Plan, 1981). However, to ensure that Bumiputera entrepreneurs have easy access to sources of financing in the tourism sectors, the government still needed to implement a clear, and comprehensive policy in the NEP (Othman, 1998).

Besides MTPB, the government has also set up a policy in relation to domestic tourism. This policy is implemented by the Federal Government in each state. As stated in the Malaysia Tourism Policy Study (MOCAT, undated), the Federal Government is responsible to:

-
- create additional tourism products geared to the needs of the domestic tourism market;
 - develop additional budget and mid-range tourist accommodation;
 - improve and upgrade existing accommodation facilities;
 - develop tourist accommodation to stimulate domestic tourism;
 - create local products and handicrafts;
 - encourage transportation facilities;
 - encourage events including cultural, artistic, entertainment, sport and leisure;
 - promote domestic tourism throughout the country, and,
 - encourage foreign visitors' inflows.

In order to implement the policy, the Federal Government must first take into consideration the broader objective of the NEP and the specific objective of the MTPB on tourism. Today, the Federal Government of several states has succeeded in promoting tourism. These can be seen in festivals such as "*Bulan Pesta Air 2001*" in Perlis and Perak, and Mega Sales Carnivals which were organized in March, August and December 2000.

In the Eighth Malaysia Plan 2001-2005, the government states that the overall policy of the tourism sector is to attain rapid tourism growth on a sustainable basis. The tourism development strategies are as follows:

- emphasising sustainable tourism development;
- focusing on a holistic and integrated approach to tourism development;

-
- projecting Malaysia as a fascinating destination with year-round carnival atmosphere;
 - engaging in customer-focused product development and promotions;
 - enhancing human resource development;
 - facilitating and increasing accessibility;
 - ensuring the comfort, safety and security of tourists; and,
 - forging strategic alliances and enhancing international cooperation.

The tourism policy in Malaysia is introduced in line with the purpose of its' planning.

Tourism, in Malaysia, was planned in such way as,

'.....to provide a basis upon which Malaysia may develop tourist potentials in an orderly and balanced manner within the framework of the national development plan and the New Economic Policy' (MTPB, 1975:4).

At first, the government had planned three principal gateways or entry points as tourism destinations in Malaysia. They were divided into three main regions; North, Middle and South of Malaysia. The entry points were Penang, Kuala Lumpur and Johore Bharu. As demand for tourism increased, more entry points had been facilitated by the government. They were based on the geographical regions; Penang-Langkawi, Perak, Kuala Lumpur-Melacca, Johore Bharu, Kuantan, Kota Bharu-Kuala Terengganu, Sabah and Sarawak.

As a financial agency for the local states, the government plays an important role in developing tourism. It also plays a role as an entrepreneur and guarantor to foreign investment (Jenkins, 1994). In fact, according to Dogan (1989), the attitudes of the governing political group are important in determining the formal efforts to cope with the results of tourism, and in order for residents to take a more friendly attitude toward tourists, the government should undertake more campaigns.

In Malaysia, the government had taken the initiative in undertaking campaigns to promote tourism both domestic and international. Such campaigns were Visit Malaysia Year, Buy Malaysian Product, Colours of Malaysia, *Merdeka* Celebration, Mega Sales Carnival, Malaysia Centennial towards a New Millennium, "*Cuti-Cuti Malaysia*" and "*Balik Kampung*". In fact, the government had also played host to international events such as Langkawi International Maritime and Aerospace (LIMA), the 16th Commonwealth Games, World Amateur Inter-team Golf Championship and the latest one, the Sepang Moto Grand Prix.

Besides the MTPB, the roles of the government can also be seen through many organisations such as the Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism, the National Museum Department and the National Art Gallery. However, the two most important parties in developing tourism are the Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism and the MTPB.

1. The Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism (MOCAT).

In 1987, the government formed the Ministry of Culture and Tourism for the purpose of promoting tourism. In 1990, it was expanded to the Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism or normally known as MOCAT. Through MOCAT, the main objective is,

‘to expand and diversify the tourism base, and to reduce the country’s dependency on a narrow range of activities and markets’.

MOCAT is responsible for:

- assisting the states to create and promote distinctive identities so as to be more attractive to domestic tourists, and,
- encouraging states to promote their tourist attractions and destinations and assist through joint promotions and the provision of promotional expertise at the state level.

2. The Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (MTPB).

Financed by the government, under MOCAT, the Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (MTPB) or formally known as Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia (TDC) has several responsibilities in order to encourage tourism growth in Malaysia. The responsibilities are;

- to implement the tourism policy,
- to promote tourism overseas,
- to develop, coordinate and improve the facilities and amenities, and,

➤ to promote tourism work and publicity in Malaysia.

In its efforts to coordinate, develop and promote tourism, the MTPB main objective is,

'to market Malaysia as a top destination and to make the tourism industry a major contributor to the nation's socio-economic development'.

The MTPB is also given power by the government to provide financial assistance and participate to in tourist projects. Today, the MTPB has several branches outside Malaysia which were opened since the early 1990s. Such branches of MTPB can be found in London, Sweden, Amsterdam, Italy and South Korea. In some countries where the MTPB has no permanent office, it is presented by the Malaysian Airline System (MAS). In order to position Malaysia as a top tourist destination, the theme "Malaysia Truly Asia" was launched. In addition, MTPB had set up four new Tourism Malaysia offices in 2000 which are in Dubai, Jeddah, New Delhi and Phuket.

Investment in Tourism

In the early years, the investments made by the government in the Malaysian tourism sectors were more concentrated in beach resorts. Thus, destinations such as Langkawi, Tioman and Pangkor had benefited from this trend. In the Third and Fourth Malaysia Plan, 1976-1985, the government had allocated RM7.1 million for tourism development in Terengganu but none at all for historical destinations such as Melacca, Perlis, Sabah

and Sarawak. In fact, between 1981-1985, investment funds from the government were only allocated for tourism development in Terengganu and Kedah. As for Kedah, the allocation was almost 90% and it was concentrated in Langkawi.

Today, since Malaysia offers various types of tourism, there have been enormous investments in shopping destinations, health tourism, educational tourism, sports tourism and historical tourism. In the Eighth Malaysia Plan 2001-2005, the government had allocated RM110 million for Malaysia Centennial towards the New Millennium from September 1999 to August 2001. In fact, the government had also increased the allocation for tourism development in the previous Malaysia Plan (Seventh Malaysia Plan, 1995 – Table 3.2).

In the Fifth Malaysia Plan 1986-1990, the government had allocated RM140.5 million for tourism development and it was increased up to RM533.9 million in the Sixth Malaysia Plan 1991-1995, an increment of 26%. In the Seventh Malaysia Plan 1996-2000, the figure had been increased up to RM696.9 million and from this figure, RM280 million was allocated for tourism infrastructure and facilities. Accordingly, this is in line with the government strategy in the Eighth Malaysia Plan 2001-2005 - to attain tourism growth on a sustainable basis through facilitating and increasing accessibility of tourism infrastructure.

In addition, the government had also given serious attention to cultural tourism by allocating RM181.2 million to the development of cultural product in the Seventh

Malaysia Plan, almost 26% of the funds. This is probably due to the fact that cultural issues had been included in the discussion of sustainable tourism development in the Sixth Malaysia Plan 1991-1995 (Din, 1997). In another way, this indicates that cultural aspect which has been the focus of this study plays an important role in contributing to the sustainability of tourism in Malaysia.

**Table 3.2: Government Allocation for Tourism Development
1986-2000 (RM million)**

	5 th MP	6 th MP	7 th MP
Preservation of Natural Heritage/ Historical	1.5	41.1	45.5
Accommodation	2.0	171.7	64.3
Program for Beautification/Cleaning/ Environment Protection	2.5	43.6	65.1
Development of Cultural Products	2.5	112.9	181.2
Infrastructure and Facilities	79.2	157.4	280.0
Other Projects	52.8	7.2	60.8
Total	140.5	533.9	696.9

MP = Malaysia Plan

Source: Seventh Malaysia Plan 1995-2000

Even though the allocated funds for the Seventh Malaysia Plan were increased, the investments in Malaysian tourism were still affected due to a series of mishaps such as the haze (caused by Indonesian farmers' 'slash and burn' practices), coxsackie virus and the Asian currency crisis in 1997. In fact, the government had reduced the allocation for tourism promotion from RM79 million in 1997 to RM63 million in 1998 (National Economic Recovery Plan, 1999).

In keeping with the objective to increase Bumiputeras participation in tourism sectors, it is government policy to encourage joint venture investments. Such joint ventures investments were Langkawi Country Club, Rantau Abang Visitor Centre in Terengganu and Club Mediteranee in Kuantan. In order to provide opportunities for individuals to invest in vacation ownership and maximize the usage of timeshare resorts, the government had introduced the *time sharing concept*. It had contributed to the growth of tourism by generating an average annual sale of RM88 million and 60% of timeshare members had utilized their holiday entitlement every year (Eighth Malaysia Plan, 2001).

The tourism sector in Malaysia was also affected by the flows of foreign direct investment (FDI). The flows of FDI depend significantly on the recent development in the external environment (Salih et.al 1992), however, in the case of Malaysia, the growth of the hotel sector plays an important role in determining the flows of FDI. In accordance, the government has implemented policies which encourage domestic investment instead of foreign investment into Malaysia. In order to attract more

domestic investment, the government has allocated about RM1 billion for tourism development in the Eighth Malaysia Plan 2001-2005 (Eighth Malaysia Plan, 2001).

The Effects of the Asian Currency Crisis

As the second largest foreign exchange earner for the country (National Economic Recovery Plan, 1999), the tourism industry in Malaysia was adversely affected by the Asian currency crisis in 1997. Based on the Annual Tourism Statistic Report 1999 (Table 4.3), the number of tourist arrivals had declined from 7,138,452 visitors in 1996 to 6,210,921 visitors in 1997, which was about a 13% reduction. As for tourist receipts, the total had declined from RM10,354 million in 1996 to RM9,699 million in 1997, a 7% reduction. The crisis also affected short-haul tourist arrivals from the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) area with 69.2% decline (Eighth Malaysia Plan, 2001). The problem faced by the government had not only been the reduction in tourist receipts and arrivals, but mostly, the downturn had also affected other tourism sectors such as accommodation, food and beverage, tour agents and transportation, and general confidence levels in the industry.

The crisis had raised several issues and challenges for the government. Malaysia had to compete with other developing countries such as Vietnam, Cambodia, China and India to gain market share. Since the government reduced the allocation for tourism promotion, Malaysia was far behind in attracting tourists, especially from Europe. In fact, aggressive promotions had been made by well-known destinations such as

Singapore, Thailand and Hong Kong. However, the government still had to analyze whether tourism promotion was an issue due to the crisis or had it been a problem before this event? Did the crisis really affect the reduction in foreign visitors or could it be the lack of effective promotion and marketing tourism internationally?

At the same time, the tour operators were facing financial constraints. Due to the crisis, 85% of tour bookings for September to December 1997 were postponed or cancelled (National Economic Recovery, 1999). Decline in outbound travel had become problems especially for small-sized travel agents. Furthermore, they also had to face cashflow and capitalisation problems. In fact, for the first quarter in 1998, low tour bookings were recorded and this was not just due to the crisis but more on the uncertainty that haze (affecting Malaysia from bush fires in Indonesia) might recur. Thus, the government has taken action to facilitate tourism industry recovery from the currency crisis and the haze problem.

In the National Economic Recovery Plan, seven actions have been recommended in relation to the Asian currency crisis:

- Malaysia should emphasis more on strategic markets which are not affected by any economic crisis, such as Australia, Europe, United States and the Middle East.
- Haze preventive measures should be implemented speedily and concerted bilateral efforts are required to overcome the haze problem.

-
- In order to optimise the effectiveness of promotions based on limited resources and to avoid duplication, the States and Federal Tourism Boards should team up with Malaysian Airline System (MAS) to jointly promote tourist resorts, such as Langkawi, Pangkor, Labuan, Pulau Besar, Tioman and Pulau Perhentian.

 - In order to increase local awareness of attractive tourist facilities in the country, aggressive promotion campaigns should be undertaken with respect to domestic tourism. The increase in domestic travel for leisure would help to offset the low occupancy rate in hotels during off-season foreign tourist arrivals.

 - Tourism Malaysia should provide more effective promotional information to reach consumers particularly through the use of the electronic media.

 - Tax liberalisation on luxury goods should be further introduced to promote Malaysia as a shopping paradise. Tour packages for shopping should be organized by tour operators. In addition, the promotion of Malaysia as a shopping destination should be linked to the marketing of locally manufactured products.

 - Finally, the government departments and agencies as well as private institutions which are members of international bodies and institutions should influence such bodies or institutions to hold meetings or conventions in Malaysia.

To facilitate the recovery of the Malaysian tourism sector, the government is urged to undertake a study on the possibility of imposing a travel exit tax. In addition, the Treasury should also review the funds allocated for tourism development. At present, the tourism industry in Malaysia has shown a big recovery with 42.9% increment in tourist arrivals and 66% increment in tourist receipts for the year of 1999 (MTPB, 2000).

Tourism Growth

Besides stimulating investment and generating foreign exchange earnings, the growth of tourism in Malaysia also provides an important source of income and employment. As a developing country, the growth of tourism in Malaysia started through the 1970s and visitor arrivals have increased every year. This was due to the improved accessibility to, and penetration of the international tourist market. In addition, it was also due to the promotional efforts of the government by establishing ten information centres outside Malaysia. In fact, due to the well-developed social and economic structure in the 1990s, tourism in Malaysia has beginning to grow quite rapidly (Cockerell, 1994).

Beginning early 1990 up to 1994, the tourism industry achieved its most significant growth of tourist arrivals and receipts (Table 3.3). In 1990, when the government first launched Visit Malaysia Year, the number of tourist arrivals had increased to more than 7 million and the total of tourist receipts had risen to RM4.5 million. However, in 1991, due to the Gulf Crisis and world recession, tourism growth started to decline with only

5,847,213 million tourist arrivals and RM4.2 million tourist receipts. Furthermore, the 21.5% decrease in tourist arrivals was mainly due to the decrease of arrivals from Singapore, a major tourism market for Malaysia, and a 37% decrease from the Japanese market.

The reduction in tourist arrivals and receipts between 1991-1992 had caused a terrible breakdown in the country's economy. The government had started to realise the importance of tourism in Malaysia and began to set long-term objectives in order to regain the number of tourist arrivals. Due to the intensive effort of the government to launch another campaign of Visit Malaysia Year in 1994, the number of tourist arrivals had increased to 7.2 million and the total of tourist receipts had reached RM8.3 million.

The growth of tourism, however, had begun to decline again between 1996-1998, due to the haze, coxsackie virus and the Asian currency crisis. In 1996, tourist arrivals decreased 4.4% and in 1997, it decreased for about 13%. A major decline was in 1998 when the tourist arrivals decreased for 11% and the tourist receipts decreased for 12%. Beginning 1999, the government had taken the initiative to establish and develop several strategies to strengthen the tourism market. Besides Langkawi, more attractions and destinations had been promoted overseas such as Pangkor, Pulau Perhentian and recently, Pulau Kapas. Several campaigns had also been organized by the government such as Mega Sales Carnivals, Colours of Malaysia and "*Pesta Sukan Air*".

**Table 3.3: Malaysia's International Tourist Arrivals
and Receipts (1987-1999)**

Year	Tourist Arrivals	Tourist Receipts (RM Million)
1987	3,358,983	1,795
1988	3,623,636	2,012
1989	4,846,320	2,803
1990	7,445,908	4,500
1991	5,847,213	4,283
1992	6,016,209	4,595
1993	6,503,860	5,066
1994	7,197,229	8,298
1995	7,468,749	9,175
1996	7,138,452	10,354
1997	6,210,921	9,699
1998	5,550,748	8,580
1999	7,931,149	13,000

Source: Annual Tourism Statistic Report (MTPB)

At the same time, the government had also improved the tourism facilities and accessibility such as by introducing the Light Rail Transit(LRT) and developing the Kuala Lumpur International Airport (KLIA). The strategies taken by the government had stimulated tourism's contribution to the economy. In 1999, the number of tourist arrivals to Malaysia had increased to 7,931,149 visitors and the total of tourist receipts was RM13,000 million. At present, Malaysia receives almost 10.2 million of tourist arrivals and RM18.7 million of tourist receipts for the year 2000. This was due to the increase in the average length of stay and the increase of 20.5% in per diem expenditure. Nevertheless, this figure will attract a strong flow of investment into the market.

CONCLUSION

The growth of tourism in Malaysia has been opened to investments from all over the world. Participation from the government and the private sector is important in order to develop tourism without destroying the environment. Due to the diversity of culture in Malaysia, the acceptance of tourism by the local people is variable. This chapter has provided an introduction to Malaysia for the purpose of understanding its society, culture and religion which are related to developing tourism.

The growth of tourism has become a valuable source of economic benefit for the country. With the continuous improvement in tourism products, promotion and infrastructure, Malaysia is well placed to reap further benefit from the tourism industry.

This chapter has introduced Malaysia generally, the focus will next concentrate on Langkawi, the tourism island situated in north of Malaysia.

CHAPTER 4

CASE STUDY AREA – LANGKAWI

INTRODUCTION

In order to further boost its tourism industry, Malaysia has adopted a holistic and coordinated approach which is in line with the policy thrust, to achieve rapid tourism growth. The progress of tourist arrivals and tourist receipts between 1996-2000 (Eighth Malaysia Plan) indicated that Malaysia is capable of becoming one of the main international tourist destinations in Asia. For that purpose, Malaysia has marketed its diversity of culture, traditions, history and lifestyles of the various ethnic groups through several destinations. One of them is Langkawi, a well-known island, blessed with a heritage of myths and legends.

Langkawi has been chosen as a case study area for several reasons. This chapter will discuss the reasons in detail by dividing them into four sections. The first reason for chosen Langkawi as a case study is because of its background as an island tourist destination. This is described in the first section. Aspects such as its location, weather, people and economic base are also discussed in the section.

The second reason is because of its natural environment and the government policies regarding tourism. Section two discusses the natural environment of Langkawi. Besides being famous for its beautiful beaches, adventure land, exotic species of flora and fauna and as a shopping haven, Langkawi is also known for the many legends which surround it. Several aspects are also included such as the tourist attractions, physical development, and the policy and strategy of the government. The third section discusses the objectives and roles of Langkawi Development Authority (LADA) in developing tourism and promoting Langkawi. One part of the section describes the roles of the Planning and Tourism Divisions with regards to tourism in Langkawi.

The third reason for choosing Langkawi as a case study is because of the growth of tourism in Langkawi has been dramatic during the past decade. This aspect is fully discussed in the fourth section regarding tourism growth in Langkawi. Trends in tourist arrivals are discussed in detail. In addition, Langkawi is chosen because it also has advantages in terms of praimity for the researcher by saving time and cost for the study.

The chapter then concludes by summarizing all the sections and provides a rationale for studying Langkawi as a tourist destination.

BACKGROUND TO LANGKAWI

Langkawi is full of legends. One of the well-known legends is Mahsuri. According to the legend, Mahsuri was sentenced to death for committing adultery. Upon dying, she threw a curse on the island that it would not prosper for seven generations. Today, the

pure white beaches on the island are believed to be from the white blood which flowed from her body. In fact, on the spot where she died, a tomb was erected and was named “*Makam Mahsuri*”. Almost every major landmark in Langkawi has a myth associated with it and today, Langkawi is known as the famous ‘Island of Legends’.

Located in a district of the State of Kedah, northwest in Peninsular Malaysia, Langkawi is comprised of 104 islands (Figure 4.1). The islands cover an area of 47,850 hectares and are separated from the mainland by the Straits of Melacca. Of the 99 islands at high tide, only four of them are inhabited – Pulau Langkawi, Pulau Tuba, Pulau Singa and Pulau Dayang Bunting.

The name Langkawi derived from the words “*helang*” as for eagle and “*kawi*” which is an old Malay term for strong. Langkawi Island itself covers a total area of 32,180 hectares and spans about 25 km. It is divided into six “*mukim*” or districts of Kuah, Padang Matsirat, Ayer Hangat, Bohor, Ulu Melaka and Kedawang. As a tropical island, Langkawi has hot and sunny weather with an average annual temperature of about 25 degrees Celcius. At present, the population of Langkawi is an estimated 62,617 of which 91.2% are Malays, followed by 5.1% Chinese and 2% Indians (Langkawi Residential/Socioeconomic Study, 1999).

As for the economic base, agriculture and fishing are still the primary activities of the local population in Langkawi. Based on a statistical report from Langkawi District Council (1992), before 1987, 63% of the working population was in the agriculture and

fishery sector. Rubber had utilize up to 40% of agriculture land, followed by paddy (30%), mixed crops (20%) and coconut (10%) (Langkawi Structure Plan, 1990-2005). In fact, at that time, Langkawi was known as the largest producer of “*ikan bilis*” (anchovies) in Peninsular Malaysia.

However, on January 1, 1987, Langkawi faced a tremendous change when it was declared as a duty free port by virtue of the Financial Act (No.2) of 1986. The action was believed to cause a major change in the island’s economic, physical and social aspects (Mohamad, 1997). As a result, in 1999, only 19% of the working population was working in the agriculture and fishery sector while majority of 33.8% involved in the wholesaling and retailing sector (LADA, 1999).

In addition, the residents’ incomes were also improved due to tourism development in Langkawi. Data had stated that 17% of the working residents in Langkawi received a monthly income of RM501 to RM1,000, 11% received about RM500 or less and 0.6% received more than RM3,000 (LADA, 1999). Compared to 1987, the majority of the working residents (79%) received a monthly income of only RM500 or less (Langkawi District Council, 1992). Thus, this has led to a better economy for both Langkawi and Malaysia, and improved the financial benefits accruing to residents.

The descriptions regarding the background of Langkawi, beginning as an agriculture area to a well-known tourist destination, has explained the first reason for it being chosen as a case study.

TOURISM IN LANGKAWI

In 1974, the Malaysian Tourism Promotion Board (MTPB) or previously known as TDC (Tourist Development Corporation) had prepared the Malaysia Tourism Development Plan in order to identify areas for tourism development. One of the areas was Langkawi and the MTPB was asked by the Federal Government to prepare a master plan for tourism to be developed. In November 1976, a master plan was conducted by Peat, Marwick, Mitchell & Company (PMM&CO.) to develop Langkawi into a tourist destination area.

Langkawi was first developed as a major tourist destination in 1984. In order to develop seven hotels with a total of 2,500 rooms in Langkawi, 1,000 acres of land in Tanjung Rhu was leased out by the State Government of Kedah to Promet Berhad. However, due to recession, in the mid 1980s, the project was sold to TRI, a public listed company controlled by Tan Sri Tajuddin Ramli.

On January 1, 1987, the Federal Government had declared Langkawi a duty free port. The purpose was to transform Langkawi's economic base from agriculture and fishery to an expanding international tourist destination. In order to involve directly in tourism development of Langkawi, the Federal Government had established Langkawi Development Authority or known as LADA, which was incorporated by an Act of Parliament on January 1, 1990. In addition, investments by both public and private sectors had made the tourism industry perform quite successfully in Langkawi. In fact,

on March 24, 2001, the Government had given recognition to Langkawi by acknowledging it as a “Tourism City”.

Tourist Attractions

As an island tourist destination, Langkawi offers various attractions. The island is covered by beautiful rain forest, mountains, hills, waterfalls, mysterious lakes and natural vegetation. Kuah, Padang Matsirat and Kedawang are the three main districts which have more tourist attractions and development compared to Ayer Hangat, Bohor and Ulu Melaka.

Langkawi is steeped in history with its legendary and historical remains such as “*Makam Mahsuri*” (Tomb of Mahsuri), “*Tasik Dayang Bunting*” (Lake of the Pregnant Maiden) and “*Beras Terbakar*” (Field of Burnt Rice). Other tourist attractions in the island are Pantai Rhu, a magnificent beach rich with coral and marine life and an ideal place for snorkeling, swimming and sun bathing, and “*Telaga Tujuh*” (Seven Wells), a freshwater stream cascading about 90 meters down via a series of seven pools. Besides that, tourists can also find interesting places such as “*Gua Cerita*” (Caves of Stories), “*Telaga Air Panas*” (Hot Springs), and Wildlife and Marine Parks on Pulau Singa Besar and Pulau Payar (Coral Island). Furthermore, they can also discover the Malaysian life-style of the isolated villages in the island.

In addition, tourists can visit places of interest such as “*Dataran Lang*”, “*Galeri Perdana*”, Langkawi Legend Park, Underwater World, Crocodile Farm and Aquabeat

Theme Park. As a duty free port, shopping has also become a tourist attraction in Langkawi. Electrical appliances, perfumes and sporting equipment are sold at lower than normal retail prices at the Duty Free Shop. Tourists can also shop at bazaar stalls which are scattered throughout Kuah town. Here, various traditional styles of souvenirs, “sarung”, and batik are also sold at lower than normal retail prices.

To attract more international tourists, the government has also organized international exhibitions and conventions in Langkawi. Langkawi International Maritime and Aerospace Exhibitions (LIMA), Le Tour De Langkawi, International Motor Show and World Powerboat Race are among the successful international events held annually in Langkawi. More sports events were held earlier such as 1998 Commonwealth Games, ASEAN Kart Prix and ASEAN Schools “Sepak Takraw” Championship.

According to Kedah Executive Council Member for Sports Development, Tourism and Recreation, Abdul Rahman Ariffin, in order to turn sports activities as a new attraction for Langkawi, new events will be held in 2001 such as Langkawi International Endurance Marathon and Langkawi International Kayak Challenge. Today, tourists can visit new places such as the Oriental Village; a destination of culture and shopping centre, and the Summer Palace Langkawi; a memorial place for the making of “Anna and The King” film.

Physical Development

There was hardly any development in Langkawi up to the late 1980s. Today, tall buildings, hotels and transport facilities are obvious in the small island. The tremendous physical changes in Langkawi since the late 1980s were also noted by the local people (Kayat, 2000). Since 1984, when tourism started to develop in Langkawi, investments began to pour in. Prices of land in Langkawi shot up and a host of projects were carried out.

In fact, the government had allocated RM320 million for infrastructure and public facilities development since 1990 (North Review, 1995). Through LADA, the allocation was distributed for road development, water supply and the beautification of the island. In addition, a total of 7,200 new hotel rooms, costing of RM4 billion were funded from private developers. Under the Sixth Malaysia Plan (1991-1995), the government had also allocated RM350 million for the socio-economic and infrastructure development in Langkawi.

The progress in physical development can be seen when on July 1, 1987, the Langkawi International Airport, budgeted by Malaysia Airport Berhad, started to operate. Due to the International Maritime and Aerospace Exhibition (LIMA), the airport was renovated in 1991. The main purpose was to improve its terminal building, parking apron and taxiway. Costing RM90 million, the airport renovations were completed in 1995 with more comfortable arrival and departure halls, and it can cater to 1,000 pph (passenger peak hour) two ways, compared to just 400 pph previously. The airport had also

included 22 duty free concessionaires, a restaurant, a fast food outlet and a car park which can accommodate 500 cars.

With more allocation from the government and investment from the private sectors, better facilities and infrastructure were developed in Langkawi. And with better infrastructure and facilities, besides attracting more tourists, the residents can also live more comfortably as it improve their quality of life (Zainuddin, 1997).

Policy and Strategy

The government agencies at the District, State and Federal levels have coordinated and cooperated in establishing a standardized policy and strategy for tourism development in Langkawi. Through LADA, the Federal Government has involved itself directly with the development of the island. LADA has its own objectives and functions which are discussed in the next section.

To ensure that the development of Langkawi is fully under control, the State and Federal Governments have enforced several regulatory policies. The policies are:

- Development of tourist-related projects are only allowed in Kuah, Datai, Tanjung Rhu, Pantai Tengah, Pantai Cenang and Burau Bay.
- Tree trimming on minimum level to protect the natural green environment.
- Paddy field area was gazetted under protection so that they cannot be developed into tourist attractions.

-
- Protect the beach area with development policies clearly stating that any building and construction must be at least 150 meters away from the beach.
 - No polluting industries are allowed.
 - Hills cutting to be at the minimum.

In relation to these policies, the Langkawi Structure Plan 1990-2005 has been adopted by the State Government of Kedah in order to encourage, control and guide development in Langkawi. In line with the Langkawi Declaration on Environment to transform the island into a “natural paradise”, the Plan concerns are more on the framework for tourism planning, environmental improvement measures, public facilities and transportation.

The policies have been regulated and practiced by all parties who have an interest in Langkawi. This can be seen by looking at several areas in Langkawi which still have not been developed into tourist attractions. Thus, it is important to determine the residents' attitudes toward future tourism development. With these policies and residents' support, Langkawi can maintain its natural environment, which is the main attraction of the island.

LANGKAWI DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY (LADA)

Introduction to LADA

The Langkawi Development Authority or normally known as LADA, was established and incorporated by an Act of Parliament on January 1, 1990. Under the chairmanship of Tun Daim Zainuddin, the main purpose of establishing LADA was to accomplish a direct involvement from the Federal Government in the development of tourism. On March 15, 1990, LADA was officially established under Act 423 of the Langkawi Development Authority Act.

In order to ensure tourist's satisfaction, LADA has introduced its customer's charter which stated,

"We pledge to do our best to stimulate and facilitate the social and economic development of Pulau Langkawi, and develop it as a major commercial and tourism destination in the region, in line with its status as a duty-free zone".

As a planner, catalyst and coordinator of the overall development of Langkawi, LADA is responsible for marketing Langkawi as nature's paradise and an eco-friendly island. In addition to supporting the current tourism development in Langkawi, LADA is also responsible for providing infrastructure and basic amenities such as excellent road networks, power supply and a good telecommunication system. To create business and employment opportunities in the tourism sector, LADA has adopted the concept of

MENJARO (mental, physical and spiritual) in its human resources development. In line with this concept, LADA will give important emphasis to Islamic religious virtues. This can be achieved through the building of mosques, schools and related Islamic activities in Langkawi.

In order not to jeopardize its planning policies, LADA has played several roles in the commercial sector. Besides making sure the availability of commercial and business space areas to meet demand as planned, LADA has also ensured the beautiful landscape of Langkawi is not diminished. This is in line with its objective which is to monitor the development of hotels so that they are confined to their zone-areas. To date, LADA has managed to achieve success through creative strategies and has been credited by the government for its success in developing Langkawi as an international tourist destination, and it will continue to do so.

Objectives of LADA

The unspoiled environment and appealing local culture of Langkawi has inspired the government to develop and establish it as a premier tourist destination locally and internationally. In order to do this, LADA has stated several objectives to be achieved which are:

- Encourage social, economic and physical development of Langkawi in line with the development policies of Malaysia which will also benefit the local populace at the same time.

-
- Establish a development scenario which would include unique features such as preservation of nature resources as well as respect of local culture, history and legends.
 - Establish an environment of development conducive towards the positioning of Langkawi as an international tourist destination.
 - Encourage and carry out the economical restructuring of lower-productivity sectors into higher-productivity sectors, for example, from farming to tourism.
 - Create attractive opportunities for foreign investors using the tourism product resources currently available.

Today, LADA has set up three objectives to be achieved for development of tourism in Langkawi. The objectives are:

- Provision of more hotel facilities to meet the projected 7,500 rooms by the year 2005.
- Development of more improved tourist attractions on the island to increase length of stay of tourists.
- Development of Langkawi into a major exhibition and convention centre to lay emphasis on both optimum development of areas in development of coastal, recreational activities to promote tourism.

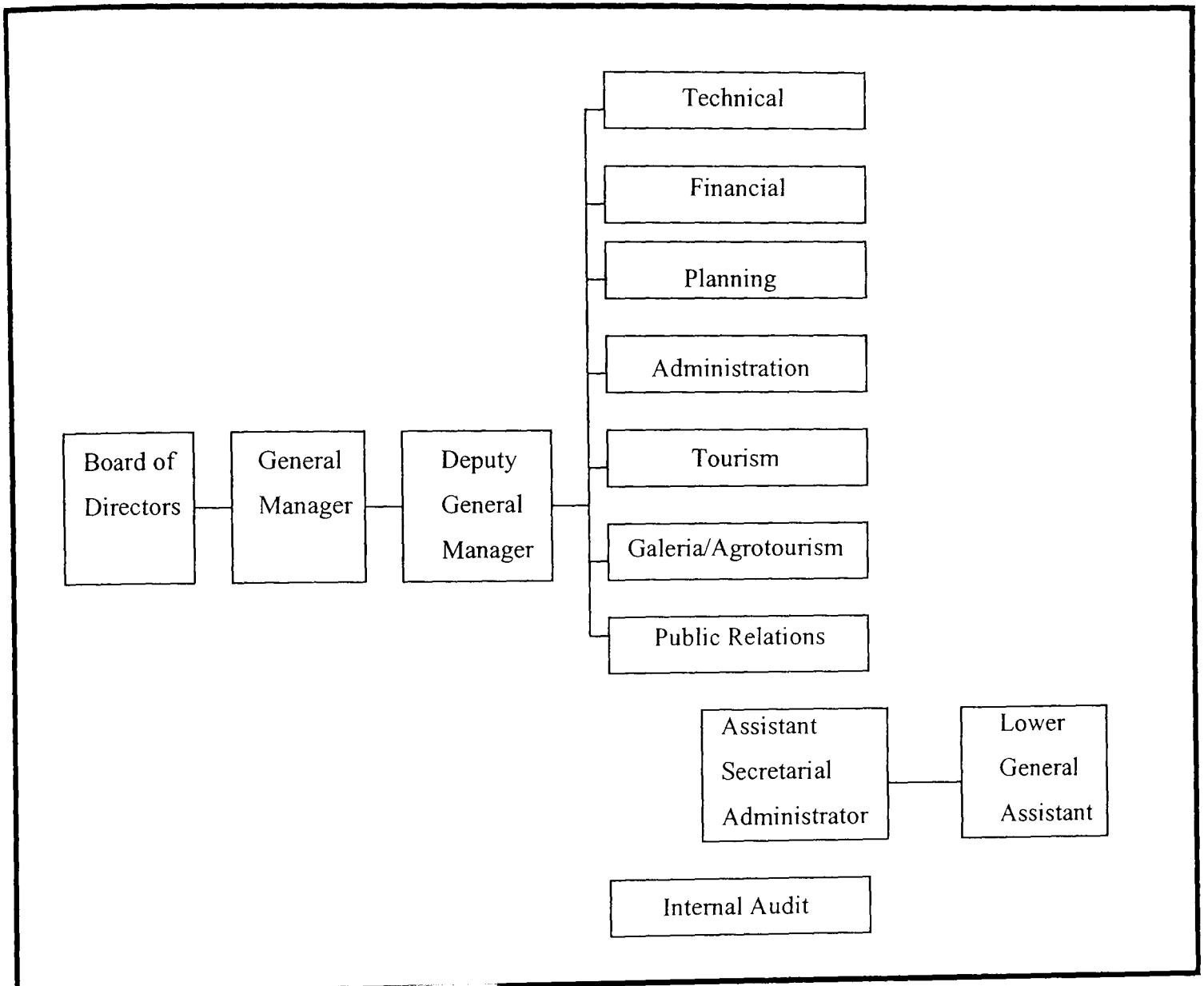
Functions of LADA

To successfully develop tourism in Langkawi, LADA's functions are stipulated under the Act 423, which are:

-
- To stimulate, implement, expedite and execute socio-economic development in the Langkawi Development Authority's area;
 - To stimulate and develop the Langkawi Development Authority's area as a tourist destination as well as a duty-free area;
 - To stimulate, implement and execute the development of tourism, infrastructure, accommodation, agriculture, industry and trade in the Langkawi Development Authority's area, and
 - To coordinate the performance of the above mentioned activities in the Langkawi Development Authority's area.

The functions are to be achieved by establishing several divisions in the organization (Figure 4.2). Two of the divisions related to tourism are discussed in the next section.

Figure 4.2: LADA – Organisation Chart



Source: LADA, 2001

Planning and Tourism Divisions

Headed by an Urban and Country Planning Officer, the Planning Division of LADA contains two units which are the Planning Unit and the Properties Unit. The Planning Unit is established with a purpose to coordinate planning and development in Langkawi. In line with the objective to establish Langkawi as a major tourist destination, the unit

has also to ensure that the socio-economic standards of locals are increased and a high environmental quality is maintained. The purpose of having a Properties Unit is to coordinate the land orders and to ensure the development planned is carried out efficiently.

Both units have their own objectives to be achieved in order to develop Langkawi as a tourist destination. As a unit which provides basic planning strategies, the objectives of the Planning Unit are:

- Control all physical development in Langkawi and to ensure that projects are planned and carried out in line with the objective of establishing Langkawi as a major tourist attraction in this region.
- Supervise development to make sure that all constructions are within the given piece of land in the Structural Plan of Langkawi and the Settling Plan of Kuah, Padang Matsirat and Padang Lalang.
- To provide consultancy service from the development potential point of view to land developers, land owners and negotiators.
- Coordinate all projects handled by LADA.
- Maintain a well stocked database to help in future planning process, development and making a vital decision.

Meanwhile, as a unit which is involved directly with land development in Langkawi, the objectives of the Properties Unit are:

-
- To provide and maintain land banks for the future projects of LADA.
 - To assist the private sector in development projects especially in providing land.
 - To run all land owned by LADA.
 - To be the middleman between LADA and other agencies such as the District Land Office (PTD)”, “*Pejabat Tanah dan Galian (PTG)*” and Evaluation Department involving the land maintenance in Langkawi.
 - Help develop projects of LADA and associated companies.

The Tourism Division of LADA is established with a main purpose to increase the inflow of tourists to Langkawi so that the resulting development will also benefit all the locals. This is in line with the government’s objective stated in the Langkawi Structure Plan, “*to introduce Langkawi locally and internationally through involvement, seminars, presentations and cultural attractions to promote Langkawi*”. The objectives and functions of the Tourism Division are:

- To encourage tourism to Langkawi.
- To stimulate, improve and market Langkawi as a tourist destination favored by many nations world wide through international and domestic traders.
- To coordinate and participate in all tourism promotional activities which are organized by the Government, Malaysia’s Tourism Promotion Board and other relevant agencies from both the government and private sectors.
- To provide proposals to the Board of Directors of LADA to improve current and future projects to pave way for more efficient promotion of tourism to Langkawi.

As the main division in LADA which is involved directly in promoting and marketing tourism, the Tourism Division has also conducted and organized several programmes. “MATTA International Travel Fair” and “Destination Malaysia Tourism Fair” were two consumer encouragement programmes conducted by the Tourism Division. As for the international fairs, the division had conducted “Arabian Travel Mart” in Dubai, “World Travel Mart” in London, “Malaysian Tourism Seminar” in Amsterdam, “Sales Mission to United Kingdom” and “Road Show to Australia”.

TOURISM GROWTH

A statistical record from LADA showed that tourism in Langkawi has grown quite rapidly since 1986 (Table 4.1). Due to the declaration of Langkawi as a duty free port by the Federal Government on January 1, 1987, the total number of tourists visiting Langkawi in 1987 had increased to 310,004 million compared to 209,763 million in 1986.

The trend of tourists arrivals in Langkawi had also increased dramatically since then. In 1990, due to the first “Visit Malaysia Year”, Langkawi received a total number of 783,687 million tourists compared to only 658,993 million in 1989. The increment was also due to LIMA '91 which was organized by the government in Langkawi. Meanwhile, in 1994, when the second “Visit Malaysia Year” was launched, the total number of tourists visiting Langkawi had increased to 1,598,126 million, almost a 51% increment from 1990. This has proved that Langkawi is successfully marketed not just locally but also as an international tourist destination.

However, the number of tourists visiting Langkawi began to decline between 1996-1998. This was due to the incidents such as cholera and the coxsackie virus. Even though the incidents did not occur in Langkawi, the declined in tourist arrivals to Malaysia had directly impacted tourism in Langkawi. In addition, the Asian financial crisis had made the matter worst. In 1996, Langkawi received 1,712,639 million tourists, in 1997 about 1,622,044 million tourists and in 1998, the number had declined to only 1,295,341 million tourists.

Based on these figures, LADA had come out with several events and exhibitions to increase the total number of tourists visiting Langkawi. This is also due to the fact that tourism has become a major contribution to the local people in term of job opportunities and increment in their personal income. Due to the events such as LIMA, Le Tour de Langkawi and a “Must Visit Destination” campaign by LADA, the total number of tourists arrivals to Langkawi had increased to 1,559,528 million in 1999. In relation to that, the number was projected up to 1.8 million for the year 2000 and 2 million for the year 2005.

The rapid increase in the total number of tourists visiting Langkawi also indicates the success of promoting and marketing tourism. However, one important aspect which need to be taken into consideration is the question of whether the acceptance represents all the areas in Langkawi or only selected areas of development such as Kuah, Padang Lalang and Kedawang. The government and LADA itself have to investigate whether other areas, which still have not been develop by tourism, are receiving the benefits of

the impacts or are they the areas whose residents perceive tourism negatively? The answer is important in order to come out with proper plan and action for developing tourism sustainability.

The growth of tourism has also led to research regarding its socio-cultural impacts on the community's life. A study by Din (1993) indicates that people of Langkawi perceived the socio-cultural impacts of tourism negatively. They stated that tourism has caused moral breakdown, has encouraged incidents of drugtaking, encouraged prostitution and also imitation of Western culture. However, the study also indicates several positive socio-cultural impacts of tourism such as, it has encouraged the enrichment of local culture and popularised the place and the country as tourist destination.

In addition, Kayat (2000) noted in her study that the local peoples' attitudes toward socio-cultural impacts of tourism in Langkawi are significantly influenced by their religion, culture and values. People who have strong beliefs and background in culture and values would not be influenced by tourism development even though they have benefited from the positive economic impacts. This study also indicates that because tourism has led to negative socio-cultural impacts on the local people, tourism itself has been perceived negatively. However, the positive side is, the government has to take action by involving the local people into the planning and implementation of tourism development in Langkawi.

**Table 4.1: Total Number of Tourists Visiting
Langkawi (1986-2000)**

Year	Total Arrivals
1986	209,763
1987	310,004
1988	428,778
1989	658,993
1990	783,687
1991	879,252
1992	1,046,919
1993	1,321,301
1994	1,598,126
1995	1,795,406
1996	1,712,639
1997	1,622,044
1998	1,295,341
1999	1,559,528
2000	projected 1,800,000
2005	projected 2,000,000

Source: LADA-Economic Statistics (2000)

CONCLUSION

The chapter has discussed Langkawi as a tourist destination beginning from 1987 until today. The legendary island has become recognized as a tourist destination and this has caused a dramatic impact on the major concerns of the residents' life such as economic, environmental and socio-cultural. This can be seen in several studies of tourism in Langkawi (Ngah, 1991; TED Case study, 1991; Din, 1993; Othman, 1998; Kayat, 2000). Based on these researches, and other reasons discussing above, Langkawi has been chosen as a case study area for the purpose of developing an attitudinal scale.

Even though the residents are believed to benefit from tourism in Langkawi, the negative impacts still exist for those who do not support tourism. However, the statistical data of tourists visiting Langkawi and allocations made by the Federal Government through LADA has indicated that the local people have accepted tourism in their area.

The chapter has described Langkawi's development from a small tourist island full of legends to a fully developed tourist attractions. Even with all the attractions, several areas in Langkawi are still maintained as agriculture and fishing villages. The roles played by LADA in developing Langkawi not just as a local but also as an international tourist destination has been recognized by the government. Thus, on March 24, 2001, Langkawi was given recognition as a "Tourism City" by the State Government.

In addition, LADA has organized successful events and exhibitions. International events such as LIMA and Le Tour de Langkawi are two examples which had been organized annually in Langkawi and have welcomed more international tourists. To date, LADA has successfully promoted and marketed Langkawi and will continue to do so in order to receive a projected 2 million tourist by the year 2005.

CHAPTER 5

DEVELOPING AN

ATTITUDINAL SCALE

INTRODUCTION

Since this study is focusing on developing a scale to measure resident attitudes toward tourism, it is very important at first to understand the meaning and components of attitude. Generally, attitude is seen as a main component in a social psychological aspect. However, attitude is also seen as a component in many aspects of life and plays an important role in determining one's choice and behaviour towards a certain object or situation.

In the early years, attitude has been defined as,

“a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related” Allport (1935: 810).

Asch (1952:585), however, sees attitude in simple terms as enduring sets formed by past experiences. Meanwhile, Rokeach (1970:112) describes attitude as a relatively enduring organization of beliefs around an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner.

The difficulty in understanding the meaning of attitude is because it is based on each individual's belief and evaluation towards a certain object. In order to clarify definition, two researchers have defined attitude as,

“a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object” (Fishbein and Aizen, 1975:6).

Since attitude has a close relationship with belief and evaluative components, different objects are evaluated in different ways. Thus, attitude is seen as an evaluation of objects (Fazio et. al., 1986; Pratkanis and Greenwald, 1989; Tesser and Shaffer, 1990; Judd et. al., 1991). Therefore, one cannot say that a person's attitude towards a certain object is wrong because it is how that person evaluates that object.

The importance of attitudes are stressed by Ryan, Scotland and Montgomery (1998).

According to them,

“attitudes are important in a number of ways: they are perceived to be important because of the values held by a person, they are indeed, the expression of values and their

application to specific events, and furthermore they are symptomatic of personality”.

In fact, attitude has been studied in several context of tourism such as, “Community Attachment and Attitudes toward Tourism Development” (McCool and Martin, 1994), “Residents’ Attitudes towards An Instant Resort Enclave” (Hernandez et. al., 1996), “Resident Attitudes to Tourism Development – A Comparative Study between the Rangitikei, New Zealand and Bakewell, United Kingdom” (Ryan et. al., 1988) and “Working Tourists and their Attitudes to Hosts” (Uriely and Reichel, 2000).

In order to understand the conceptual framework of attitude analysis, this chapter discusses the components and theory of attitude relating to belief and behaviour towards a given object.

ATTITUDE COMPONENTS AND FUNCTIONS

There are three components which structure the concept of attitude. This structure is known as the *ABC Tripartite Model* which consists of an affective component, a behavioural component and a cognitive component (Ostrom, 1969; Breckler, 1984; Rajecki, 1989).

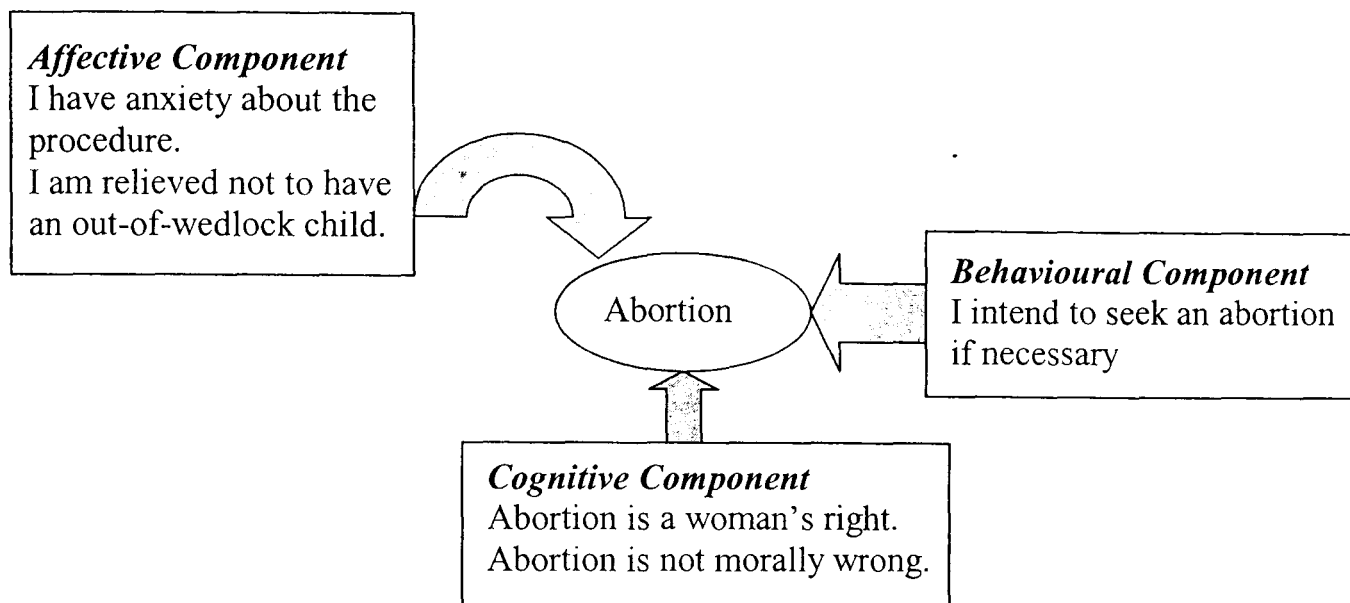
The affective component of the attitude refers to a person’s feelings and emotions toward a certain object, situation, idea or even issue. The evaluations could be either positive or negative depending on how strong are the feelings of that person toward that

object. According to Rokeach (1970:113), an affective component of attitude is found where under suitable conditions, the belief is capable of arousing affects of varying intensity centering around the object of the belief, around other objects, taking a positive or negative position with respect to the object of belief.

The behavioural component of the attitude refers to intentions or actions to act in a way which reflects the attitude. This component is concerned with predisposition to behave rather than the behaviour itself. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) suggest that in order to understand this component, a distinction should be made between behavioural intention and actual behaviour. In simple terms, the behavioural component is how the person tends to act regarding the object (Taylor, Peplau and Sears, 2000:133).

The cognitive component of the attitude consists of belief and thought about the object of the attitude. The belief and thought could be influenced by knowledge, experiences and even facts about that object. The cognitive component is actually held with varying degrees of certitude about what is true or false, good or bad, desirable or undesirable (Rokeach, 1970:113). An example of the ABC Tripartite Model of Attitudes is shown below by using abortion as an issue (Figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1 : ABC Tripartite Model of Attitudes



Source: Feldman (1995:315)

Therefore, in determining attitude, one must take into consideration all the three components which structured the concept of attitude. It is difficult to determine an attitude of a person since the relationships among the three components are so close. In fact, there is a consistency among the affective, behavioural and cognitive components of attitude within a single belief (Rosenberg, 1960).

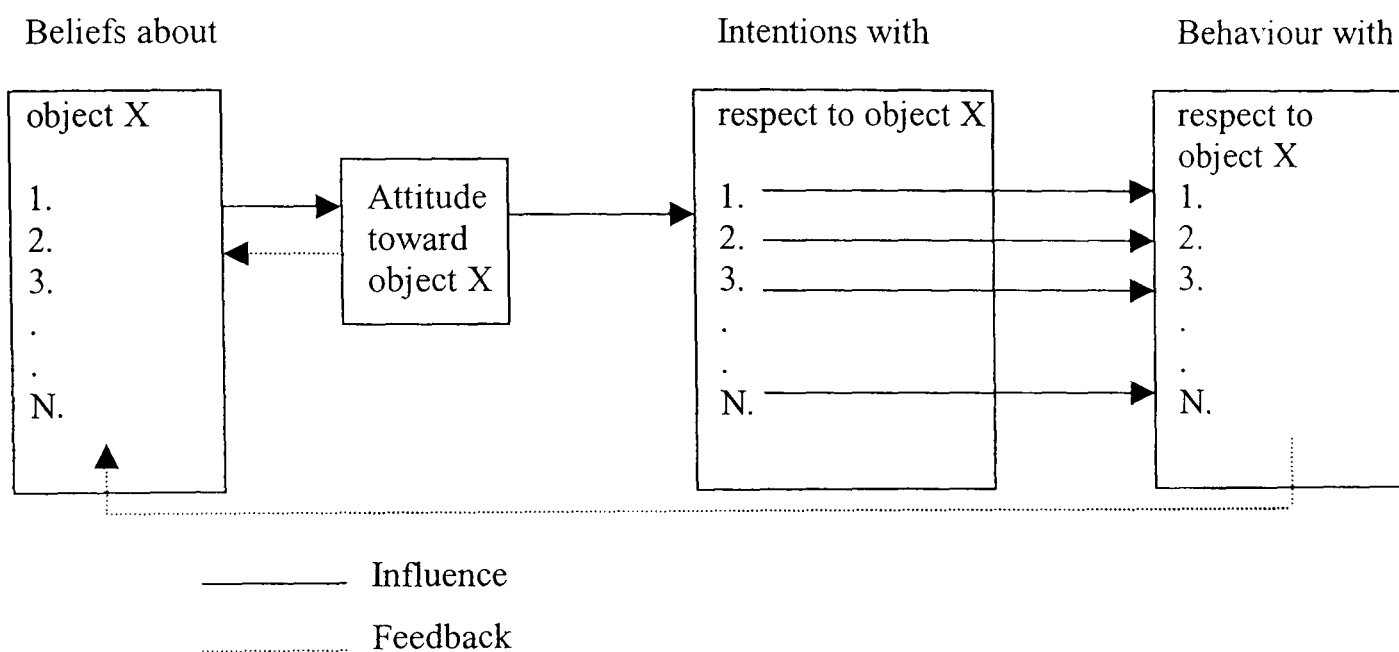
In order to describe the relationship, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) present a conceptual framework of attitude relating to beliefs, intentions and behaviours with respect to a given object (Figure 5.2). They assume that a person's attitude towards an object can be used to predict behaviour with respect to that object, and specific behaviour with respect to an object cannot be predicted from knowledge of the person's attitude towards that

object. However, specific behaviour is determined by the person's intention to perform that behaviour which is influenced by several factors.

The importance of attitude in the social aspect has raised the issue of the roles it plays in the community's life. In earlier formulation, Katz (1960:170) recognizes four functions of attitude:

- *Instrumental, adjustive or utilitarian function* – this function is a modern expression of Jeremy Bentham where the utilitarians constructed their model of man and the role of attitude can be found most in the behavioristic learning theory.
- *Ego-defensive function* – this function is based on Freudian psychology and it is when the person protects himself from acknowledging the basic truths about himself or the harsh realities in his external world.
- *Value-expressive function* – in this function, the individual derives satisfactions from expressing attitudes appropriate to his personal values and to his concept of himself. This function also stresses the importance of self-expression, self-development and self-realization.
- *Knowledge function* – this function is based upon Gestalt psychology. In order to provide clarity and consistency, a person need to give adequate structure to his universe by searching for meaning, the need to understand and the trend toward better organization of perceptions and beliefs.

Figure 5.2 : Conceptual Framework of Attitudes



Source: Fishbein and Ajzen (1975:15)

Schlenker (1982) and Pratkanis and Greenwald (1989), however, describe the functions of attitude in a different way. They find that attitude plays three main function in the psychological aspect of the society:

➤ *Firstly, attitude helps define social groups.*

Attitude is usually shared in a group. It is obvious that certain groups will have certain attitudes toward a specific object or issue. This may be influenced by the culture, political values and even sometimes personal values. For example, Muslims have negative attitudes toward prostitution because of the religious belief and all Muslims shared the same attitudes.

➤ *Secondly, attitude helps establish identity.*

This function is closely related to a self-definition. A person's attitude usually described that person's identity and personality. Famous people, for example Nelson Mandela, is known by his attitude towards apartheid and Thomas Jefferson is known by his attitude toward tyranny and injustice.

➤ *Finally, attitude guides thinking and behaviour.*

This is an important function of attitude where it affects the way people think, feel and act. It is a part of the cognitive component and it make people think about good, bad, right and wrong before accepting certain objects or issues related to them.

Greenwald (1989) and Shavitt (1989) divide attitude into two main functions which are:

➤ *The knowledge function of attitudes.*

This function is seen as the aspect of attitudes which permits people to organize and make sense of the world. It provides people with knowledge about how people behave and why they behave as they do.

➤ *The self function of attitudes.*

This function refers to the aspect of attitudes which enables people to create and maintain a positive self-image. It also helps people to gain self-esteem by expressing

particular sets of attitudes. This function also helps people identify social institutions which are important to them.

The functions of attitudes are important in order to understand why people act the way they do. These functions are related to the three components of attitude and they have to be looked at together when questions about attitudes are raised. In fact, one cannot say that a person's attitude is right or wrong unless it is based on the three components of attitude. Thus, one must also take into account the roles which attitude plays.

ATTITUDE THEORIES

The main difficulty in understanding the meaning and concept of attitude is because attitude can be changed. In fact, a person's attitude towards the same object may be changed during the next few days or even minutes. Several theories are outlined in order to really understand how attitudes are changed. The theories are Learning Theory, Cognitive Consistency, Cognitive Dissonance Theory, Self-Perception Theory, Expectancy-Value Theory and Cognitive Response Theory.

Learning Theory

According to Hovland, Janis and Kelly (1953), in Learning theory, attitude is exposed through stimuli where it learns through association, reinforcement or imitation. The process of association involves the acquirement of information and feelings to form the attitudes. For example, if a person is given negative information about abortion, that

person may have a negative attitude about abortion without having a chance of knowing the positive aspects of abortion.

The process of reinforcement and punishment involve the experiences to form the attitudes. In tourism, the consequences can be seen in the 'social-demonstration effect' where people are encouraged to work for things they lack (Brown, 1998:70). This can lead to both positive and negative outcomes. For example, if tourism causes more business opportunities in the area, then the local people will start to run their own business in their area instead of immigrate to other areas (Allen et. al., 1988; Milman and Pizam, 1988; Lankford, 1994). In addition, if tourism causes more tourists with bad influences such as gambling, then it will probably lead to crime in the residents' area (Pizam et. al., 1982; Perdue et. al., 1987; Lankford, 1994; Hernandez et. al., 1996).

As for the imitation, people tend to imitate others in order to form their own attitudes. It is obvious that children tend to imitate the attitudes of their parents or the people around them. Moreover, local people tend to imitate tourist behaviour which according to Mathieson and Wall (1993), can lead to changes in the value system, attitudes and language, changes in dress, eating habits and demand for consumer goods (Hernandez et. al., 1996).

Cognitive Consistency

Feldman (1995:323) defines cognitive consistency as,

“an approach to attitudes which focuses on the ways in which people strive to maintain consistency within and between attitudes and how they manage to reconcile inconsistencies of which they are aware”.

The concept of cognitive consistency is, people who have several beliefs and values which are inconsistent with one another will always try to make them consistent. One of the main theories in cognitive consistency is the Balance Theory (Heider, 1958). This theory considers the consistency among the affects within a simple cognitive system held by a person (Taylor, Peplau and Sears, 2000:136). According to Heider (1958), in Balance theory, if the attitudes toward a person or event are similar, the event is easily ascribed to the person.

In other words, balance exists when two different entities composing a unit have a same character and when a person has different attitudes toward two entities where one entity was not caused by the other. Thus, in simple terms, Taylor, Peplau and Sears (2000:136) describe Balance theory as shown in Figure 3.3 which involves;

1. the first person's evaluation of the other person,
2. the first person's evaluation of the attitude object, and,

3. the other person's evaluation of the attitude object.

Attitude change can occur in many ways. For example, in the psychological aspect (Figure 5.3), when Michelle likes her teacher and they both support abortion, then a balance system will occur. If Michelle does not like her teacher and both do not support abortion, an imbalance system will occur and this will pressure toward attitude change until they are balanced.

Cognitive Dissonance Theory

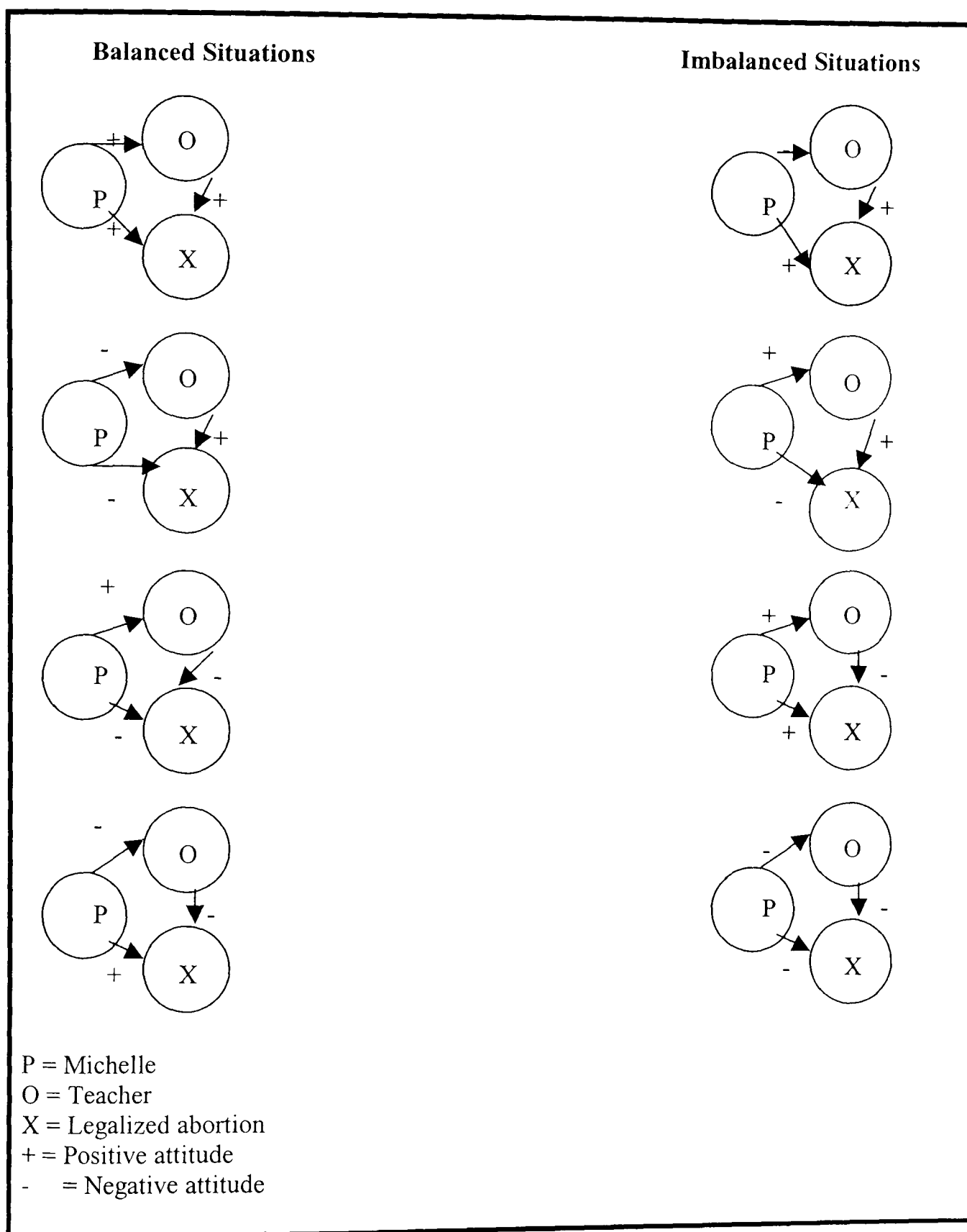
Festinger (1957:9) defines cognitive dissonance theory as,

“elements which refer to things a person knows about himself, about his behaviour and about his surroundings”.

Meanwhile, Feldman (1995:326) sees the cognitive dissonance theory as,

“a state of psychological tension which is aroused when a person simultaneously holds contradictory cognitions”.

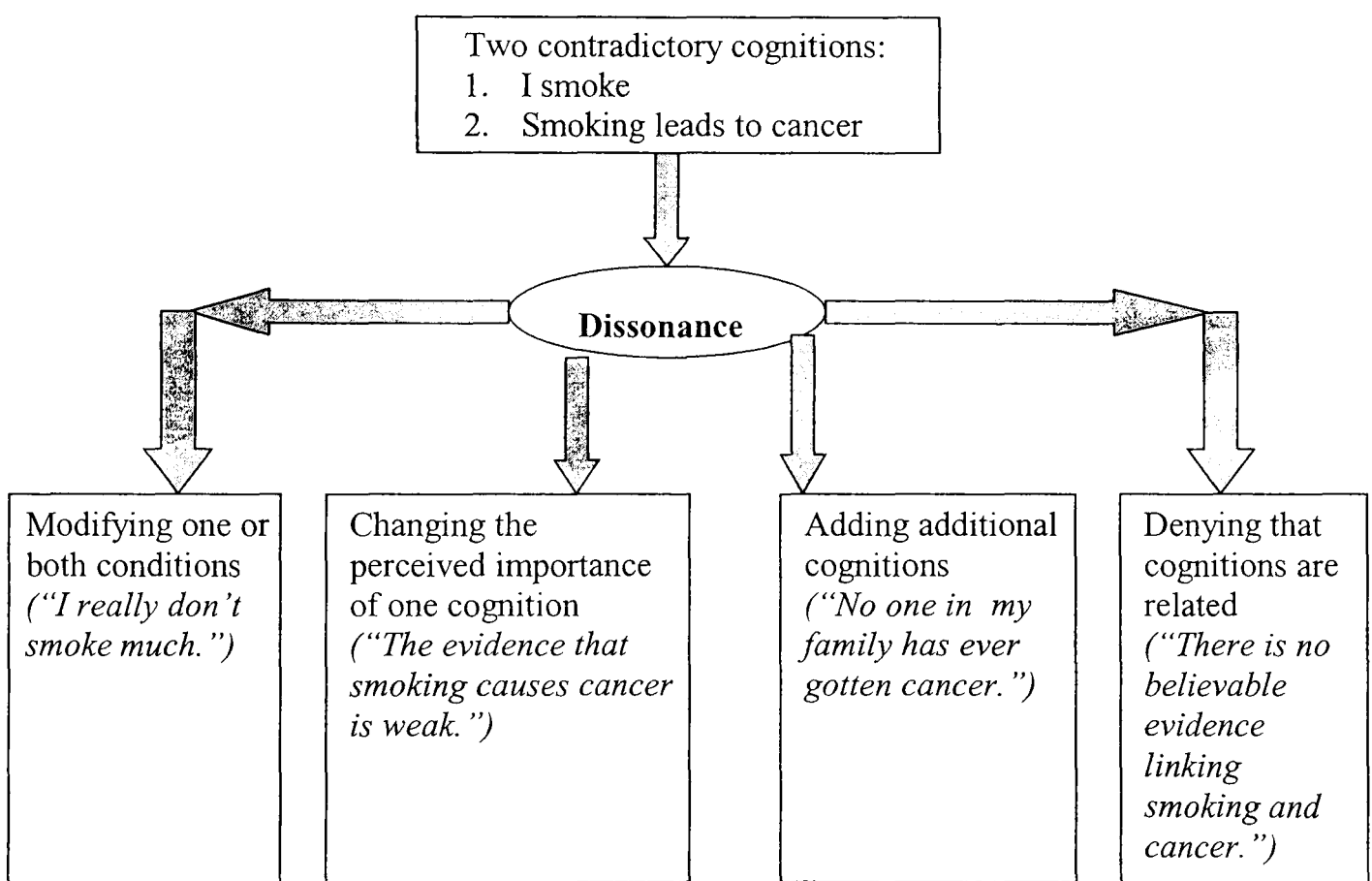
Figure 5.3 : The Balance Theory Model



Source: Taylor, Peplau and Sears (2000:137)

When a person experiences dissonance, he/she will try to reduce it in many ways either by modifying one of the cognitions, change one of the cognitions, add new cognitions or even deny that the two cognitions are related to one another. This is illustrated in Figure 5.4 where dissonance is produced by smoking.

Figure 5.4 : Cognitive Dissonance Theory



Source: Feldman (1995:327)

The process of changing attitude can occur in several situations. One of the situations is decision-making. When a person make a decision, all the aspects are consistent with the decision. Besides decision-making, dissonance can also occur to the effects of counter-

attitudinal behaviour or is known as attitude-discrepant behaviour. In this matter, dissonance occurs when a person holds a belief and performs an act which is inconsistent. Other situations can also produce dissonance such as threats, choice, commitment and effort.

Self-Perception Theory

A self-perception theory is a challenge to dissonance theory developed by Daryl Bem (Bem, 1967). According to Bem (1967),

“people come to be aware of their own dispositions, emotions, attitudes and other internal states in the same way which they learn about those of other people, through observation of behaviour”.

However, it is noted that the self-perception theory make the same prediction as the cognitive dissonance theory. The different between the two theories is that the dissonance theory reflects a strong predispositions attitudes where else the self-perception theory suggests an expressions of attitudes which are casual verbal statements. These differences are described by Sabini (1995) and is illustrated as in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 : Self-Perception Versus Cognitive Dissonance

Self-perception theory	Cognitive dissonance theory
Attitudes are inferred from behaviour.	Attitudes are directly known.
Attitudes in dissonance groups are rationally inferred.	Attitudes in dissonance groups are distortions.
There is no drive state (arousal) involved in dissonance.	Drive states (arousal) are necessarily a part of dissonance.

Source: Sabini (1995:547)

Expectancy-Value Theory

According to the Edwards model of behavioural decision theory (1954), when a person has to make a behavioural choice, he/she will select the alternative which has the highest subjective expected utility. It is defined as,

$$SEU = \sum_{i=1}^n SP_i U_i$$

where *SEU* is the subjective expected utility associated with a given alternative;

SP_i is the subjective probability where the choice of the alternative will lead to some outcome *i*;

U_i is the subjective value or utility of outcome *i* ;

n is the number of relevant outcomes.

This model is supported by Shah and Higgins (1997) where they assume that in adopting attitudes, people try to maximize the subjective utility of the various expected outcomes, which is the product of the value of a particular outcome and the expectancy the position will produce that outcome.

By taking into account both the expectancy and value, the expectancy-value theory can be summarized as,

“the current balance of incentives and predict which under conditions of conflicting goals, people will adopt the position which maximizes their gains” (Taylor, Peplau and Sears, 2000:145).

An example can be seen in the case of residents' attitudes toward tourism development. Even though tourism may lead to negative impacts, the residents will tend to perceive it as positive by trying to maximize their gains from the development, such as, increment in job opportunities and personal income; and improvement in standard of living and infrastructure (McCool and Martin, 1994; Hernandez et. al., 1996). The subjective expected utility in this case is to achieve a balance and sustainable tourism development.

Cognitive Response Theory

Greenwald (1968) and Petty and Brock (1981) assume that in cognitive response theory, people react to various aspects of a particular position with positive or negative thoughts. The key assumption according to Taylor, Peplau and Sears (2000:146) is that

people are active processors of information and generate cognitive responses to messages rather than passive recipients of the messages they happen to be exposed to. They stress that this theory of attitude change depends on the counterarguments of the message in response to persuasive communications.

All the theories discussed above are important in understanding how attitudes are changed. One may have different perceptions of attitudes based on the theory they refer to. Thus, it is obvious that a person cannot judge the other person's attitude towards an object as right or wrong.

ATTITUDE MEASUREMENT

In social psychology, attitude is considered as a hypothetical construct which means that the concept of attitude cannot be directly observed. The questions of measuring attitudes have been the issue back in the early years and until now, it is still discussed. For example, according to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), attitude measurement should be based on attitude toward the action of travelling to a specified destination, rather than on attitude toward the destination. Thus, this probably based on the Fishbein Theory (1963) where attitude is composed of a belief and evaluative components and depends on the purpose of the measurement. If the case is to measure attitude toward the destination, then the measurement should be more accurate if the attitude toward the destination is measured. This can be explained by the fact that attitude toward the destination can be significantly evaluated rather than the attitude toward the action of travelling.

Attitude measurement has also been used in several researches. In fact, it plays several roles in the marketing and promoting aspects. In the case of tourism, attitude measurement is used to provide a better understanding of the major vacation orientations which different households assume, to identify the perceptions held by potential tourists about various tourist-recreation regions and to determine potential visitors' perceptions of a country and its regions (McDougall and Munro, 1989). In fact, it has been proved that attitude is a significant indicator for predicting whether or not a vacation place is selected as a final destination (Um and Crompton, 1990).

In order to assess attitudes, several techniques have been developed. Firstly, the standard attitude measurement will be discussed and then will be followed by the four major techniques of measuring attitudes.

Standard Attitude Scaling

The standard measurement of attitudes is based on Fishbein's Theory (1963). According to the theory, an attitude is composed of a belief and evaluative components. The formula is expressed as;

$$A_o = \sum_{i=1}^N b_i a_i$$

where,

A_o = the attitude toward object o.

b_i = the strength of belief i about o , which is the probability that o is associated with some other concept (X_i).

a_i = the evaluative aspect of b_i which is the evaluation of X_i .

N = the number of beliefs about o which is the number of responses in the individual's habit-family-hierarchy.

From Fishbein's point of view, all beliefs about an object are related to an individual's attitude since they contain an evaluative aspect (Fishbein, 1963). In other words, the concept of this method is by taking into account both the belief and evaluative attributes of the object. Thus, a person's attitude toward an object is measured by the strength of his beliefs and evaluation of each attribute. This is the basic method in attitude measurement and it underlines most standard attitude scaling procedures.

Even though this method only measures the strength of the subject's beliefs, it has been used in several studies of tourism aspects such as, "Community Attachment and Attitudes toward Tourism Development" (McCool and Martin, 1994), "Residents' Attitudes towards An Instant Resort Enclave" (Hernandez et. al., 1996) and "Modeling Resident Attitudes toward Tourism" (Lindberg and Johnson, 1997).

Guttman Scale

According to Feldman (1995:322), the Guttman scale presents a gradation of attitudes ranging from the least extreme to the most extreme. This method composes of a set of items varying in a difficulty level and forms a perfect cumulative scale. Guttman (1944) has developed the method by assuming that people completing the scale will be able to endorse all the items up to a certain degree of extremity, but beyond that will no longer be able to endorse the rest.

This method is also taking into consideration both the beliefs and evaluative components. However, the procedure of this method is different to some degree where it is primarily concerned with testing the assumption rather than selecting a set of items from a larger pool (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975:68).

Table 5.2 shows an example of the Guttman scale of attitudes toward handguns control. There are nine statements regarding attitudes toward handguns which have a certain degree of extremity. It can be seen that people who agree with the statement that handguns should be banned would also agree with the earlier statements in the list, where else if they do not agree with the earlier statements, they would not be expected to agree with the more extreme statement regarding the ban of handguns.

Table 5.2 : Guttman Scale*Items from a Guttman scale of attitudes toward handgun control*

1. Institute a waiting period before a handgun can be purchased to allow for a criminal record check.
2. Require all persons to obtain a police permit before being allowed to purchase a handgun.
3. Require a license for all persons carrying a handgun outside their homes or places of business (except for law enforcement agents).
4. Require a mandatory fine for all persons carrying a handgun outside their homes or places of business without a license.
5. Require a mandatory jail term for all persons carrying a handgun outside their homes or places of business without a license.
6. Ban the future manufacturing and sale of non-sporting-type-handguns.
7. Ban the future manufacturing and sale of all handguns.
8. Use public funds to buy back and destroy existing handguns on a voluntary basis.
9. Use public funds to buy back and destroy existing handguns on a mandatory basis.

Discarded items

- A. A crackdown on *illegal* handgun sales.
- B. Strengthen the rules for becoming a commercial handgun dealer.
- C. Require a mandatory prison sentence for all persons using a handgun to commit a crime.
- D. Ban the manufacturing and sale of small, cheap and low-quality guns like the "Saturday Night Special".

Source: Feldman (1995:322)

Thurstone Scale

Unlike the Guttman Scale, the Thurstone Scale involves the collection of a large pool of belief items related to some attitude objects. By assuming that different items may express different degrees of favorableness or unfavourableness toward the object, this method is to specify the location of each item on the evaluative dimension by assigning a scale value to the item (Thurstone, 1931).

The next procedure in this scale involves the assessment of the items by a sample of judges selected. The judges will be asked to sort each item into one of eleven categories

ranging from “unfavorable”, “neutral” to “favorable” by considering equal intervals along the evaluative dimension. Based on the criterion of ambiguity, items on which judges disagree will be eliminated from the scale. The scale value of the items will then be determined by computing the score of the median and mean for each remaining item.

Likert Scale

The simple way to measure attitudes is by using a Likert scale. Several studies of attitudes in tourism have used the scale in order to measure attitudes of the respondents (Sheldon and Var, 1984; Perdue et. al., 1987; McCool and Martin, 1994; Lankford, 1997). Likert scale is a method where attitudes are measured by rating objects on the basis of a numbered evaluative response scale (Likert, 1932). Subjects are asked to indicate each item in a point scale either a five-point scale or up to seven-point scale.

For example, a seven-point scale is used where 7 is a score given to the strong agreements with favorable items and 1 is a score given to the strong disagreement. On the other hand, scoring is reversed for unfavorable items so that the disagreement with an unfavorable items result in a high score. The person’s attitude score is obtained by summing across all his item scores. In a case of a 100 items, attitude scores would range from 100 to 700, and the higher the score, the more favorable is the attitude. Table 5.3 and Table 5.4 present examples of Likert scale.

Table 5.3 : Likert Scale

Some items from the short form of the attitudes toward women scale

The statements listed below describe attitudes toward the role of women in society that different people have. There are no right or wrong answers, only opinions. You are asked to express your feeling about each statement by indicating whether you (A) agree strongly, (B) agree mildly, (C) disagree mildly, or (D) disagree strongly. Please indicate your opinion by indicating either A, B, C or D for each item.

1. Swearing and obscenity are more repulsive in the speech of a woman than of a man.
2. Women should take increasing responsibility for leadership in solving the intellectual and social problems of the day.
3. Both husband and wife should be allowed the same grounds for divorce.
4. Intoxication among women is worse than intoxication among men.
5. Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing laundry.
6. There should be a strict merit system in job appointment and promotion without regard to sex.
7. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.
8. Women earning as much as their dates should bear equally the expense when they go out together.
9. It is ridiculous for women to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks.
10. Women should be encouraged not to become sexually intimate with anyone before marriage, even their fiancés.
11. The husband should not be favored by law over the wife in the disposal of family property or income.
12. The modern girl is entitled to the same freedom from regulation and control that is given to the modern boy.

Source: Feldman (1995:321)

Table 5.4 : Community Tourism Survey

PART I Please give us your opinion by circling the category which best describes your level of AGREEMENT with the following statements. There are no right or wrong answers. (Circle one number)

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I attach great importance to tourism in Fredericksburg					
Tourism is like a gift to Fredericksburg because of the benefits it provides					
It is really annoying to see tourism being encouraged in Fredericksburg because tourism is not appropriate here					
The "Marktplatz" project will benefit Fredericksburg					
Having tourism in Fredericksburg is a pleasure					

Source: Crompton and Ap (1994)

Semantic Differential Technique

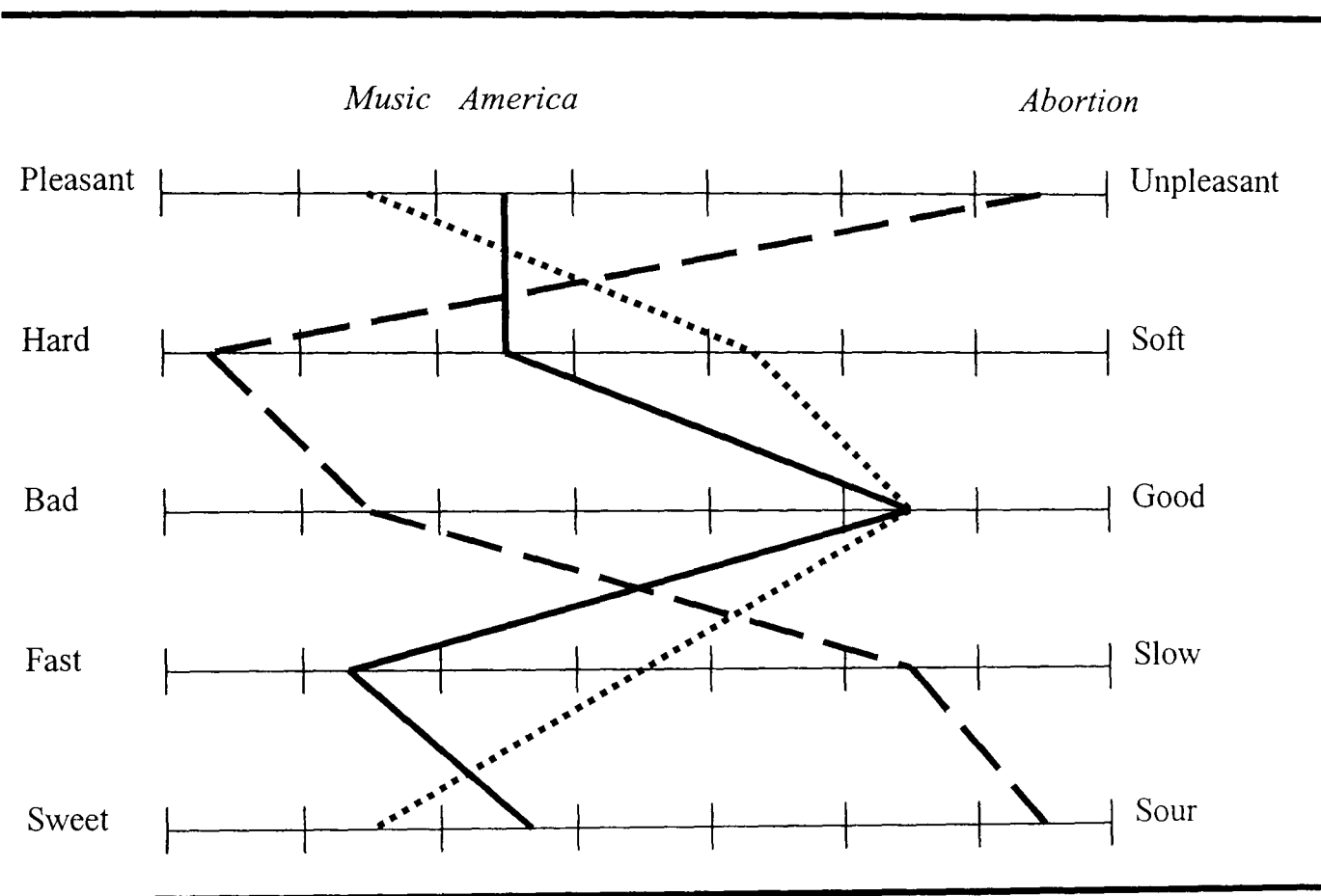
Since attitudes consist of several aspects, a method of assessing a specific aspect has been developed by Osgood (1952). The main purpose of this method is to become an instrument for the measurement of meaning (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975:73).

The method is defined as,

“an approach to the measurement of attitudes in which objects are rated on the basis of a pair of adjectives which are opposites, such as good/bad, attractive/unattractive”
(Feldman, 1995:321).

In this method, a set of bipolar adjective is used where one or more concepts are provided to respondents to differentiate them. Respondents will then be asked to rate each concept on each scale where it is assumed that the concepts have similar profiles. Figure 5.5 illustrates the hypothetical profiles for three concepts rated on five bipolar adjective scales.

Figure 5.5 : Semantic Differential Technique



Source: Fishbein and Ajzen (1975:74)

The four methods of assessing attitudes have their own advantages and disadvantages. In fact they have their own purposes in measuring attitudes. In order to see the differences between the four methods, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) categorize them into two main aspects which are “*properties of items*” and “*properties of attitude scores*”.

Properties of items refer to an evaluative dimension by assigning attitude scores while properties of attitude scores refer to the computation of attitude scores. Table 5.5 describes the comparison in more details.

Table 5.5 : A Comparison of the Four Attitude Scales

	Guttman	Thurstone	Likert	Semantic Differential
<i>Properties of Items</i>				
Quantification	ordinal	“interval”	qualitative	-
Neutral items retained	yes	yes	no	no
Tracelines	monotonic (step-shaped)	nonmonotonic (inverted U)	monotonic (linear)	monotonic (linear)
Cumulative scale	yes	no	no	no
Item selection	response- inferred	response- inferred and judgemental	response- inferred	response- inferred
<i>Properties of Attitude Scores</i>				
Values of b	0, +- 1	0, 1	-2 to +-2	0 to 3
Values of e	+1	-5 to +5	-1, +1	-1, +1
Values of $b \times e$	0, 1	-5 to +5	-2 to +2	-3 to +3
Disbeliefs	yes	no	yes	no
Computational formulas	$E b_i e_i$	$E b_i e_i / E b_i$	$E b_i e_i$	$E b_i e_i$ or $E b_i e_i / n$
Quantification	ordinal	“interval”	ordinal	“interval”

Source: Fishbein and Ajzen (1975:79)

DEVELOPMENT OF AN ATTITUDINAL SCALE

Generally, there are three approaches in developing a scale. All three have their own advantages and in fact, they can fit the situation depending on the purpose of the research. The first approach is by selecting an existing scale and testing it within a different concept or other destinations. At present, there are two main existing scales which have been developed to measure attitudes toward tourism. The first one is known as TIAS (Tourism Impact Attitude Scale: Lankford and Howard, 1994) which has been tested in several studies within a different destinations (Lankford, 1997; Collins, 1997; Schneider et. al., 1997).

TIAS has four steps, begins with generation of items, follows by pretest scale, scale purification and finally, scale verification. In the first step, a panel of four judges has been selected to assess the clarity and reliability of the scale. TIAS has 27 items with two factors; Factor 1 is comprised of 18 items and is identified as “concern for local tourism development” where else factor 2 is comprised of nine items and is identified as “personal and community benefits”. Even though the scale contributes to the methodological and conceptual framework of understanding resident attitudes, it is still an incomplete scale validation. Thus, replications of the study in measuring impacts need to be undertaken in different settings as suggested by Preglau (1994).

The second scale which is based on the consequences existed in TIAS has been developed by Ap and Crompton (1998). The scale involves six steps and ends with a 35-item out of 147 tourism impact items. The first step is development of an item pool (generation of items), the second step involves a selection of seven panel judges to assess the clarity and reliability of the scale and to reduce the items into a small number, the third step is item wording, the fourth step is purification of the scale, the fifth step is the scale verification and finally, the last step is the assessment of convergent validity. The procedures of developing this scale are shown in Table 5.6.

Even though it is a valid instrument for measuring attitude, the scale has not been tested for the study considering the fact that it has not been tested in other community besides the one tested by Ap and Crompton (1998). It is also based on the purpose of the study

which is to develop a scale in relation to tourism impacts of Langkawi. Thus, the scale is only used on the basis of comparing it with the new scale.

Table 5.6 : Scale Development and Purification Procedures

Stage Number	Procedure	Total Number of Items
1	Generation of initial item pool from 38 personal interviews and literature review	147
2	Items remaining after assessment for content validity by seven expert judges	82
3	Items loading saliently on specified a priori domains in a factor analysis of pretest data collected from 416 college students	29
4	Inclusion of 10 items to measure the physical/environmental domain, which did not emerge as a coherent independent dimension in the pretest. These items were selected by reliability analysis (Cronbach's alpha) from among items that were a priori assigned to the physical/environment by the expert judges (Stage 2)	39
5	Addition of two items to each of three domains that emerge in the pretests with relatively low Cronbach's alphas. These items were selected by reliability analysis on the pretest data	45
6	Items loading saliently (.40 or greater) on domains in a factor analysis of the aggregate data from 958 respondents in the three sample communities	35

Source: Ap and Crompton (1998:125)

Besides the two previous scales, Delamere (1998) also developed a scale for measuring attitude which is known as FSIAS (Festival Social Impact Analysis Scale). The scale has been developed for the purpose of measuring resident attitudes toward the social impacts of community festivals and has been tested on the Cloverdale of Edmonton, Alberta, Canada and the Edmonton Folk Music Festival. The scale has not been used in the study since it has been developed to measure resident attitudes toward the social impacts of

tourism, based on the community festivals only. In accordance to the three existing scales, there still should be a further study on developing a new scale within different destinations using a different approach.

The second approach of developing a scale is by modifying an existing scale or introducing a new set of items to the scale. This can be done by taking into account the existing scales and modifying them in order to fit the concept, community or destinations of the study. In fact, one can only introduce a new set of items and use the scale as a new instrument for measuring attitude. The approach is not appropriate to be used for this study considering the fact that all the existing scales have been tested only on the Western community. Testing them in Langkawi would probably end by eliminating several items which are considered important in relation to tourism impacts of Langkawi. Thus, the study has chosen the third approach which is developing a new scale. It follows a procedure introduced by Churchill (1979).

The procedure for developing a better scale which is valid and reliable, has also been recognized by Antil and Bennett (1979). This procedure is used to design a multiple item scale and consists of eight major steps;

➤ *Step 1: Specify domain of construct.*

The first step involves a great understanding of the definition of the subject. A very well defined subject and what should be included or excluded from the subject is stressed. In the case of developing an attitudinal scale, the “attitude” is the construct which needs to be specified and defined clearly.

➤ *Step 2: Generate sample of items.*

The second step involves the generation of items which can measure the construct and in this case, it is the “attitude”. According to Selltiz, Wrightsman and Cook (1976), the approach can be done through exploratory research, literature searches, experience surveys and insight stimulating examples. It can also be generated through open-ended interviews or focus group.

All the variables, components and dimensions which are used to define the construct should be indicated in the sample generated. All the items generated will be carefully edited. Items which are redundant, ambiguous and not clearly represented the construct will be eliminated and the remaining items will be used to collect data.

➤ *Step 3: Data collection.*

After all the relevant items have been generated, they will be used for the purpose of data collection. Usually, the process begins by testing the data on a pretest sample.

➤ *Step 4: Purify the measure.*

The fourth step involves the purifying of the measurement. This will involve two calculations. The first measure is the coefficient alpha which need to be used in order to assess the quality of the instrument (Cronbach, 1951). A large coefficient alpha will indicate the sample of items correlate with the true scores where else, a low coefficient alpha will indicate conversely. The next measure is the factor analysis which is used to

identify items correlated highly with one another. Factor analysis is also used to confirm whether the number of dimensions conceptualized can be verified empirically.

➤ *Step 5: Collect new data.*

The next procedure is to collect new data for the study. This new data has to be the sample which represented the population of the study.

➤ *Step 6: Assess reliability.*

The new data will then be assessed in order to gain reliability for the scale. In order to purify them, the procedure in step four is used where the data will be analyzed using Cronbach's coefficient alpha and factor analysis.

➤ *Step 7: Assess validity.*

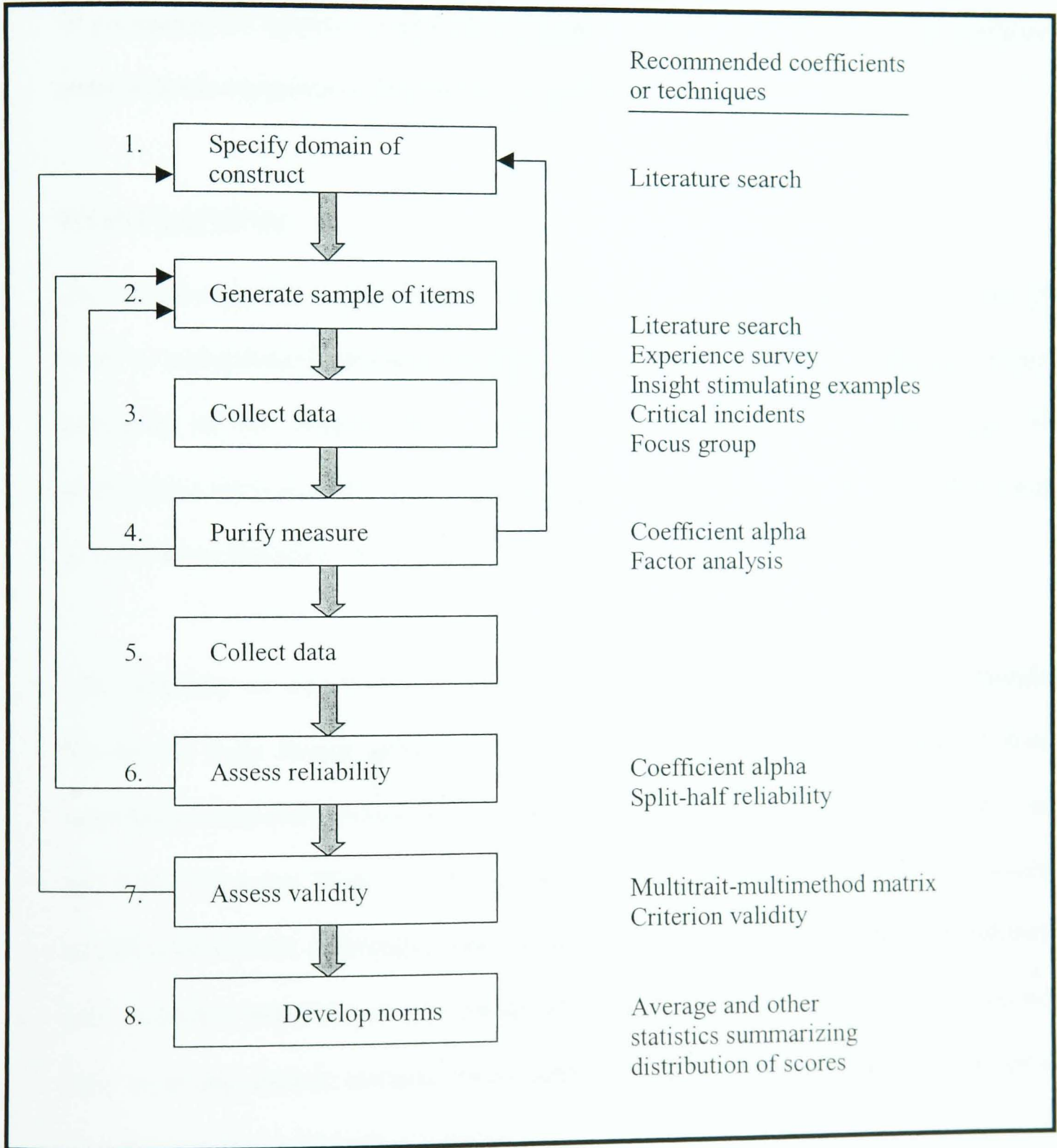
In order to develop a valid and reliable scale, the most important part is to assess the validity of the construct. By assessing the validity of the construct, the questions of to what extent does the measure correlate with other measure designed to measure the same thing and whether it behaves as expected, are answered.

➤ *Step 8: Developing norms.*

Developing norms is the process where one person's score is compared with other person's score. The purpose is to assess the position of the individual on the characteristic.

The procedure for developing a better scale is presented as in Figure 5.6

Figure 5.6 : Procedure for Developing a Better Scale



Source: Churchill (1979:66)

The steps taken in developing the scale has been discussed thoroughly in Chapter 7. The rationale of using this approach is basically based on the objectives of the study. It can be seen that by using this approach, the items selected in the scale would be significant in presenting the impacts of tourism in Langkawi. Thus, it would measure the attitudes more accurate compared to the other two approaches.

CONCLUSION

This chapter generally describes the development of an attitudinal scale. However, in order to understand its concept and theory, the meaning of attitude is discussed at the beginning of the chapter. Since attitude plays many roles in different parts of philosophies such as sociology, psychology, geography and tourism, it is very important to know what attitude is composed of.

The difficulty in understanding attitude has led to the knowledge of the attitude foundation. Even though attitude has been variously defined, it is composed of three main basic components which are affective, behavioural and cognitive. This is known as the ABC Tripartite Model. In the social psychological aspect, attitudes are closely related to behaviour, perception, intention and opinion. A person's attitude is sometimes seen as his/her behaviour or perceptions of a certain object or issue. Thus, there is no right or wrong attitude towards certain object. In fact, there is no argument on one's attitude since it consists of one's belief.

Several types of measurement have been identified in dealing with attitude change. Each measurement has its own advantages depending on the purpose of the research. Such known measurements are Likert Scale, Thurstone Scale, Semantic Differential Technique and Guttman Scale. However, the basic standard attitude measurement technique takes into consideration both the belief and evaluative components of attitude. The different approaches to measurement are discussed in detail for the purpose of understanding how attitude is changed and why it can be changed.

Since attitude is a very complex subject to measure, it is very important to develop a standardized scale which is reliable and valid. A scale can be developed either by taking an existing scale, by modifying the scale or creating a new scale. Most attitude scale development is based on the recommendations by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (1991). Even though there are many studies on measuring resident attitudes towards tourism impacts, up to this point only two standardized scale have been developed. However, both scales still need to be studied in detail since there are certain aspects which may influence the resident attitude.

Overall, this chapter covers the attitude concept and how it plays an important role in determining the progress of tourism development. Even if one just used the first approach which is taking an existing scale and testing it within another concept, the end result is to come out with a strong reliability and validity of the scale. Thus, the procedures recommended by Churchill (1979), DeVellis (1991), Lankford and Howard (1994) and Ap and Crompton (1998) can be used as a guideline to begin constructing the

scale. In fact, one can modify the procedures by adding a new step or even eliminating a few steps which are not relevant and still comes out with a new, reliable and valid attitudinal scale.

CHAPTER 6

METHODOLOGY

بشكل مفصّل وواضح
(1) تقسيم الدراسة

INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the strategy of the study in detail. It is divided into five sections.

The first section discusses the design of the study. It explains the types of research in detail and justifies the approach selected for the study. The instrument used for collecting data is also described in the section. Finally, the section ends by discussing the method of time horizon used in the study.

(2) عينة الدراسة -
دراسة الكال تم شرح تصميم العينة ، ثم دراسة الصناديق الموجودة ثم اختيار طريقة الدراسة

The second section explains the sampling design of the study. It starts by discussing the population of the study and follows by explaining the types of sample design. The next part in the section discusses the various sampling methods available and focuses on the method chosen for the study. The selected sample size and how it is determined are described in the last part of the section.

3- جمع البيانات
أنواع البيانات الجاهزة وجمعها من الدراسات ثم شرح الطرق المستخدمة في هذه الدراسة

Data collection is discussed in the third section of the chapter. It describes the types of data collected in various research studies and stresses the method used in this study. The fourth section of the chapter presents the method of data analysis used in the study. The main statistical technique used – factor analysis, is described in detail. The section also

4- تفسير النتائج
التحليل الإحصائي للبيانات
تحليل العوامل

describes Cronbach's coefficient alpha analysis for testing the reliability of the scale and, Pearson's correlation analysis for testing the convergent validity of the scale. The section ends by discussing cross-tabulation technique and chi-square analysis in testing whether or not culture is a factor in determining attitude. Finally, the chapter concludes by summarizing all the sections.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is an important part of a research study to achieve its objectives. Research design varies according to the nature of the research objectives. It also constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. It is the plan and structure of investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions (Emory, 1991:138).

Types of research

Generally, research can be divided into three main categories; exploratory, descriptive and causal. The categories differ in terms of research purpose, research questions, the method of data collection and the hypotheses which are formed.

Descriptive research is used to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or a situation. It can be in terms of qualitative or quantitative and requires extensive previous knowledge of the situation to be studied. Descriptive research is also undertaken for the purpose of describing the characteristics of variables in certain situations. Thus, it is to learn the who, what, when, where, and how of a topic (Emory, 1991:148). Descriptive

research also helps to make certain simple decisions, aid in thinking systematically about aspects in a given situation, and offer ideas for further probing and research.

According to Sekaran (1992:100), research is called causal when the researcher wants to delineate the cause of a problem. It is also known as explanatory research and can be in terms of qualitative or quantitative. In simple terms, causal research is used to show which one variable cause or determines the values of other variables. In causal research, the research questions and hypotheses are very specific due to the demand in proofing the causality.

دراسة استكشافية
This study is an exploratory study since it is focused on developing and establishing a valid approach to exploring defined issues in Langkawi. Exploratory research is used in order to understand the nature of the problem. Thus, exploratory research is important in the area where the researcher needs to learn about the problems in a new or rather vague phenomena. In addition, Aaker (1990:61) defines exploratory research as research used when one is seeking insights into the general nature of a problem, the possible decision alternatives and relevant variables which need to be considered.

The first step in exploratory research is searching for literature. A literature search is believed to provide an excellent background on the areas of interest. As for this study, it was also the first step in the model of developing the scale. A literature search was done for the purpose of generating the items in order to gain new items for the proposed scale.

Besides the literature search, experience survey and a pretest survey were also used in the study.

Research Instrument

A research instrument is a tool used in a study for data collection. A questionnaire is an efficient research instrument to use when the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variables of interest (Sekaran, 1992:200). It is a preformulated written set of questions, which can be administered personally, electronically or mailed to respondents.

Questionnaires were used in this study to gain information and data from the respondents. There were three different questionnaires in the study to achieve different objectives. The advantages of using a questionnaire as a research instrument differ in terms of the methods used. A personally administered questionnaire is best to use because the researcher can collect all the completed responses within a short period of time. In relation to that, the researcher can also clarify any question on the spot. It is also considered as a less expensive and less time consuming compared to an interview.

The first questionnaire was designed for the purpose of assessing content validity and clarity of the items. Content validity of a measuring instrument is defined as the extent to which it provides adequate coverage of the topic. According to Emory (1991:180), using a panel of persons to judge how well the instrument meets the standard is one way to determine content validity. Thus, the questionnaire was mailed to a panel of expert

judges (Appendix A). Mailed questionnaires have advantages in covering a wide geographical area. In addition, respondents can complete the questionnaire at their own convenience and pace. However, in order for the questionnaires to reach the judges in a short period of time, the questionnaires were sent via e-mail.

The questionnaire consisted of four parts (Appendix B). Part I of the questionnaire was designed in order to assess the degree of representation of tourism impacts. The judges were asked to indicate whether the item was, (1) *clearly representative of a tourism impact*, (2) *somewhat representative of a tourism impact*, or (3) *not representative of a tourism impact*.

Part II of the questionnaire asked the judges to identify items which were objectionable to respondents by indicating if the item was (1) *yes, objectionable to respondents* or (2) *no, not objectionable to respondents*. On part III, the judges were asked to classify the items into tourism impact domains by indicating if the items were in the, (1) *economic domain*, (2) *environmental domain*, (3) *social and cultural domain*, or (4) *other domain to be specified*. Finally, on part IV, an open-ended question was developed where the judges were asked to give their comments and suggestions in order to enhance clarity, reliability and content validity of the scale.

The second questionnaire was designed for the pretest sample (Appendix C). It followed the results of the first questionnaire. Items which remained from the analysis of the first questionnaire were stated in the second questionnaire. The purpose was only to

determine the tourism impact items. Therefore, the questionnaire was designed as simply as possible and was distributed to students of the Northern University of Malaysia. The students were asked to indicate if they believed the item is, (P) *a positive impact*, (N) *a negative impact*, or (X) *neither a positive nor a negative impact*. Then, if they believed the item to be a positive or negative impact, they were asked again to indicate the level of importance of each item by indicating, (1) *unimportant*, (2) *somewhat unimportant*, (3) *neither unimportant nor important*, (4) *somewhat important*, or (5) *important*.

The final questionnaire was designed for the purpose of formulating the items into an initial instrument format (Appendix D). A concept of an index of tourism impacts was formulated in order to avoid ambiguity in interpretation. The concept was based on Fishbein's Attitude Model (Fishbein, 1963). According to Fishbein, "*a significantly better estimate of attitude is found by taking both the belief and evaluative aspects of an object into account*". Thus, the study used a formula of,

$$A_o = \sum_{i=1}^N b_i a_i$$

Where, A_o = attitude toward the object

b_i = belief component

a_i = evaluative component

In order to measure both the belief and evaluative component, a Likert scale was used in the study. Likert scale was selected due to its advantages as being easy to develop and very widely used (Robson, 1993:256). A Likert scale or also known as a summated scale, requires a respondent to indicate a degree of agreement or disagreement with a variety of statements related to the attitude object.

In measuring the belief component, Part I of the questionnaire asked the respondents to indicate the level of change caused by tourism. A five-point Likert scale was used to rate the level of change associated with each item by indicating, 1 = *large decrease*, 2 = *moderate decrease*, 3 = *no change*, 4 = *moderate increase*, and 5 = *large increase*. An additional sixth-point was placed as a category for “*do not know*” response.

Meanwhile, Part II of the questionnaire consisted of items used to measure the evaluative component. A five-point Likert scale was used to measure the level of like/dislike by indicating, 1 = *dislike*, 2 = *somewhat dislike*, 3 = *neither like nor dislike*, 4 = *somewhat like*, and 5 = *like*.

The final part of the questionnaire required some information about the respondent. Close-ended questions were used by stating, 1 = *Yes* and 2 = *No*. The respondents were asked, (1) whether they were employed in a tourism related job, and (2) whether they like the changes brought about by tourism. In addition, using a ratio scale, the respondents were also asked (1) the number of years living in Langkawi, (2) their age

group and (3) their racial group. The final questionnaire was then translated into “Bahasa Malaysia” before distributing to the respondents (Appendix E).

Time Horizon

There are two main categories of time horizon in a study. A longitudinal study involves data collection at more than one point in time. The advantage of a longitudinal study is that it can track changes which occur over time. It is divided into three types:

- trend study, which compare data across time intervals on different subjects; تعارف البيناء الذي غير ليس
المدوا مشع مختلف
- cohort study, which compare data on subjects across time whose age differences parallel the time intervals; and معتبرياتنا عملوا منهم غير زمن
- panel study, which compare changes in the same subjects as they occur across time. مقارنته غيرات نفس المواضع كما هذات غير الزمن

The other study is known as a cross-sectional study. It is a study where data are collected just once, perhaps over a period of days, weeks or months, in order to answer a research question. According to Baker (1999:91), a cross-sectional study can accomplish the aim of exploratory research. Thus, this study was a cross-sectional study. Even though there were three stages of data collection, all the data were collected only once. In stage one, the data were collected over three month period of time and in stage two and three, the data collection only took about a week.

SAMPLING DESIGN

Sampling is linked to the external validity of the findings in an enquiry. Generally, it is the extent to what the study has found in a particular situation at a particular time. In

simple terms, sampling refers to “planned ways of selecting subjects” (Baker, 1999:134).

Sampling involves taking any portion of a population, or universe, as representative of that population or universe. In relation to sampling, population refers to all the cases. According to Aaker (1990:351), population needs to be defined properly and accurately to avoid answering the wrong question. Population can be the entire group of people, events or things of interest depends on the objective of the research. Thus, the population of the study was the residents of Langkawi. The residents were defined as people who stayed and lived in Langkawi for more than a year, and were still living there at the time the study was conducted. At that time, the population of Langkawi consisted of 62,617 people.

Since the population represented a wide frame of interest, only some elements of the population were selected for the study purposes. The selected element is known as a sample. In other words, a sample is a subset of the population. According to Sekaran (1992:226), by studying the sample, the researcher would be able to draw conclusions that would be generalizable to the population of interest. Thus, the sample for the study was selected from each district of Langkawi; Kuah, Padang Matsirat, Ayer Hangat, Bohor, Ulu Melaka and Kedawang. The sample is usually drawn from a compiled list of elements which is known as a sampling frame. Each district of Langkawi had its own sampling frame which can be obtained from “*Penghulu Mukim*” (District Leader). However, since the sample size of the study was small, the sampling frame was not used

to gain the sample. The method of obtaining the sample is discussed in the section of data collection.

Types of Sample Design

There are two major types of sampling design in research; probability and nonprobability sampling. Nonprobability sampling occurs when the probability of inclusion of any element from the sampling frame cannot be determined (Sedlack, 1992:125). Furthermore, nonprobability sampling is also acceptable when there is no intention or need to make a statistical generalization to any population beyond the sample surveyed (Robson, 1993:140).

Nonprobability sampling also has its disadvantages. The results of using nonprobability sampling can contain hidden biases and uncertainties. Besides that, the range within which to expect the population parameter to fall cannot be estimated by the researcher.

There are several methods of nonprobability sampling:

- **Judgemental Sampling** involves the choice of subjects who are in the best position to provide the information required. Meaning, the researcher is free to select any element which the researcher deems appropriate. This method is also quite appropriate when an exploratory study is used and when one wishes to select a biased group for screening purposes.

- Quota Sampling involves a strategy to obtain representatives of the various elements of a population in the proportions which they occur in the population. It is based on demographic data such as age, sex, geographic location, education and income. In simple terms, quota sampling is defined as nonprobability sample in which subsamples are selected from clearly defined groups.

تتميز هذه الطريقة بكونها غير عشوائية وتتميز بكونها غير احتمالية.

- Snowball Sampling is built from the subjects suggested by previous subjects. This method involves a person selected for study assists the researcher by identifying other relevant people. It is very appropriate when using a small and specialized population.

- Convenience Sampling involves choosing the nearest and most convenient persons to act as respondents. It is also known as an Accidental Sampling. In other words, a convenience sampling involves collecting information from members of the population who are conveniently available to provide the information required.

العينة بالسهولة في الوصول إليها

This study used probability sampling since the sampling frame can be identified. Probability sampling is defined as one in which the likelihood of selecting any one element from the sampling frame is known (Sedlack, 1992:125). Besides the sampling frame, the practical reason for using probability sampling in the study was because the procedure satisfactorily met the sampling objectives, and it was the only feasible alternative and the best method of sampling which can be used for the study. There are several methods of probability sampling:

-
- Simple random sampling is an approach in which each population member and each possible sample has an equal probability of being selected. In order to do this, two preconditions must be met; one is generating an accurate listing of the sampling frame and, two is deciding in advance the sample size desired for the study.

 - Stratified sampling is an approach where the population is divided into a number of groups or strata where each member shares a particular characteristic. There are three preconditions applied to this approach. The first one is to possess an accurate list of sampling frame, the second is to decide upon the sample size and the third is to have accurate information on the stratification factor or factors.

 - Cluster sampling is an approach where the population is divided into subgroups, termed clusters. It has more heterogeneity within groups and more homogeneity among groups compared to stratified sampling. One advantage of cluster sampling is that it assumes an accurate list of the groups of elements. In other words, the sampling frame is not required in the approach.

 - Multistage sampling is an approach where samples are selecting in stages, for example, taking samples from another sample. This type of sampling is virtually inevitable when surveying from an urban sampling frame.

Another method of probability sampling is known as Probability Proportionate to Size (PPS). It is used when every member of the sampling frame has an equal probability of

being selected or whether the sample is deliberately designed to select proportionately to the size of the area or strata (Baker, 1999:154). Since there were six districts or areas of Langkawi and the sample size had already been determined by the items in the questionnaire, this study had used PPS as the sampling method. The results are discussed in the next section.

Sample Size

According to Sekaran (1992:244), a reliable and valid sample should enable a researcher to generalize the findings from the sample to the population which is under investigation. Thus, a sample size is one aspect which plays an important role in a study. In determining a sample size, the researcher must first consider several criteria. First, it is very important to consider the degree of heterogeneity within the sampling frame concerning the variables of interest. Meaning, if the sampling frame has greater variation, then the sample size must be larger.

Second, one must consider the degree to which the error is acceptable due to having a sample which is not representative of the sampling frame. In simple terms, the larger the sample size, the smaller will be the sampling error. The third criteria is the sampling procedure to be employed. The researcher need to know for sure the practical reasons for applying the method because the sample size is also determined by the sampling method used for the study. For example, a simple random sampling would need a smaller sample than a cluster sampling.

The research objective is the fourth criteria which also need to be considered. An exploratory study at the first stage might need only a small sample size compared to a descriptive study. Other considerations are the number of groups and subgroups within the sample, the value of the information in the study and the cost of the sample (Aaker, 1990; Emory, 1991).

There are also several methods for calculating the sample size of a study. Sudman (1976) suggests the use of rules of thumb where, if the population is divided into groups, each group will have a minimum sample size of 100 or more. Roscoe (1975) also proposes that the appropriate sample size for most research is larger than 30 and less than 500, and if the samples are broken into subsamples, a minimum sample size of 30 for each category is necessary. The following is suggested as a mathematical formula in determining sample size:

$$n = \left[\frac{Z\hat{\sigma}}{\bar{x}} \right]^2$$

where; n = sample size

Z = standard score appropriate to one's chosen level of significance

$\hat{\sigma}$ = estimate of the population standard deviation

\bar{x} = desired descriptive statistic

For example, if the value of Z is 1.96, \hat{g} is 3.82 and $\bar{\alpha}$ is at the 0.5 level of significance, then the sample size would be;

$$\begin{aligned} n &= \left[\frac{(1.96)(3.82)}{0.5} \right]^2 \\ &= 225 \end{aligned}$$

As mentioned, the study used PPS as the sampling method. The sample size was determined by the items remaining in the pretest questionnaire. This was based on the statistical method of measuring the scale which was by using factor analysis. According to Tinsley and Tinsley (1987), the criteria for factor analysis is there should be a minimum of five cases for every item. Thus, the items remained were 29 and the sample size was calculated as 145 respondents.

To enable every resident in each district to have an equal chance of being drawn into the sample, the number of residents in the district was divided by the total number of residents in Langkawi, and multiplied by the number of sample size. The sample size for each district is presented below (Table 6.1).

Table 6.1: Sample Size for Each District of Langkawi

District	Number of Residents	Number of Sample
Kuah	23,750	55
Ulu Melaka	9,417	22
Ayer Hangat	8,458	20
Kedawang	8,050	19
Padang Matsirat	7,654	18
Bohor	5,288	11
Total	62,617	145

DATA COLLECTION

Data can be collected in a variety of ways and from different sources. There are two main sources of data collection; primary and secondary. Both sources have their own methods on how the data can be collected.

Primary Data

In simple terms, primary data means collecting original data. Primary data sources can be from individuals, groups or a panel of respondents who are specifically set up by the researcher in order to gain information or opinions on specific issues. To achieve its objectives, this study used primary data as its main source of data collection.

There are several methods of primary data collection. Questionnaires, interviewing, and observing are the three methods usually used in survey research. Interviews fall into two

categories, structured and unstructured. When the researcher knows what information is needed and has a predetermined list of questions to ask the respondents, the interviews are known as the structured interviews (Sekaran, 1992:192). The interviews were used in the study by using a focus group for the purpose of generating the items. Meanwhile, when the researcher does not set a planned sequence of questions to ask the respondents, the interviews are known as unstructured interviews.

Researches can also use observation as a method of collecting primary data. The researcher plays two roles in the method; either as a participant-observer or a nonparticipant-observer. When the researcher enters the research setting by becoming a part of the team-work, he/she is known as the participant-observer. The researcher is known as a nonparticipant-observer when he/she enters the research setting without becoming an integral part of the organization system.

Questionnaires were the main method used in the study and has been discussed in the section on research instruments. There were three stages of data collection with three different objectives. The first questionnaires were distributed to the panel judges via e-mail. The practical reasons for using e-mail were because it did not cost a lot of money and was less time consuming. Nine judges were selected, five of them were international judges and the other four were local judges. All the judges had expertise in the study's subject of interest.

The second questionnaires were distributed to a pretest sample. 220 students were selected for the pretest. The sample size was based on the items remaining after evaluation made by the panel judges. The questionnaires were distributed in several classes at the Northern University of Malaysia. The students were asked to take home the questionnaires and returned them in a week. The purpose was to let them answer the questionnaires without any pressure since they came from different backgrounds and probably none at all in tourism.

The final questionnaires were distributed in each district of Langkawi. Two research assistants were used to distribute the questionnaires. Both of them were briefed on what should be done and what to expect from the respondents. One of the research assistants distributed questionnaires in Kuah, Bohor and Padang Matsirat while the other in Ulu Melaka, Ayer Hangat and Kedawang. The distribution of districts were based on the number of sample size, thus, the research assistants had a balance in number of respondents. The questionnaires were distributed from house to house in the district until the number of sample size was reached. To avoid bias in the answer, only one member of the house was asked to answer the questionnaire. The questionnaires were collected at the same time and the process of data collection in Langkawi took about a week.

Secondary Data

The other source of data collection is known as secondary data. Secondary data is where the specification, collection and recording of the data are done by someone other than the user (Aaker, 1990:98). In simple terms, secondary data are studies made by others

for another purpose. There are two types of secondary data sources; internal and external.

Departmental reports, financial and accounting reports and marketing sales reports are examples of internal sources of secondary data. The information can be gained from computer databases, files and sometimes the library of the organization involved. Published sources are considered as the external sources of secondary data. Such published sources are computerized databases, books, periodicals, government's document and company publications.

In the case of this study, both internal and external sources of secondary data were used to gain information on Malaysia and Langkawi. The information was gained from the library of the MTPB, LADA, Northern University of Malaysia and University of Strathclyde. In addition, information was also gained from published articles, books and web-sites. Statistical reports on tourism in Malaysia and Langkawi were gained mostly from the computer databases prepared by MTPB and LADA. Besides that, published articles and books were also the major sources for related literature search of the study.

DATA ANALYSIS

The data were analyzed using *SPSS* (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) *10.0 for Windows*. Since the objective of the study was to develop a scale, the main statistical analysis used was factor analysis. In order to test for its reliability and convergent validity, Cronbach's coefficient alpha analysis and Pearson's correlation analysis were

used. The steps were based on a procedure for developing a better scale suggested by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (1991).

However, as for the panel of expert judges, the analysis was different due the purpose which was only to determine the impact items. The data were manually analyzed based on the number of the judges. There were nine judges, therefore, the items were retained when five or more judges accepted them.

Factor Analysis

Before the data were keyed in to *SPSS*, they were first coded into numbers. After the data had being coded, they were then analyzed to test for scale purification. The first step was to factor analyze the items. Factor analysis is a method used for removing the redundancy from a set of correlated variables and representing the variables with a smaller set of derived variables (Kachigan, 1986:378). In other words, it is a method for extracting k underlying variables from n sets of measures, where k being less than n .

Factor analysis can be used to identify underlying constructs in the data and also to reduce the number of variables to a more manageable set. Thus, this study used factor analysis in order to achieve its objectives which were to reduce the items to a more manageable number and to identify which items belong together and measure the same thing.

The analysis started by calculating an item-to-item correlation matrix. This was done by using a principal component analysis. By this method, the items were transformed into a new set of items which were not correlated with each other. The combinations of the items were called factors and they accounted for the variance in the whole data. However, in order for the explained variance to redistribute among the newly defined factors, the factors were redefining. This was the second step in factor analysis. According to Kachigan (1986), a redefinition of the factors is accomplished by a procedure known as factor rotation.

Since the factors were unrelated to or independent of one another, the study used a varimax rotation. By using varimax rotation, items which correlated most strongly on the first factor were grouped together and ordered in terms of the size of their correlations. The first factor was the combination which made up the first principal component with varimax rotation. The process continued until all the factors were combined and stopped until all the variance were accounted.

The next step was to interpret and to decide on how many factors to remain in the scale. It was done by looking at the correlation coefficients between the factor and the items which were called loadings. Factor loadings provide an indication of which original items are correlated with each factor and the extent of the correlation. They are interpreted similarly as correlation coefficient where the range is between -1.00 through 0 to $+1.00$.

Factor loadings are written as a_{ij} , meaning the loading of a , of test i , on factor j . In addition, the sums of the squares of the factor loadings or estimates of the variance in each variable are called communalities. As for the study, items which failed to meet the 0.30 minimum coefficient criteria and/or loaded on more than one factor were eliminated from the scale (Tinsley and Tinsley, 1987).

Besides factor loadings, the concept of an eigenvalue was also used in the analysis in order to decide on how many factors to remain. Eigenvalue is the equivalent number of variables which the factor represents. A factor associated with an eigenvalue of more than 1, indicates that the factor accounted for as much variance in the data collection. Thus, items which had less than 1 eigenvalue were eliminated from the scale.

Reliability Test

Reliability test was used in the study after the factor analysis was completed. Reliability refers to the degree of consistency which a measurement procedure has (Sedlack, 1992:198). As for the study, it was used to estimate the degree to which a measurement was free of error. In simple terms, reliability is a measure of consistency. There are three types of reliability:

- Test-retest reliability is used to test two occasions to the same group of subjects. It is used to determine the stability of the measurement. A measurement is stable when the results are consistent with repeated measurements of the same person using the

same instrument. Correlation is the method used in test-retest reliability, and the reliability coefficient is accepted at 0.9 and higher.

- Parallel form reliability is used to test the equivalence of the measurement. Equivalence is concerned with variations at one point in time among observers and samples of items. By using the parallel form reliability test, the correlation of the different observers are computed and compared in order to test for the equivalence of the measurement used.
- Split-half reliability is used when the measuring instrument has many similar questions or statements to which the subject can respond. It is used to assess the internal consistency among the items in the instrument. Thus, this study used the method in order to test for the internal consistency of the measurement.

The items remaining after factor analysis, were tested for internal consistency by using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was the approach used in the study to reflect how well the items in the instrument were positively correlated to one another. According to Sekaran (1992:285), Cronbach's coefficient alpha is considered in almost every case as an adequate test of internal consistency reliability.

The procedure involved calculating the average intercorrelations among the items measuring the concept. A high internal consistency was indicated by alpha value of 1

and above. In addition, items with corrected item-to-total correlations below 0.5 were eliminated (Zaichkowsky, 1985; Bearden, Netemeyer and Teel, 1989).

Convergent Validity

In order to test on how well the results obtained from the use of the measure, fits the theories around which the test is designed, construct validity needs to be done in such a study. There are two methods in determining the construct validity of the measure; discriminant validity and convergent validity.

Discriminant validity is used when testing two variables which are uncorrelated, and the scores obtained by measuring them are empirically found to be so. Since the scores of the two existed scales cannot be obtained, the establishment of discriminant validity in the study was not necessary.

Convergent validity is used to examine the extent to which the measure correlates with other measures designed to measure the same thing. Convergent validity was used in this study for the purpose of determining the construct validity of the measure. In order to test for convergent validity, an index of tourism impact was developed. The tourism impact index derived by summing the product of the belief and evaluation component scores of each item and then dividing the total by the number of items. Thus, the instrument had included a global measure of tourism impact evaluation question. Using a five-point Likert scale, with 1 = *dislike* to 5 = *like*, the question was, "Overall, I would rate the changes associated with tourism as something which I,".

Since the purpose of the test was to measure correlation, Pearson correlation coefficient was used in the analysis. Pearson correlation coefficient or symbolizes as r , range from +1 through 0 to -1. A convergent validity is established when the scores obtained from both the instruments are highly correlated.

Cross-tabulation and Chi-square

In order to test whether or not culture is a factor in determining attitude, cross-tabulation technique was used in the study. Cross-tabulation is a simple technique used to analyze association between two variables which are nominally scaled. However, it can also be used on any interval-scaled variable (Aaker and Day, 1990). Thus, cross-tabulation is the most appropriate technique since the study involved both the nominal and interval scaled data.

To test for significant differences between the two variables, chi-square test was used in the cross-tabulation technique. The value of chi-square is the measure which expresses the extent of the difference. The greater the differences between the two variables would mean less the probability of the differences which can be attributed to chance. The variables would be statistically significant when the value of chi-square is non-zero. Whilst, when the value of chi-square is relatively large, then the variables are not independent or associated.

CONCLUSION

The chapter has described in detail the planning of the study. Since the study is only at the first stage in developing a scale, an exploratory study has been considered as the best type of approach for the study. The study is a probability study since the sampling frame can be determined. Based on probability sampling, PPS (Probability Proportionate to Size) has been chosen as the method for determining the sample. Since the number of items remaining in the final questionnaire was 29, the sample size for the study was 145 respondents.

As for the research instrument, the study has used questionnaires for all the three stages of data collection. All the questionnaires have been designed differently based on different objectives. The questionnaires have been distributed to three types of respondents; the panel of expert judges, the student pretest sample and the residents of Langkawi. The panel of expert judges had been asked to determine the content validity and clarity of the scale. The items remaining then have been used for the pretest sample. The students had only been asked to determine the impact items. Finally, the questionnaires have been distributed to the residents by the help of two research assistants. The research assistants were given a briefing on what to do and what to expect from the residents.

The data gained from the residents was then keyed in for analysis. Three types of analysis have been completed in order to develop the scale. Factor analysis is used to reduce the items into a more manageable number, followed by a reliability test, where

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha is used to further test the items. Mean while, convergent validity is used to test for the construct validity of the scale. All the steps taken have been based on the procedure for developing a better scale set out by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (1991). And finally, in order to test whether or not culture is a factor in determining attitude, cross-tabulation technique and chi-square test are used in the study.

CHAPTER 7

FINDINGS: DEVELOPMENT OF THE TOURISM IMPACT SCALE

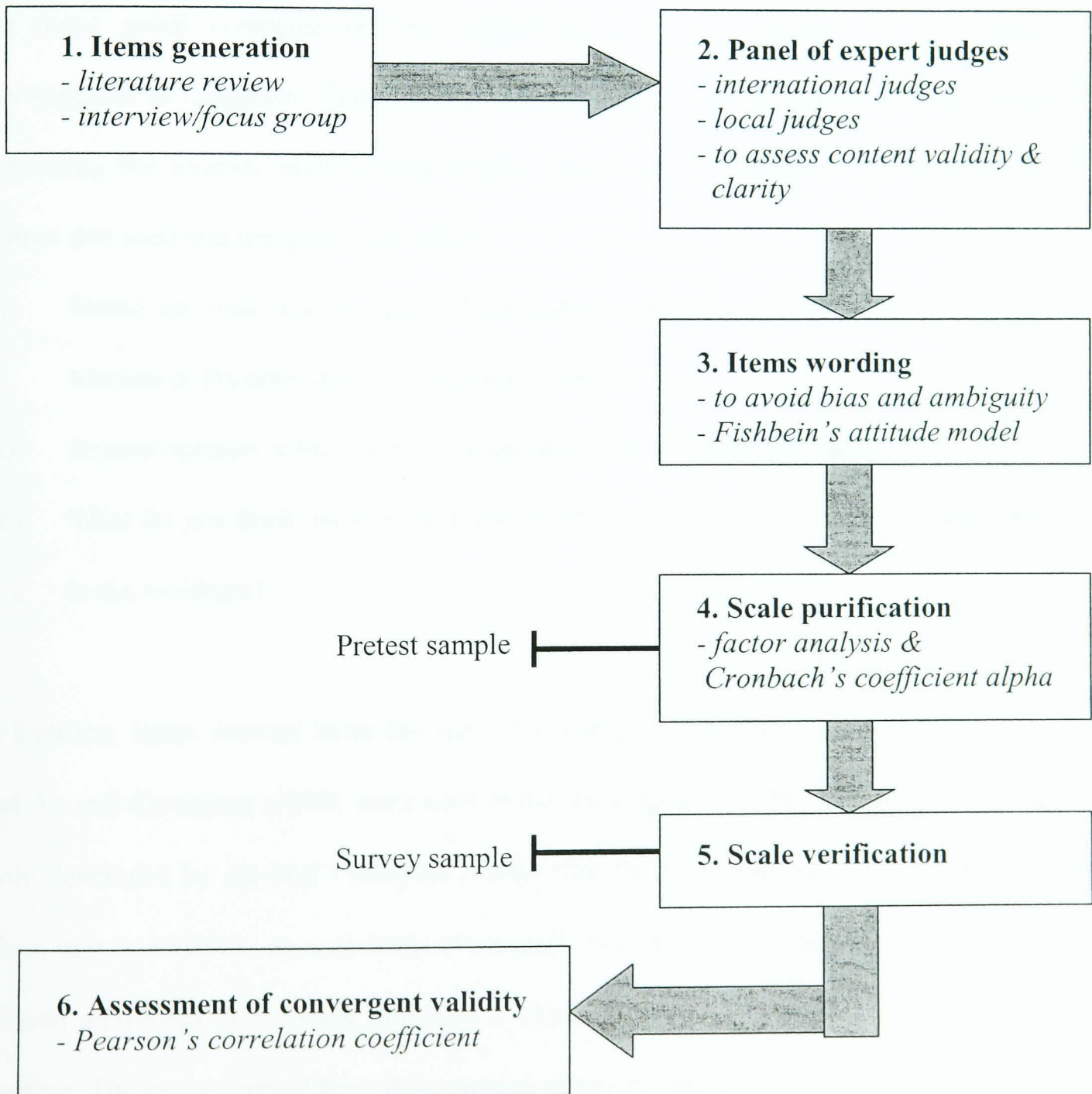
INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the results of the process in developing a tourism impact scale based on the model described in Chapter One (Figure 7.1). The first part of the chapter answers the main objective of the study - to develop a reliable and valid instrument for measuring resident attitudes toward impacts of tourism in Langkawi. It begins by discussing the stage in generating items for the scale. Then, the results of the panel of expert judges are discussed. The process of item wording is not described in the chapter since it had already been discussed in the previous chapter (Chapter Six) under the section of research instrument.

Results of the scale purification are discussed in the next part of the chapter. It emphasizes the findings from the analysis of the pretest sample. The next stage concerning the verification of the scale is discussed based on the findings of the final

test. Finally, it ends by discussing the result from the assessment of convergent validity. The chapter then concludes by summarizing the findings in all the stages of developing a tourism impact attitude scale.

Figure 7.1: Model for Developing an Attitudinal Scale



ITEMS GENERATION

The first stage in developing a tourism impact scale involved the generation of items or development of an item pool. It had followed the procedures recommended by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (1991) in developing a better survey instrument. For the purpose of this study, interviews were undertaken by using a focus group. The local judges who had also been selected as the panel of expert judges were involved in the interviews. Thus, the focus group consisted of four individuals who were experts in the tourism development of Langkawi. Their opinion and comments were considered significant in generating the tourism impact items at the early stage of the study. An unstructured format was used and the group was asked:

- (i) Based on your knowledge and experience of being in Langkawi, how does tourism in the area affect the residents' life?
- (ii) In your opinion, what are the benefits and costs of tourism in Langkawi?
- (iii) What do you think are the major contributions of tourism in Langkawi especially to the residents?

In addition, items derived from the scale developed by Lankford and Howard (1994), and Ap and Crompton (1998) were used in the development of the item pool. Since the scale developed by Ap and Crompton (1998) was the latest one, all the 35 items were taken, and in addition, several items were cited from the current literature. As a result, thirteen additional items were included in the item pool, which make it 48 items all together. The items derived from this stage are listed in Appendix F.

PANEL OF EXPERT JUDGES

In order to test for content validity of the items generated in the first stage, nine experts in this field of tourism were selected as judges. Five of the judges had international expertise in tourism. In fact, two of them had been involved directly in developing a tourism impact scale. Meanwhile, the other four judges had local expertise, especially on tourism development in Langkawi. Thus, all the judges comments and suggestions were considered important in determining the content validity of the scale.

Following the procedures used by Zaichowsky (1985) which had already been discussed in Chapter Six (Methodology), the results ended by eliminating four items from the scale. The first item, *“tourism creates a variety of cultural facilities and activities in the residents’ area”* was considered by the judges as redundant as was *“tourism creates demand for the cultural activities and programs in the resident’s area”*. Three other items were considered by the judges as ‘not significant’ to be included in the scale since the variables cannot be measured. The items were, *“tourism creates preservation of the residents’ cultural identity”*, *“tourism improves the understanding and image of the residents”* and *“tourism disrupts the peace and tranquility of the residents”*.

Variables such as, “cultural identity, image and peace” should be defined accurately before determining the test to measure them. Such questions as, “can cultural identity be measured by looking at the way the people dress or the way they behave?” and, “can peace be measured by determining the silence occurring in the area?” are somethings which need to be conceptualized in detail. Thus, to avoid items which are not

significant, it is acceptable at this stage that all the four items were eliminated from the scale.

In addition, two items were restructured since they would create problems in measuring the content validity of the scale. Items, “*tourism increases the investment and development spending in the residents’ area*” and “*tourism creates opportunities for cultural exchange and education between the residents and tourists*” were considered as double barrelled questions and they had two different variables which need to be measured differently. Therefore, one variable in each item was deleted. Thus, the items were restructured to “*tourism increases the investment spending in the residents’ area*” and, “*tourism creates opportunities for cultural exchange between the residents and tourists*”.

The number of items after the assessment of content validity by the judges were reduced to forty-four. As for the identification of tourism impact domain, besides the three main domains of tourism impact – economic, environmental and socio-cultural, the judges had also identified four other domains. They were consistent with the study by Ap and Crompton (1998) where four new domains were derived – crowding, services, community attitudes and taxes.

SCALE PURIFICATION

Items which survived the assessment of the panel of expert judges were then tested on the student pretest sample. The main purpose was only to reduce the items into a more

manageable number and to confirm the domains which constituted the scale. The data gained from the pretest sample were factor analyzed using the principal components method with varimax rotation. Results of the factor analysis for the forty-four items are presented in Appendix G.

11 factors with eigenvalues above 1, derived from the analysis. However, only four factors were confirmed – environmental, economic, socio-cultural and amenity services/attitude. In addition, only 19 items had factor loadings above 0.3 and loaded cleanly onto one factor. Table 7.1 presents the results of the scale purification. The factors were then analyzed for internal consistency, using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The results had indicated alpha coefficient for the four factors, ranged from 0.64 to 0.91 with a cumulative variance accounted for 48.4%.

The other five factors had a single item factor solution. "*The investment spending in the residents area*", and "*the residents' standard of living*" which were expected to derive from the analysis and load onto the economic domain, did not, but each one loaded onto one factor solution. In addition, "*the amount of property taxes collected in the residents' area*" which was expected to load onto the taxes domain, also did not. Meanwhile, both items, "*opportunities for cultural exchange between the residents and tourists*" and "*the noise level in the residents' area*" which were expected to load onto the socio-cultural domain and crowding domain, also loaded onto one factor solution. Even though a single item factor does not make sense and is considered as a statistical artefact, the five

items were included in the analysis and revision of the scale since it was only at the early stage.

To further purify the scale, all the items were tested using reliability analysis. Results of the analysis had indicated that an additional eleven items had corrected item-total correlation above 0.5. Alpha value above 0.5 is suggested by Nunally (1978) as acceptable in the early stage of the study, thus, they were included in the scale. Results of the reliability analysis are presented in Appendix H. The final scale to be tested on the residents of Langkawi consisted of 30 items.

**Table 7.1: Factor Analysis Results with Varimax Rotation of
Tourism Impact Scale – Pretest Sample (n = 220)**

Item	Factor Loadings	Communality
<i>Tourism brings about a change in:</i>		
Factor 1: Amenity Services/Attitude		
- The quality of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	0.81	0.81
- The residents' attitudes toward tourists.	0.78	0.72
- The pride of local residents.	0.76	0.71
- The financial resources of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	0.72	0.68
- An understanding of different people and cultures by the residents.	0.67	0.68
- Demand for accommodation in the residents' area.	0.66	0.71
- The community spirit among the residents.	0.66	0.65
Factor 2: Environmental		
- The natural environment (flora and fauna).	0.88	0.90
- The quality of natural environment (flora and fauna).	0.84	0.80
- The wildlife (plants, birds and animals).	0.83	0.84

(continued)

Item	Factor Loadings	Communality
<i>Tourism brings about a change in:</i>		
Factor 3: Economic		
- The revenue generated in the economy.	0.80	0.69
- Opportunities to restore and protect historical structures in the residents' area.	0.74	0.80
Factor 4: Socio-cultural		
- Demand for historical activities and programs in the residents' area.	0.82	0.74
- Demand for cultural activities and programs in the residents' area.	0.79	0.73
Factor 5: Taxes*		
- The amount of property taxes collected in the residents' area.	0.85	0.88
Factor 6: Communication*		
- Opportunities for cultural exchange between the residents and tourists.	0.65	0.72
Factor 7: Noise*		
- The noise level in the residents' area.	0.78	0.73
Factor 8: Miscellaneous*		
- The residents' standard of living.	0.83	0.79
Factor 9: Investment*		
- The investment spending in the residents' area.	0.78	0.79

(continued)

Factor	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9
Eigenvalue	11.4	5.3	2.6	2.0	-	-	-	-	-
Variance (%)	25.9	12.0	6.0	4.5	-	-	-	-	-
Cumulative									
Variance (%)	25.9	37.9	43.9	48.4	-	-	-	-	-
Cronbach's Alpha	0.88	0.91	0.64	0.79	-	-	-	-	-
Number of Items (E 19)	7	3	2	2	1	1	1	1	1

*loaded onto one factor solution

SCALE VERIFICATION

Before the remaining items were tested on the residents of Langkawi, they had been revised and carefully worded to avoid bias in the questions. The results had ended by eliminating one item, “*the natural environment (flora and fauna)*”. After the wording process, the item was noted to be redundant with “*the quality of natural environment (flora and fauna)*”. Thus, the final scale consisted of only 29 items. In addition, two items were restructured in order to avoid ambiguity. Item, “*the physical ability of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area*” was restructured to, “*the capacity of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) to perform their services in the residents' area*”. Whilst item, “*resident attitudes toward tourists*” was restructured to, “*resident positive attitudes toward tourists*”.

The items were factor analyzed and the results had indicated ten factors with eigenvalues above 1, derived from the scale. They were considered important since it

enabled a more comprehensive number and range of items to be retained. Results of the factor analysis for the 29 items are presented in Appendix I. However, only five factors were confirmed in the scale. Four of them were consistent with the factors derived in the pretest analysis - economic, environmental, socio-cultural and amenity services. In addition, the fifth factor was named as, community attitude. The cumulative variance accounted for the five factors was 54.2%.

The results had also indicated 17 items loaded above 0.3 and cleanly onto one factor. Four of the items, however, loaded onto one factor solution. The first item, *“the variety of entertainment in the residents’ area”* can be explained by the fact that it is probably seen by the residents as an entertainment impact. Tourists would be able to get such entertainment in Langkawi from family holiday at Tanjung Rhu beach, *“Telaga Tujuh”*, Crocodile Farm, Aquabeat Theme Park, Langkawi Legend Park and *“Tasik Dayang Bunting”*, and also from sporting events such as motor racing, boat racing and fishing competition. Thus, the item is a logical and natural fit to the domain.

The second item, *“the revenue generated in the economy”*, did not fall onto the economic domain probably due to its benefits to the residents. The residents probably accept the item as a positive tourism impact, however, it has not been used for their economic purpose. The revenue generated is probably been used for other purposes such as for taking a holiday trip which falls onto the socio-cultural domain, and investment for their childrens’ education which falls onto the amenities domain.

In addition, the third item, “*opportunities for cultural exchange between the residents and tourists*” is found by the residents to be significant as a communication impact. The residents probably believe that in order for them to exchange their culture, the important aspect they need to do is to communicate with the tourists. Thus, it is logical and natural that instead of fitting into the socio-cultural domain, the item would fall into the communication domain itself.

Finally, the fourth item, “*demand for accommodation in the residents’ area*” is probably seen by the residents as a factor providing more benefits to the service sector rather than the economic sector. Income from the accommodation probably benefited the government and the owner of the accommodation. As for the residents, accommodation is probably seen as a service offered to tourists. However, since a single item factor had no meaning, all the four items were eliminated from the scale. Thus, the items remaining were thirteen and the results are presented in Table 7.2.

**Table 7.2: Factor Analysis Results with Varimax Rotation of
Tourism Impact Scale – Final Test Sample (n = 145)**

Item	Factor Loadings	Communality
<i>Tourism brings about a change in:</i>		
Factor 1: Environmental		
- The wildlife (plants, birds and animals).	0.91	0.92
- The capacity of local services(police, fire, medical and utilities) to perform their services in the residents' area.	0.88	0.84
- The amount of local taxes collected in the residents' area.	0.78	0.79
Factor 2: Amenity Services		
- The variety of restaurants in the residents' area.	0.82	0.73
- The investment spending in the residents' area.	0.71	0.70
- The size of crowds which affect the enjoyment of residents activities in the public areas.	0.61	0.64
Factor 3: Socio-cultural		
- Demand for the historical activities and programs in the residents' area.	0.86	0.81
- Demand for the cultural activities and programs in the residents' area.	0.82	0.81
- The noise level in the residents' area.	0.72	0.73

(continued)

Item	Factor Loadings	Communality
<i>Tourism brings about a change in:</i>		
Factor 4: Community Attitude		
- The community spirit among the residents.	0.90	0.87
- The pride of local residents.	0.90	0.87
Factor 5: Economic		
- The residents' standard of living.	0.86	0.78
- Opportunities to restore and protect historical structures in the residents' area.	0.71	0.78

Factor	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
Eigenvalue	5.6	3.4	2.5	2.3	2.0
Variance (%)	19.2	11.7	8.6	7.8	7.0
Cumulative variance (%)	19.2	30.8	39.4	47.2	54.2
Cronbach's Alpha	0.89	0.64	0.78	0.88	0.68
Number of Items (E = 13)	3	3	3	2	2

The results also indicated that the environmental domain was confirmed in the analysis with Cronbach's alpha of 0.89 and a variance of 19.2%. Two items, however, were not expected to load onto the factor – *“the capacity of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) to perform their services in the residents' area”* and *“the amount of local taxes collected in the residents' area”*. The loading of the two items probably can be explained by the fact that the ability of the local services and the collection of the local taxes due to tourism development in Langkawi are found by the residents to

significantly affect the environment. The capacity of local services in performing their duties has probably given a great impact to the environment instead of the service sector. In addition, the local taxes collected also did not contribute much to the economy of residents in Langkawi but probably has affected the overall environment in Langkawi.

Meanwhile, “*the investment spending in the residents’ area*” which was expected to load onto the economic dimension, did not. The same as “*the size of crowds which affect the enjoyment of residents activities in the public areas*” which was expected to load onto the crowding dimension. Both the items loaded cleanly onto the amenity services dimension together with “*the variety of restaurants in the residents’ area*”. However, the Cronbach’s alpha of the factor was 0.64, quite low compared to other factors and accounted for only 11.7% of the variance.

It is possible that investment spending in Langkawi is considered by the residents as one of the factors which contributes to the service sector instead of the economic sector. In fact, the size of crowds is probably significant with the opinions of the panel of expert judges where at this stage, the judges believed that tourism development did not cause crowding in Langkawi. Only in certain situations, the size of crowds in Langkawi has been the major caused for over-crowding. Some of the situations probably can be seen during LIMA (Langkawi International Maritime and Aerospace Exhibition) and Le Tour De Langkawi.

“Demand for cultural activities and programs in the residents’ area” and *“demand for the historical activities and programs in the residents’ area”* loaded cleanly onto the socio-cultural domain. The items represented a logical and natural fit to the domain. However, the item, *“the noise level in the residents’ area”* which was expected to load onto the crowding domain, did not, but loaded onto the socio-cultural domain instead. It can be explained by the fact that crowding is not caused by tourism, thus, the noise level due to tourism in Langkawi is probably seen to impact more on the social aspect of the community’s life.

Two items, *“the community spirit among the residents”* and *“the pride of local residents”* which were expected to load onto the amenity services domain, did not. Instead, they loaded cleanly onto the community attitude domain with accounted total variance of 7.8%. The items had constituted a logical and natural fit to the domain especially with a high Cronbach’s alpha of 0.88. The results are probably based on the fact that the people of Malaysia share a strong community spirit and pride towards dealing with the impacts of tourism in their area. Even though Malaysia has a multi-racial society with different religions and beliefs, it can be seen that they share the same attitudes toward tourism.

Finally, the economic domain was confirmed in the analysis with Cronbach’s alpha of 0.68. The item, *“the residents’ standard of living”* loaded cleanly onto the factor which was a logical fit. However, *“opportunities to restore and protect historical structures in the residents’ area”* did not load onto the socio-cultural domain as it was expected to.

This probably can be seen where historical structures in Langkawi such as “*Makam Mahsuri*”, “*Dataran Lang*” and “*Beras Terbakar*” are generating revenue to the economic sector rather than benefiting the social sector.

Both the domains and items were further tested for reliability analysis. The results had indicated an internal consistent reliability of the domains and the items derived from the scale. Results of the reliability analysis for the 13 items are presented in Table 7.3. All the five factors had a strong Cronbach’s alpha ranged from 0.64 to 0.89. The 13 items had also indicated strong levels of item-to-total correlations, except for two items in the amenity services which indicated low and weak item-to-total correlation of 0.41 and 0.35. Thus, at this stage, the reliability of the scale was accomplished.

Table 7.3 : Results of the Reliability Analysis (n = 145)

Item	Item-To-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
<i>Tourism brings about a change in:</i>		
Factor 1: Environmental		0.89
- The wildlife (plants, birds and animals).	0.76	
- The physical ability of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	0.85	
- The amount of local taxes collected in the residents' area.	0.72	
Factor 2: Amenity Services		0.64
- The variety of restaurants in the residents' area.	0.54	
- The investment spending in the residents' area.	0.41	
- The size of crowds which affect the residents activities in the public areas.	0.35	
Factor 3: Socio-cultural		0.78
- Demand for the historical activities and programs in the residents' area.	0.69	
- Demand for the cultural activities and programs in the residents' area.	0.57	
- The noise level in the residents' area.	0.57	
Factor 4: Community Attitude		0.88
- The community spirit among the residents.	0.79	
- The pride of local residents.	0.79	
Factor 5: Economic		0.68
- The residents' standard of living.	0.51	
- Opportunities to restore and protect historical structures in the residents' area.	0.51	

ASSESSMENT OF CONVERGENT VALIDITY

As mentioned in Chapter Six (Methodology), in testing for convergent validity, a Pearson's correlation coefficient was used. The instrument had also included a global question of measuring impacts of tourism in order to test for its correlation with the tourism impact index. The tourism impact index was gained by multiplying the belief and evaluation statements, and which were then divided with the point of the scale which was five. The sixth point - "do not know" answer was treated as a missing value and was deleted from the analysis. Next, the global question was summated with the tourism impact index, and then they were divided with the 26 items in the index (all the items in both the belief and evaluative components). Results of a Pearson correlation coefficient had indicated a moderate positive relationship of 0.52 between the two measures (Table 7.4). Thus, a convergent validity of the scale was demonstrated and construct validity of the scale was established.

Table 7.4 : Results of Pearson's Correlation Coefficient

Coefficient	p	n
0.52	< 0.1	145

significance level of 0.01 (2-tailed test)

CONCLUSION

This chapter has discussed in detail the results of developing a standardized and better scale for measuring residents' attitude toward impacts of tourism in Langkawi. The first step in generating the item pool had ended with a total of 48 items derived from interviews using a focus group, existing scales by Lankford and Howard (1994) and Ap and Crompton (1998), and the current literature. The second stage has involved the testing for content validity of the scale. It has been measured by a panel of selected judges with both international and local expertise in tourism. The judges have been asked to identify the impact items, classify the domains and give their comments and opinions regarding the items and the development of the scale. Results from the assessment of content validity have ended with 44 items remaining in the scale.

The stage regarding item wording has not been discussed in the chapter since it was discussed in chapter six of the study. The next stage has discussed the test of the scale purification. The items have then being factor analyzed. The results have indicated nine domains derived from the analysis, however, only four of them are confirmed. The other five domains have a single item solution loaded, but they have not been deleted from the scale since it is only at the beginning of the stage and their eigenvalues are also above 1. The results have also indicated that 19 items derived from the scale. In order to test for consistency in reliability, all the items have once again being analyzed using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The results have ended with 11 new items, thus, making the scale consisting of 30 items.

Using the sample survey of Langkawi, the scale has been tested for its verification. Before testing the items, the scale has been revised and it has ended by eliminating one item and restructuring another item. All the items remaining have then been factor analyzed again and the results have indicated ten factors derived from the analysis, but only five factors are confirmed. Three of them are in the main domains – environmental, socio-cultural and economic, while the other two are community attitude and amenity services. All the domains have Cronbach's alpha range from 0.64 to 0.89 and a cumulative variance accounted for 54.2%. 17 items have also derived from the analysis, however, four of them have been eliminated since they fall onto one single factor solution. Thus, the remaining items of the scale consist of only 13 items.

Finally, Pearsons' correlation coefficient analysis has been used in order to test for convergent validity of the scale. The result has indicated that a moderate positive relationship exists between the scale and another scale used to measure the same thing. Thus, at this stage, the convergent validity of the scale has been accomplished and the construct validity has been established. The first objective of the study has been achieved – to develop a standardized scale for measuring residents' attitude toward impacts of tourism in Langkawi. The second objective which is to reflect the diversity of culture in determining the attitudes, has also been achieved through the development of the scale. It will be fully discussed in Chapter Nine.

CHAPTER 8

APPLICATION OF THE TOURISM IMPACT SCALE IN LANGKAWI

INTRODUCTION

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section presents and discusses the results of the tested scale in Langkawi. The results are presented according to the remaining five factors and thirteen items in the scale. The second section presents the background of the respondents. The purpose of testing the scale is only to find out what are the residents' responses toward impacts of tourism in Langkawi. Even though it is not the main objective of the study, the results can be used by the policy makers and the tourism planners in order to understand why residents act the way they do toward tourism development.

Data of 145 respondents were analyzed by using *SPSS* (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). For this purpose, only the results of frequencies and percentages were needed and discussed. All the results are presented in tables which can be seen in Appendix J.

TESTING THE SCALE – THE FINDINGS

Table 8.1 - 8.3 present the findings of the environmental impacts in Factor 1. The study indicates that 71.0% of the respondents stated that tourism had decreased the wildlife (plants, birds and animals) living in the area (Table 8.1). The findings also indicate that 73.2% of the respondents did not like the changes caused by tourism in the wildlife aspect. In another way, this shows that residents perceived the decrease in wildlife caused by tourism in the area as negative environmental impact. The finding is significant with a study done by Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996) where they also find that tourism has destroyed the natural environment and wildlife. The fact that tourism development destroys the 'green' environment in the area would probably be the reason for the residents to perceive it as negative impact.

In addition, 80% of the respondents stated that tourism had increased the level of capacity of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) to perform their services in the area (Table 8.2). In fact, 96.5% of them favoured the changes caused by tourism in the local services. This probably can be explained by the fact that tourism development in the area has led the government to increase the level of capacity particularly of the local services to perform their services, not just to the residents but also to the tourists. Thus, the findings indicate that residents perceived the aspect as positive impact of tourism since they had benefited from it. The finding is also found to be significant with studies done by Pizam (1978) and Milman and Pizam (1988).

Meanwhile, in another aspect, 71.7% of the respondents indicated that tourism had increased the amount of local taxes collected in the area (Table 8.3). In addition, 42.1% of them did not like the changes caused by tourism and 56.6% of them stated it as neither like nor dislike. This probably can be explained by the fact that most of the respondents did not benefit from the local taxes collected due to tourism, thus, they perceived it as negative impact of tourism. However, if the respondents consist of government organizations, the aspect probably would be perceived as a positive impact of tourism.

Table 8.4 – 8.6 present the findings of the amenity services impacts in Factor 2. 99.3% of the respondents indicated that tourism had increased the variety of restaurants in the area (Table 8.4). In addition, all of them (100%) favored the changes caused by tourism. The findings also indicate that residents perceived the aspect as a positive impact of tourism. This would probably due to the benefits they receive from it such as, more business opportunities in running restaurants and increasing more income from the businesses.

The study also indicates that 98.6% of the respondents stated that tourism had increased the amount of investment spending in the area (Table 8.5). With 97.2% of them favoured the changes caused by tourism in investment, the aspect was perceived as a positive impact of tourism in the area. The residents would probably favour the increase in the amount of investment since it benefits them in term of more jobs and businesses opportunities, increases in income and increases in standard of living. The finding is

significance with several studies where they confirm that attracting more investment is a positive impact of tourism (Johnson, Snepenger and Akis, 1994; McCool and Martin, 1994; Akis, Peristianis and Warner, 1996).

Meanwhile, 95.9% of the respondents stated that tourism had increased the size of crowds which affect the enjoyment of residents activities in the public area (Table 8.6). In addition, 89.7% favoured the changes caused by tourism in this aspect. The findings indicate that even though the size of crowds had increased and affected their enjoyment, residents perceived it as a positive impacts of tourism. This probably can be explained by the fact that the aspect did not fall onto the crowding factor which tend to be negative impact. In fact, the residents would probably enjoy their activities more with the increase in the number of tourists visiting their area.

Table 8.7 – 8.9 present the socio-cultural impacts of tourism in Factor 3. 97.9% of the respondents stated that tourism had increased the demand for historical activities and programmes in the area (Table 8.7). The changes were very much favoured by the respondents with a high percentage of 99.3%. Meanwhile, 98.6% of the respondents stated that tourism had increased the demand for cultural activities and programmes in the area (Table 8.8). In fact, 96.6% of them favoured the changes caused by tourism in the cultural activities and programs in the area. The findings, in another way indicate that respondents perceived demand for historical and cultural activities and programmes in the area as positive impacts of tourism. These findings would probably suggest that residents tend to perceive positively aspects which benefit them. They are also

significance with studies where increased in demand for historical and cultural activities is perceived as a positive socio-cultural impact of tourism (Liu and Var, 1986; McCool and Martin, 1994).

In addition, the study indicates that 93.8% of the respondents stated that noise level in the area had increased due to tourism development (Table 8.9). Only 6.2% of them stated that tourism did not bring any changes to the noise level in the area. The study also indicates that 91.7% of the respondents did not like the changes caused by tourism development in the noise level in the area. This probably can be explained by the fact that being a fishery and paddy field area, the residents are used to the quiet and peaceful surroundings. Tourism has probably caused noise pollution from construction of hotels and new roads. Thus, the findings in another way indicate that the increased of noise level in the area was perceived by the residents as negative impact of tourism. This is also significance with several studies of perceived tourism impacts (Caneday and Zeiger, 1991; Kavallinis and Pizam, 1994; Wang and Miko, 1997).

Table 8.10 – 8.11 present the community attitude impacts of tourism in Factor 4. The study indicates that 86.9% of the respondents stated that tourism did not bring any changes in the community spirit among the residents (Table 8.10). In fact, 74.5% of them stated it as neither like nor dislike of the changes caused by tourism in this aspect. In another way, this indicates that residents perceived it as neither positive nor negative impact of tourism. This probably due to the fact that residents of Langkawi share strong community spirit which will not be influenced by tourism.

Meanwhile, the study also indicates that 88.3% of the respondents stated that tourism did not change the pride of local residents (Table 8.11). In addition, 73.1% of them stated it as neither like nor dislike of the changes. In another way, the findings also indicate that residents perceived the increased in the pride of local residents as neither positive nor negative impact of tourism.

Table 8.12 – 8.13 present the findings of the economic impacts of tourism in Factor 5. The study indicates that 86.2% of the respondents stated that tourism had increased their standard of living (Table 8.12). Meanwhile, 84.8% of them indicated that they favoured the changes caused by tourism in increasing their standard of living. In another way, the findings show that residents perceived the increased in their standard of living as positive impact of tourism. This is significant with the findings in several studies concerning the positive economic impacts of tourism (King, Pizam and Milman, 1993; Akis, Peristianis and Warner, 1996; Haralambopoulos and Pizam, 1996).

Finally, 83.5% of the respondents indicated that tourism had increased the opportunities to restore and protect historical structures in the area (Table 8.13). In addition, 83.5% of them also indicated that they favoured the changes caused by tourism in this aspect. In another way, the findings show that residents perceived this aspect as positive impact of tourism. The reason would probably due to the fact that residents like to see their historical structures being restored and protected not just as attractions to the tourists but also as historical aspects that can be appreciated by their children in the future.

PROFILES OF THE RESPONDENTS

The profiles of the respondents are presented in Table 8.14. The results are only used for the purpose of understanding the background of the respondents. It is not significantly related to the purpose of developing the scale, however, the variables in this section are useful for future research in order to determine which variables may influence the residents' attitude.

Results of the frequency and percentage analysis had indicated that from the total of 145 respondents, 81.4% were working in the tourism related-sector while 18.6% were not. This can probably be explained by the fact that the major size sample is in Kuah - 55 respondents. In fact, Kuah is considered as the main tourism development area in Langkawi which offers various jobs opportunities in the tourism-related sector. Majority of the respondents (86.9%) had also lived in Langkawi for more than 6 years. In addition, 6.9% of them lived there for about 4 to 6 years, 4.1% lived for about 1 to 3 years, and only 2.1% lived for less than 1 year. These are significant results because it means that the majority of respondents have gone through the stages of tourism development in Langkawi. They can express their beliefs and evaluate the questions more accurately.

As for the question regarding the respondents' age, the results had indicated that a majority of respondents were above 50 years old (34.5%), followed by 43.4% in the 40 to 50 age group, 16.6% was in the 20 to 39 age group and only 5.5% was below 20 years old. Meanwhile, 58.6% of the respondents were Malays, followed by 17.2% of other

racers, 15.9% Chinese and 8.3% Indians. The majority of the other races can be explained by the fact that the local people of Langkawi also include people from the border of Thailand, normally known as “Patani”. Thus, it had also indicated the existence of different cultures in the Malaysian community.

Table 8.14: Respondents’ Profiles

Questions:	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Working in tourism-related sector</i>		
- Yes	118	81.4
- No	27	17.6
Total	145	100.0
<i>Length of stay</i>		
- More than 6 years	126	86.9
- 4 – 6 years	10	6.9
- 1 – 3 years	6	4.1
- Less than 1 year	3	2.1
Total	145	100.0
<i>Age group</i>		
- Above 50	50	34.5
- 40 – 50	63	43.4
- 20 – 39	24	16.6
- Below 20	8	5.5
Total	145	100.0
<i>Racial group</i>		
- Malay	85	58.6
- Chinese	23	15.9
- Indian	12	8.3
- Others	25	7.2
Total	145	100.0

CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the findings of testing the standardized scale in Langkawi. It has been found that residents tend to perceive those impacts which benefit them as positive impacts of tourism. They are the impacts increased due to tourism, such as, the capacity of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) to perform their services, the variety of restaurants in the area, the amount of investment spending, the size of crowds affected their enjoyment, demand for historical and cultural activities and programs, their standard of living and opportunities to restore and protect the historical structures in the area.

In addition, residents tend to perceive the decrease impacts due to tourism as negative impacts of tourism. Such impacts are, the wildlife (plants, birds and animals), the amount of local taxes collected and the noise level in the area. The study also indicates that two aspects did not impact residents positively or negatively. They are, the community spirit among the residents and the pride of local residents. These two aspects are probably part of the residents' values and beliefs. Even though they consist of different racial groups, each group probably shares similar perception regarding those aspects. In another way, the findings indicate the cultural influences on the community.

The findings also indicate that model such as Doxey's Irridex Model (1975) which describes the changes in community's perceptions and attitudes toward tourism, from positive to negative, as it become more apparent to residents, cannot be applied in the case of Langkawi. It can be seen from the findings that residents tended to perceive the

impacts of tourism, either positively or negatively depending on how much they would affect their personal life. In fact, the more dependent they are on the positive impacts, the more supportive they are toward tourism development. As can be seen, the impacts on the community attitude of residents in Langkawi are also influenced by the community's culture. If the cultural values of the community were stronger, then tourism development would not impact their personal life, even if it will benefit them. However, several factors could have also influenced their perceptions and attitudes, as have been found in other studies (Brougham and Butler, 1981; Liu and Var, 1986; Milman and Pizam, 1988).

In line with the objective of the study, the findings could be useful in order to characterize residents who do not support tourism. In order to gain the residents support on tourism development, the tourism planners or the policy makers can conduct several campaigns such as educational programs and tourism workshop to the local residents. Thus, this aspect is also important for a long-term purpose of achieving a sustainable tourism in Langkawi.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSIONS

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The study has been undertaken in response to the need for a standardized measurement of resident attitudes toward impacts of tourism development. The main purpose is to develop a reliable and valid scale for measuring resident attitudes toward tourism in Langkawi. Since the study area consists of community with different racial groups compared to the two previous studies (Lankford and Howard, 1994; Ap and Crompton, 1998), the development of the scale would also reflect the diversity of the resident's culture. This is determined by taking into account the diversity of races in the community where each racial group shares different cultures and beliefs.

The study could have just tested the existing scales and the results could have determined whether or not the scale reflects the resident's culture. However, since it is aimed to develop a scale for the community of Langkawi, the scale has gone through the stages in developing standardized measurement as suggested by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (1991).

The researcher believes that even though several scales have already been developed, there is still a need for a scale to be developed in a country where the people have different cultural backgrounds. It is confirmed in several studies that resident attitudes towards tourism are determined by their culture (Haukeland, 1984; Sheldon and Var, 1984; Lickorish, 1991). In fact, it has been found that different host communities would have different cultural backgrounds (Jafari, 1989). In the case of Malaysia, even though the Malaysian cultural identity is found difficult to define since it consists of different cultural backgrounds, the culture factor has been recognized as a primary input in tourism development (Din, 1997).

Such cases concerning the cross-cultural studies can be seen in testing the TIAS (Tourism Impact Attitude Scale), developed by Lankford and Howard (1994). In order to test for its validation, TIAS has also been tested in other communities such as Nanaimo, Vancouver Island (Rollins, 1997); Pacific Northwest, United States of America; China; Indonesia; Jordan and Japan (Schneider et. al., 1997). The survey in the Pacific Northwest, United States of America has reported high reliability with the same factors derived from the scale as in the analysis on the survey of Columbia River Gorge – ‘concern for local tourism development’ and ‘personal and community benefits’. The findings are important because in another way, they also indicate that Western communities share similar perceptions and attitudes toward tourism impact items in the scale. Thus, this also indicates that the residents of Pacific Northwest and Columbia River Gorge share similar cultural backgrounds.

However, other communities have reported different factors derived from the scale. Five factors have derived from the analysis in Penghu, China – ‘promote/positive’, ‘anti-promotion’, ‘impacts’, ‘public services’ and ‘benefits of tourism’, and Amman, Jordan – ‘economic benefit’, ‘public services’, ‘negative impacts’, ‘personal benefit’ and ‘promotion’. Meanwhile, three factors have derived from the analysis in Bali, Indonesia – ‘promotion’, ‘benefits’ and ‘negative impacts’, and in Suwa, Japan – ‘economic benefit’, ‘promotion’ and ‘impacts’.

The differences in the factors derived indicate that there exist different perceptions and attitudes toward tourism development. The reason is because of the different selected areas which consist of Asian and Eastern communities with different cultural backgrounds compared to the Western. Thus, this in another way has reflected the diversity of culture in the communities which could determine attitudes toward tourism development.

The scale developed by Ap and Crompton (1998), however, has not been tested in other communities outside Texas. Thus, this study has used the scale only for the purpose of discussing and comparing the results of the findings. Besides the reason that it has not yet been tested in other communities, the scale has also been chosen because it is the latest standardized scale of tourism impact in the literature. Accordingly, it would have included the latest tourism impact items compared to TIAS.

The Langkawi Tourism Impact Attitude Scale (LATIAS) has been successfully developed and encompasses five domains with 13 items. It has strong reliability and good content and construct validity. In fact, twelve of the thirteen items in the scale are consistent with the items in the scale developed by Ap and Crompton (1998) whilst the other one – “*standard of living*”, is consistent with the item in TIAS (Lankford and Howard, 1994).

In order to investigate whether or not cultural background determines resident attitudes, cross-tabulation analysis technique and chi-square test have been used. With a value of 1.350, the results of a chi-square test has indicated that cultural background is a factor in determining resident attitudes toward tourism in Langkawi (Table 9.1).

Table 9.1 : Results of a Chi-Square Test

Chi-square	df	significance level	n
1.350	1	0.25	145

$p > 0.25$

It can be seen that items such as, “*opportunities to learn about other people and culture*”, “*opportunities to meet interesting people*” and “*understanding of different people and culture*”, which have loaded onto the socio-cultural domain (Ap and Crompton, 1998), in the first place, did not derive from the analysis. This can be

explained by the fact that some people in Langkawi do not want to accept outsiders, probably because they do not want their cultures to be influenced by tourists.

However, as host, it would probably become a culture for them to accept whoever comes to Langkawi. Still, it does not mean that tourism development in the area could force them to accept and learn about other people and culture. They probably have their own perceptions toward tourists based on their beliefs and values. Thus, it would probably explain the result where the item, *“residents’ positive attitudes toward tourists”* has been eliminated from the scale in the first place.

In addition, other items which have loaded onto the crowding domain such as, *“size of crowds which affect the residents activities in the public area”*, *“the number of driving hazards by tourists”* and *“the level of traffic congestion”* are also being eliminated from the scale. In fact, the domain itself did not derive from the final analysis. It can also be seen that other items which have loaded onto the crowding domain in the scale developed by Ap and Crompton (1998), have loaded onto other domains.

What has happened could be explained by the fact that it is probably the resident’s culture not to blame others for causing problems. In this case, they probably did not like to blame the tourists for the crowding occurring in their area. It can also be explained by the fact that crowding probably exists before tourism has been developed in the area. Thus, based on the results and the aspects discussed, the second objective of the study –

to reflect the diversity of culture in the community which may determine the resident attitudes toward tourism, has been answered.

The study has also confirmed that LATIAS is a standard tool for measuring resident attitudes toward impacts of tourism in Langkawi. Previous scales have been tested in the Western communities with similar cultural backgrounds – Columbia River Gorge, Texas and Cloverdale. The communities also have different cultural backgrounds to the Asian and Eastern communities. The scale is different from the existing scales in term that it has been tested in one community which consists of different cultural backgrounds. Thus, the study has taken into consideration one factor which determine the residents' attitudes toward tourism development - the cultural background.

Langkawi has been chosen as a survey destination because it is a developing tourism destination which has people with different cultural backgrounds. They share different values and beliefs which may influence their attitudes and perceptions toward certain situations. Thus, the development of the scale is important in measuring the extent of their attitudes toward tourism and interpreting the results. The researcher also believes that the first step in developing a valid and reliable scale for measuring resident attitudes toward impacts of tourism in Langkawi has been achieved. The procedures of developing LATIAS is summarized and presented in Table 9.2.

Table 9.2: Procedures of Developing LATIAS

Stage	Procedures	Number of Items
1	Generation of item pool from interviews, current literature and both tourism impact scale	48
2	After assessment of content validity by nine judges consisted of both international and local	44
3	Items derived from factor analysis of the scale purification on the pretest sample (items loaded cleanly onto one factor solution and a single item solution)	19
4	Additional 11 items after further testing by using Cronbach's coefficient alpha	30
5	Items remained after the wording process (eliminating one item which was redundant)	29
6	Items derived from factor analysis of the scale verification on the sample survey of Langkawi and loaded saliently onto one factor solution	13

SIGNIFICANCE AND CONTRIBUTION

LATIAS has gone through all the procedures for developing a standardized and better scale as recommended by Fishbein (1963), Churchill (1979), Zaichowsky (1985) and DeVellis (1991). It has also taken into account all the tourism impacts items consisted in the previous scale (Lankford and Howard, 1994; Ap and Crompton, 1998). Thus, it will give greater confidence to tourism policy planners and decision makers to measure resident attitudes since the scale includes all aspects of tourism impacts in Langkawi.

Having both belief and evaluative components of attitude, the scale is also a useful tool to categorize residents who do not support tourism in Langkawi. In doing this, the government has to take initiatives in promoting tourism, firstly to the residents, then to

the tourists. When tourism is fully supported by the residents, then perhaps a sustainable development can be achieved.

Theoretically, the study has contributed to a methodological use of standardized scale development procedures. In addition, it has contributed to a new knowledge of developing an attitudinal scale for measuring resident attitudes toward tourism by taking into account the cultural backgrounds of the community. This has been done by making sure the selected respondents consist of different racial groups. Thus, it provides core domains and items to fit cultural backgrounds of any community and can be tested not just in other Asian and Eastern communities but also in all the Western communities.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study, however, is limited to certain aspects. Since the culture of the community presents sensitive issues such as prostitution, drugs and alcoholism, several questions in the questionnaire have not been eliminated. This is due to the objective of the study in order to test whether or not culture is a factor in determining attitude. Thus, the questions which involved sensitive cultural issues of the community have been carefully worded. The results of item wording have probably led to misread or bias among the respondents.

For example, since alcohol is prohibited among Muslims, especially the Malays, it has been considered as a sensitive cultural issue which in the first place should not be questioned. Even though the research assistants have explained these issues in detail, the

beliefs and culture which are strong among the community have led to a non-significant results of the study. In order to overcome this problem, it is suggested that such sensitive cultural issues should be eliminated from the questionnaire or they should not be questioned directly to the specific respondents.

Besides the sensitive issues, the unbalanced numbers of the selected respondents represent the racial groups has also become a problem for the study. Results of the cultural background are probably significant due to the majority of Malays. Thus, instead of presenting the community's culture, they probably have presented the culture of the Malays society. In order to overcome this problem, it is suggested that for future research, the number represents the racial groups of the community should be balanced.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

It is recommended for future research that the scale should be tested in other areas particularly in Malaysia where tourism is growing rapidly. Such areas are, Penang, Pangkor, National Park, Melacca, Sarawak, Sabah, and Mount Kinabalu. This is because these areas have been identified in the Seventh Malaysia Plan 1996-2000, as tourist destinations which promote ecotourism and natural attractions (Dowling, 2000).

In addition, it should also be tested in other communities which have different cultural backgrounds. This is important in order to validate the LATIAS and to allow for greater understanding of resident attitudes toward impacts of tourism. Future research should

also continue to investigate why residents of Langkawi develop positive or negative attitudes toward these impacts. Furthermore, the discriminant validity of the scale which has not been tested in the study, need to be tested before the overall validity of the scale is accepted.

REFERENCES

- Aaker, D.A. and G.S. Day
1990 **Marketing Research**, 4th Edition, John Wiley & Sons: Canada.
- Adams, K.
1984 Come to Tana Toraja, "Land of the Heavenly Kings": Travel Agents as Brokers in Ethnicity, *Annals of Tourism Research* 11(3): 469-485.
- Ahmad, M. Z
2000 **Development of Domestic Tourism in Malaysia: The Case of Peninsular Malaysia (1987-2000)**, Unpublished MSc thesis, University of Strathclyde: United Kingdom.
- Akis, S., N. Peristianis and J. Warner
1996 Residents' Attitudes to Tourism Development: The Case of Cyprus, *Tourism Management* 17: 481-94.
- Allen, L.R., P.T. Long, R.R. Perdue and S. Kieselbach
1988 The Impact of Tourism Development on Resident's Perception of Community Life, *Journal of Travel Research* 27(1): 16-21.
- Allport, G. W.
1935 Attitudes, In **A Handbook of Social Psychology (ed.)**, C. Murchinson, Clark University Press: Worcester, Mass, pp. 798-844.
- Andereck, K. L. and C. A. Vogt
2000 The Relationship between Residents' Attitudes toward Tourism and Tourism Development Options, *Journal of Travel Research* 39: 27-36.
- Antil, J. H. and P. D. Bennet
1979 Construction and Validation of a Scale to Measure Socially Responsible Consumption Behaviour, In **The Conserver Society (ed.)**, Henion, K. E. and T. C. Kinnear, American Marketing Association: Chicago, pp. 51-68.
- Ap, J.
1990 Residents' Perceptions Research on the Social Impacts of Tourism, *Annals of Tourism Research* 17: 610-16.
- Ap, J. and J.L. Crompton
1998 Developing and Testing a Tourism Impact Scale, *Journal of Travel Research* 37: 120-130.

-
- Archer, B. and C. Cooper
1998 The Positive and Negative Impacts of Tourism, In **Global Tourism: The Next Decade 2nd edition**, Theobald, W. Butterworth Heinemann: Oxford, pp. 73-91.
- Asch, S. E.
1952 **Social Psychology**, Prentice-Hall: Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Baker, T.L.
1999 **Doing Social Research**, 3rd Edition, McGraw-Hill: USA.
- Bangkok Post
2001 *Enjoying the Langkawi Lifestyle for Thai Visitors, the Island Feels a Little Like Home*, March, 1.
- Bearden, R., R.G. Netemeyer and J.E. Teel
1989 Measurement of Consumer Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence, *Journal of Consumer Research* 15: 472-481.
- Belisle, F. and D. Hoy
1980 The Perceived Impact of Tourism by Residents, *Annals of Tourism Research* 7(1): 83-101.
- Bem, D. J.
1967 Self-Perception: An Alternative Interpretation of Cognitive Dissonance Phenomena, *Psychological Review* 74: 183-200.
- Blaisdell, E.A.
1993 **Statistics in Practice**, Saunders College Publishing: USA.
- Breckler, S. J.
1984 Empirical Validation of Affect, Behaviour and Cognitive as Distinct Components of Attitude, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 47: 1191-1205.
- Brohman, J.
1996 New Directions in Tourism for Third World Development, *Annals of Tourism Research* 23(1): 48-70.
- Brougham, J. and R. Butler
1981 A Segmentation Analysis of Resident Attitudes to Social Impacts of Tourism, *Annals of Tourism Research* 7(4): 569-90.

-
- Brown, F.
1998 **Tourism Reassessed: Blight or Blessing?** Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford.
- Brown, K., R.K. Turner, H. Hameed and I. Bateman
1997 Environmental Carrying Capacity and Tourism Development in the Maldives and Nepal, *Environmental Conservation* 24(4): 316-325.
- Brunt, P. and P. Courtney
1999 Host Perceptions of Sociocultural Impacts, *Annals of Tourism Research*: 493-515.
- Budowski, G.
1976 Tourism and Conservation: Conflict, Coexistence or Symbiosis, *Environmental Conservation* 3: 27-31.
- Burns, P.M.
1999 **An Introduction to Tourism & Anthropology**, Routledge: London.
- Burns, P.M. and A. Holden
1995 **Tourism: A New Perspective**, Prentice Hall: Englewood Cliffs.
- Bystrzanowski, J.
1989 **Tourism a Factor of Change: A Socio-Cultural Study**, European Coordination Centre for Research and Documentation in Social Sciences: Vienna.
- Caneday, L. and J. Zeiger
1991 The Social, Economic and Environmental Costs of Tourism to a Growing Community, *Journal of Travel Research* 30(Fall): 45-48.
- Churchill, G.A.
1979 A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs, *Journal of Marketing Research* 26(2): 64-73.
- Cockerell, N.
1994 Malaysia, The Economist Intelligence Unit Limited, *International Tourism Reports* (2): 41-61.
- Cohen, E.
1978 Impact of Tourism on the Physical Environment, *Annals of Tourism Research* 5(2): 215-37.
- Cooke, K.
1982 Guidelines for Socially Appropriate Tourism Development in British Columbia, *Journal of Travel Research* 21(1): 22-28.

-
- Cooper, C., J. Fletcher, D. Gilbert and S. Wanhill
1993 **Tourism: Principles and Practice**, Pitman Publishing: London.
- Crompton, J.L.
1991 **Tourism Research: Redirections for the Nineties**. Paper Presented at the Outdoor Recreation Trends Symposium III Indianapolis, Indiana.
- Crompton, J.L. and J. Ap
1994 **Development of a Tourism Impact Scale in the Host Resident Context**, Final Report, Research Enhancement Program, Texas A&M University.
- Cronbach, L. J.
1951 Coefficient Alpha and the Internal Structure of Tests, *Psychometrika* 16: 297-334.
- Daniel, N.
1993 **Islam and the West: The Making of an Image**, Oneworld Publication: Oxford.
- Davis, D. J. Allen and R.M. Cosenza
1988 Segmenting Local Residents by their Attitudes, Interests and Opinions Toward Tourism, *Journal of Travel Research* 27(2): 2-8.
- De Kadt, E.
1979 **Tourism – Passport to Development?** Oxford University Press: New York.
- Delamere, T.A.
1998 **Development of a Scale to Measure Local Resident Attitudes toward the Social Impact of Community Festivals**, Phd. Dissertation, University of Alberta: Canada.
- DeVillis, R.F.
1991 **Scale Development: Theory and Application Applied Social Research Methods Series**, Vol. 26, Newbury Park, CA:Sage.
- Din, K. H.
1982 Tourism in Malaysia: Competing Needs in a Plural Society, *Annals of Tourism Research* 9: 453-480.

1989 Islam and Tourism: Patterns, Issues and Options, *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(4): 542-562.

-
- 1993 Normative and Positive Aspects of Muslim Travel Behaviour, In **Development and the Muslims (eds.)**, pp.209-26, Din, K.H., Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia: Bangi.
- 1997 Tourism and Cultural Development in Malaysia: Issues for a New Agenda, In **Tourism and Cultural Development in Asia and Oceania (ed.)**, Yamashita, S., Din, K.H. and Eades, J.S., Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia: Bangi, pp. 104-118.
- Dogan, H. Z.
1989 Forms of Adjustment: Sociocultural Impacts of Tourism, *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(2): 216-234.
- Doxey, G.
1975 A Causation Theory of Visitor – Resident Irritants: Methodology and Research Inferences, *Proceeding of the Travel Research Association*, 6th Annual Conference, San Diego, California.
- Duffield, B. S. and J. Long
1984 The Role of Tourism in the Economy of Scotland, *Tourism Management* 5(4): 258-68.
- Dowling, R. K.
2000 Ecotourism in Southeast Asia: A Golden Opportunity for Local Communities, In **Tourism in Southeast Asia: A New Direction (ed.)**, pp. 1-20, Chon, K. S., Haworth Hospitality Press: New York.
- Edmonds, J. and G. Leposky
2000 Ecotourism and Sustainable Tourism Development in Southeast Asia, In **Tourism in Southeast Asia: A New Direction (ed.)**, pp. 39-45, Chon, K. S., Haworth Hospitality Press: New York.
- Edwards, W.
1954 The Theory of Decision-Making, *Psychological Bulletin* 51: 380-417.
- Emory, C.W. and D.R. Cooper
1991 **Business Research Methods**, 4th Edition, Irwin: USA.
- Esposito, J. L.
1991 **Islam: The Straight Path**, Oxford University Press: London.
- Fazio, R. H., D. M. Sanbonmatsu, M. C. Powell and F. R. Kardes
1986 On the Automatic Activation of Attitudes, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 50: 229-238.

-
- Feldman, R. S.
1995 **Social Psychology**, Prentice Hall: Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Festinger, L.
1957 **A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance**, Stanford University Press: CA.
- Fishbein, M.
1963 An Investigation of the Relationships between Beliefs about an Object and Attitude toward that Object, *Human Relations* 16: 233-40.
- Fishbein, M. and I. Ajzen
1975 **Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behaviour: An Introduction to Theory and Research**, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company: Phillipines.
- Fox, M.
1977 The Social Impact of Tourism: A Challenge to Researchers and Planners, In **A New Kind of Sugar: Tourism in the Pacific**, Finney, B. R. and A. Watson, Center for South Pacific Studies, University of California: Santa Cruz, pp. 27-48.
- Fredline, E. and B. Faulkner
2000 Host Community Reactions: A Cluster Analysis, *Annals of Tourism Research* 27(3): 763-784.
- Gartner, W. C.
1996 **Tourism Development: Principles, Process and Policies**, Van Nostrand Reinhold: USA.
- Gearing, C.E., W.W. Swart and T. Var
1974 Establishing a Measure of Touristic Attractiveness, *Journal of Travel Research* 12(2): 1-8.
- Goeldner, C.R., J.R.B. Ritchie and R.W. McIntosh
2000 **Tourism: Principles, Practices, Philosophies**, Eight Edition, John Wiley & Sons: Canada.
- Graburn, N. H.
1977 Tourism: The Sacred Journey, In **Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism** (ed.), Valene, S., University of Pennsylvania Press: Philadelphia, pp.17-31.
- Greenwald, A. G.
1968 Cognitive Learning, Cognitive Response to Persuasion, and Attitude Change, In **Psychological Foundations of Attitudes (ed.)**, Greenwald, A.G., T. C. Brock and T. M. Ostrom, Academic Press: New York, pp. 147-170.

-
- 1989 Why Attitudes are Important: Defining Attitude and Attitude Theory 20 Years Later, In **Attitude Structure and Function (ed.)**, Pratkanis, A. R., S. J. Breckler and A. G. Greenwald, Erlbaum: Hillsdale, NJ.
- Gursoy, D., C. Jurowski and M. Uysal
2000 Resident Attitudes: A Structural Modeling Approach, *Annals of Tourism Research* 29(1): 79-105.
- Guttman, L.
1944 A Basis for Scaling Qualitative Data, *American Sociological Review* 9: 139-150.
- Haralambopoulos, N. and A. Pizam
1996 Perceived Impacts of Tourism: The Case of Samos, *Annals of Tourism Research* 23(3): 503-23.
- Harrison, D.
2001 **Tourism and the Less Developed World: Issues and Case Studies (eds.)**, CABI Publishing:UK.
- Harrison, F.
2000 Malaysian Islamists Demand Modesty, *World Asia-Pacific BBC News*, 13 April 2000.
- Haukeland, J. V.
1984 Sociocultural Impacts of Tourism in Scandinavia: Studies of Three Host Communities, *Tourism Management* 5(1): 207-214.
- Heider, F.
1958 **The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations**, Wiley: New York.
- Hernandez, S. A., J. Cohen and H. L. Garcia
1996 Residents' Attitudes towards an Instant Resort Enclave, *Annals of Tourism Research* 23(4): 755-779.
- Hiro, D.
1989 **Islamic Fundamentalism**, Paladin: London.
- Hoffman, D.L. and S.A. Low
1981 An Application of the Profit Transformation to Tourism Survey Data, *Journal of Travel Research* 20(2): 35-38.

Hofman,, N.

1979 **A Survey of Tourism in West Malaysia and Some Socioeconomic Implications**, Research Notes and Discussion Paper Series, Institute of Southeast Asian Tourism Studies: Singapore.

Horsfall, K.

1996 **Islam, Image and Tourism: The Case of Egypt**, Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Strathclyde: United Kingdom.

Hovland, C. I., I. L. Janis and H. H. Kelly

1953 **Communication and Persuasion**, Yale University Press: New Haven, CT.

Husbands, W.

1989 Social Status and Perception of Tourism in Zambia, *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(2): 237-53.

Information Malaysia Yearbook

1997 Berita Publishing Sdn. Bhd.: Kuala Lumpur.

IUOTO

1975 **The Impact of International Tourism on The Economic Development of the Developing Countries**, International Union of Official Travel Organization/World Tourism Organization: Geneva.

Jafari, J.

1974 The Socio-Economic Costs of Tourism to Developing Countries, *Annals of Tourism Research* 1:227-262.

1977 Editor's Page. *Annals of Tourism Research* 5: 6-11.

1989 Tourism as a Factor of Change: An English Language Literature Review 17-60, In **Tourism as a Factor of Change: A Sociocultural Study** (ed.), Bystrazanowski, J., European Coordination Centre for Research and Documentation in Social Sciences.

Jenkins, C. L.

1994 Tourism in Developing Countries: The Privatization Issues, In **Tourism: The State of Art**, Seaton, A.V., C.L. Jenkins, R.C. Wood, P.U.C. Dieke, M.M. Bennett, L.R. MacLellan and R. Smith (Eds.), Wiley and Sons: Chichester, pp. 3-9.

Johnson, J. D., D. J. Snepenger and S. Akis

1994 Residents' Perceptions of Tourism Development, *Annals of Tourism Research* 21: 629-42.

-
- Judd, C. M., R. A. Drake, J. W. Downing and J. A. Krosnick
1991 Some Dynamic Properties of Attitude Structures: Context-Induced Response Facilitation and Polarization, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 60: 193-202.
- Kachigan, S.K.
1986 Statistical Analysis: An Interdisciplinary Introduction to Univariate & Multivariate Methods, Radius Press: New York.
- Katz, D.
1960 The Functional Approach to the Study of Attitudes, *Public Opinion Quarterly* 24: 163-204.
- Kavallinis, I. and A. Pizam
1994 The Environmental Impacts of Tourism – Whose Responsibility Is It Anyway? The Case Study of Mykonos, *Journal of Travel Research* 33(2): 26-32.
- Kayat, K.
2000 Power through Tourism: A Blessing on Mahsuri's Eight Generation in Langkawi? Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Michigan State University: USA.
- Kerlinger, F.N.
1986 Foundations of Behavioural Research, 3rd Edition, Holt, Rinehart & Winston: USA.
- Khalifah, Z. and S. Tahir
1997 Malaysia: Tourism in Perspective, In Tourism and Economic Development in Asia and Australasia (Eds.), pp.176-196., Go, F. M. and C. L. Jenkins, Cassell:London.
- King, B., A. Pizam and A. Milman
1993 Social Impact of Tourism: Host Perceptions, *Annals of Tourism Research* 650-65.
- Langkawi Development Authority (LADA)
1990-2005 *Langkawi Structure Plan*, Department of Town and Country Planning, Ministry of Housing and Local Government, Government Gazette No.1, Notice No.8, Vol.35, 9th January 1992.
1992 *Langkawi Distric Council*
1999 *Langkawi Residential/Socioeconomic Study*
1999 *Survey of Tourists Arrivals*.
2000 *Economic Statistics*
2001 *Total Tourists Arrivals in Langkawi 1986-2000*.

-
- Lankford, S. V.
1994 Attitudes and Perceptions toward Tourism and Rural Regional Development, *Journal of Travel Research* (Winter): 35-48.
- Lankford, S.V. and D.R. Howard
1994 Developing a Tourism Impact Scale, *Annals of Tourism Research* 21(1): 121-39.
- Leiper, N.
1981 Towards a Cohesive Curriculum in Tourism: The Case for a Distinct Discipline, *Annals of Tourism Research* 8(1): 69-84.
- Lerner, S. C.
1977 Social Impact Assessment: Some Hard Questions and Basic Techniques, Unpublished Workshop Paper, University of Waterloo: Ontario.
- Lickorish, L. et.al
1991 Developing Tourism Destinations: Policies and Perspectives, Longman: Essex.
- Likert, R.
1932 A Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes (Special Issue), *Archives of Psychology*, 140.

1967 The Method of Constructing an Attitude Scale, In Readings in Attitude Theory and Measurement, Fishbein, M. ed., New York: Wiley, pp. 90-95.
- Lin, V. L. and P. D. Loeb
1977 Tourism and Crime in Mexico: Some Comments, *Social Science Quarterly* 58: 164-7.
- Lindberg, K., S. McCool and G. Stankey
1997 Rethinking Carrying Capacity, *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(2): 461-465.
- Lindberg, K. and R. L. Johnson
1997 Modeling Resident Attitudes toward Tourism, *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(2): 402-424.
- Liu, J. and T. Var
1986 Resident Attitudes toward Tourism Impacts in Hawaii, *Annals of Tourism Research* 13(2): 193-214.

Liu, J., P. Sheldon and T. Var

1987 A Cross-National Approach to Determining Resident Perceptions of the Impact of Tourism on the Environment, *Annals of Tourism Research* 14(1): 17-37.

Malaysia Plan

1981-1985 *Fourth Malaysia Plan*

1986-1990 *Fifth Malaysia Plan*

1991-1995 *Sixth Malaysia Plan*

1996-2000 *Seventh Malaysia Plan*

2001-2005 *Eighth Malaysia Plan*

Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (MTPB)

1975 *Malaysia: Tourist Development Plan*, TDC: Kuala Lumpur.

1991 *Fascinating Malaysia*.

1991 *Malaysia Culture*.

1994 *Annual Tourism Statistic Report 1980-1993*.

1999 *Annual Tourism Statistic Report 1992-1998*.

1999-2000 Highlights on Statistical Reports

2001 *Annual Tourism Statistic Report 1999-2000*.

2001 *Tourists Receipts for the Accommodation Sector 1999*.

Mathieson, A. and G. Wall

1993 Tourism: Economic, Physical and Social Impacts, Longman Group Limited: UK.

McCann, B.

1983 The Economic Impact of Tourism, In Workshop on Measuring the Impacts of Tourism, Pacific Area Travel Association: San Francisco, pp. 7-18.

McCool, S. F. and S. R. Martin

1994 Community Attachment and Attitudes toward Tourism Development, *Journal of Travel Research* 33(3): 29-34.

McDougall, G. H. G. and H. Munro

1989 Scaling and Attitude Measurement in Travel and Tourism Research 115-127, In Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook (eds.), S. F. Witt and L. Moutinho, Prentice Hall: New York.

McIntosh, R., C. Goeldner and B. Ritchie

1994 Tourism: Principles, Practice and Philosophies 7th ed., John Wiley and Sons, Inc.: New York.

-
- McPheters, L. R. and W. B. Stronge
1974 Crime as an Environmental Externality of Tourism: Florida, *Land Economics* 50: 288-92.
- Middleton, M.
1971 New Uses of Old Towns – Conservation in Action, In Tourism and Environment, British Tourist Authority: London, pp.37-40.
- Milman, A. and A. Pizam
1988 Social Impacts of Tourism on Central Florida, *Annals of Tourism Research* 15(2): 191-204.
- Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism (undated)
Malaysia Tourism Policy Study- Domestic Tourism, MOCAT: Kuala Lumpur.
- Moghaddam, F. M., D. M. Taylor and S. C. Wright
1993 Social Psychology in Cross-Cultural Perspective, In Social Psychology, 1995, Feldman, R.S., Prentice Hall: Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Mohamad, M.
1997 *Langkawi: Into the Next Millenium*, New Straits Times Special Report, July, 28:1-1.
- Mohd. Shariff, N., F. Hashim and N. Abdul Rahman
2000 “Sikap Penduduk Tempatan terhadap Pembangunan Pelancongan di Negeri Kedah”, *Utara Management Review* 1(2): 39-56.
- Mowforth, M. and I. Munt
1998 Tourism and Sustainability: New Tourism in the Third World, Routledge:London.
- Murphy, P.E.
1981 Community Attitudes to Tourism: A Comparative Analysis, *Tourism Management* 2(3): 189-95.

1983 Perceptions and Attitudes on Decision-Making Groups in Tourism Centers, *Journal of Travel Research* 21(Winter): 8-12.
- mylangkawi.com
1999 *Embark on Smart Partnerships to Attract Tourists*, Sydney, October, 17.
2000 *Langkawi Offers Attractive Holiday Package Through Sports*, Langkawi, September.
2001 *Langkawi the Duty Free Island – 10 Years Later*, Langkawi, July, 11.
2001 *Misi Promosi Langkawi ke Negara Eropah Berjaya*, Langkawi, March, 16.
2001 *Langkawi Needs More Robust Approach in Luring Tourists*, Langkawi.

-
- National Economic Recovery Plan
1999 **Revitalising Affected Sectors**, Chapter Seven.
- Neulinger, J. and M. Breit
1971 Attitude Dimensions of Leisure: A Replication Study, *Journal of Leisure Research* 3: 108-115.
- New Strait Times
1999 *Langkawi Aims to be a 'Must Visit' Tourist Spot*, February, 22: TED Case Studies.
- Ngah, K.
1991 *Development Impact Study of Langkawi*, Research for Urban Development Authority.
- North Review
1995 *Langkawi Soars to Greater Heights*, Published Brochure, Alor Setar, Kedah: The State Government of Kedah Darul Aman.
- Nunally, J.C.
1978 **Psychometric Theory**, 2nd. Edition, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- OECD
1980 **The Impact of Tourism on the Environment**, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development: Paris.
- Omar, H.
1996 **Community Perceptions on Tourism Impacts: A Case of University Students in Malaysia**, Unpublished MSc. Thesis, University of Strathclyde: United Kingdom.
- Oppermann, M.
1992 Intranational Tourist Flows in Malaysia, *Annals of Tourism Research* 19(3): 482-500.
- Opperman, M. and C. Kye-Sung
1997 **Tourism in Developing Countries**, International Thomson Business Press: London.
- Othman, L. I.
1998 **Entrepreneurial Opportunities for Small and Medium Scale Companies Related to Tourism Development: The Case of Langkawi, Malaysia**, Unpublished Phd. Dissertation, University of Strathclyde: United Kingdom.

-
- Osgood, C. E.
1952 The Nature and Measurement of Meaning, *Psychological Bulletin* 49: 197-237.
- Ostrom, T. M.
1969 The Relationship between the Affective, Behavioural and Cognitive Components of Attitudes, *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 5: 12-30.
- Parasuraman, A. V.A. Zeithaml and L.L. Berry
1988 Servqual: A Multiple-item Scale for Measuring Consumer Perceptions of Service Quality, *Journal of Retailing* 64: 12-40.
- Pearce, D.
1994 **Tourist Development** 2nd ed. Longman Scientific and Technical: England.
- Perdue, R., P. Long and L. Allen
1987 Rural Resident Tourism Perceptions and Attitudes, *Annals of Tourism Research* 14(3): 420-29.

1990 Resident Support for Tourism Development, *Annals of Tourism Research* 17(4): 586-99.
- Petty, R. E. and T. C. Brock
1981 Thought Disruption and Persuasion: Assessing the Validity of Attitude Change Experiments, In **Cognitive Responses in Persuasion (ed.)**, pp. 57-79, Petty, R. E., T. M. Ostrom and T. C. Brock, Lawrence Erlbaum: Hillsdale, NJ.
- Pizam, A.
1978 Tourism Impacts: The Social Costs to the Destination Community as Perceived by Its Residents, *Journal of Travel Research* 16(Spring): 8-12.
- Pratkanis, A. R. and A. G. Greenwald
1989 A Sociocognitive Model of Attitude Structure and Function, In **Advances in Experimental Social Psychology (ed.)** Vol. 22, L. Berkowitz, Academic Press: New York.
- Pye, E. A. and T. -B. Lin
1983 **Tourism in Asia: the Economic Impact (eds.)**, Singapore University Press: Singapore.
- Rajecki, D. W.
1989 **Attitudes (2nd ed.)**, Sinauer: Sunderland, MA.

-
- Robinson, M., N. Evans and P. Callaghan
1996 **Tourism and Culture: Towards the 21st Century, Conference Proceedings (eds.)**, Athenaeum Press: Gateshead, UK.
- Robson, C.
1993 **Real World Research**, Blackwell: USA.
- Roebusk, J. and P. McNamara
1973 Ficheras and Free Lancers: Prostitution in a Mexican Border City, *Archives of Sexual Behaviour* 2: 231-44.
- Rokeach, M.
1970 **Beliefs, Attitudes and Values**, Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers: California.
- Rollins, R.
1997 Validation of the TIAS as a Tourism Tool, *Annals of Tourism Research* Vol.24 (3): 740-742.
- Roscoe, J.T.
1975 **Fundamental Research Statistics for the Behavioural Sciences**, 2nd Edition, Holt, Rinehart & Winston: New York.
- Rosenberg, M. J.
1960 An Analysis of Affective-Cognitive Consistency, In **Attitude Organization and Change (ed.)**, Hovland, C. I. and M. J. Rosenberg, Yale University Press: New Haven, CT.
- Ross, G.F.
1992 Resident Perceptions of the Impact of Tourism on an Australian City, *Journal of Travel Research* 30 (Winter): 13-17.
- Rothman, R.
1978 Residents and Transients: Community Reaction to Seasonal Visitors, *Journal of Travel Research* 16 (Winter): 8-13.
- Ryan, C., A. Scotland and D. Montgomery
1998 Resident Attitudes to Tourism Development – a Comparative Study between the Rangitikei, New Zealand and Bakewell, United Kingdom, *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research* 4: 115-130.
- Sabini, J.
1995 **Social Psychology (2nd. Ed)**, W.W. Norton and Company: New York.

-
- Salih, K., H.T. Seng and C.C. Pen
1992 **World Capital and Direct Foreign Investment in Malaysia: What is the Outlook?.** National Outlook Conference.
- Schein, E. H.
1990 Organizational Culture, *American Psychologist* 45: 109-119, In **Social Psychology**, 1995, Feldman, R.S., Prentice Hall: Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Schlenker, B. R.
1982 Translating Actions into Attitudes: An Identify-Analytic Approach to the Explanation of Social Conduct, In **Advances in Experimental Social Psychology (ed.)** Vol. 15, L. Berkowitz, Academic Press: New York, pp. 193-247.
- Schneider, I.E., S.V. Lankford and T. Oguchi
1997 The Cross-Cultural Equivalence of the TIAS: Summary Results, *Annals of Tourism Research* Vol.24 (4): 994-997.
- Sedlack, R.G. and J. Stanley
1992 **Social Research: Theory and Methods**, Allyn and Bacon: USA.
- Sekaran, U.
1992 **Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach**, 2nd Edition, John Wiley & Sons: USA.
- Selltiz, C., L. S. Wrightsman and S. W. Cook
1976 **Research Methods in Social Relations (3rd ed.)**, Holt, Rinehart and Winston: New York.
- Sethna, R.J. and B.O. Richmond
1978 U.S. Virgin Islanders' Perceptions of Tourism, *Journal of Travel Research* 17 (Summer): 30-31.
- Sethna, R.J.
1980 Social Impact of Tourism in Selected Caribbean Countries, In **Tourism Planning and Development Issues** edited by D. Hawkins, E. Shafer and J. Rovelstad, Washington DC: George Washington University, pp. 239-49.
- Seward, A. B. and B. K. Spinard
1982 **Tourism in the Caribbean: The Economic Impact (eds.)**, International Development Research Centre: Ottawa.
- Shah, J. and E. T. Higgins
1997 Expectancy X Value Effects: Regulatory Focus as Determinant of Magnitude and Direction, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 73: 447-458.

Shavitt, S.

1989 Operationalizing Functional Theories of Attitude, In Attitude Structure and Function (ed.), Pratkanis, A. R., S. J. Breckler and A. G. Greenwald, Erlbaum: Hillsdale, NJ.

Sheldon, P. and T. Var

1984 Resident Attitudes to Tourism in North Wales, *Tourism Management* 5(1): 40-48.

Siew Hoon, Y.

1996 Malaysia: All Set for Growth, *Tourism Asia*, Feb/March: 35-44.

Singer, M.

1968 The Concept of Culture, In International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences (ed.), Vol.3, Sills, D., Macmillan: New York, pp. 527-41.

Smith, M. B., J. S. Bruner and R. W. White

1956 Behaviour Theory and Conditioning, Yale University Press: New Haven.

Smith, V. L. and W. R. Eadington

1996 Tourism Alternatives: Potentials and Problems in the Development of Tourism (ed.), John Wiley & Sons: England.

Star Publication

1999 *Economic Crisis Pulls Down Malaysia Tourism Ranking*, March, 25: TED Case Studies.

Sudman, S.

1967 Reducing the Costs of Surveys, Aldine Publishing: Chicago.

Sunday Publication

1999 *Langkawi Aims to be a 'Must Visit' Tourist Spot*, February, 21: TED Case Studies.

Syed Amir, N.

1991 Malaysian Customs and Etiquette: A Practical Handbook, Times Books International: Kuala Lumpur.

Tahir, S.

1996 Visit Malaysia Year 1994: A Benefit Based Study of Inbound Tourists, Unpublished Phd. Dissertation, University of Strathclyde: United Kingdom.

Taylor, S. E., L. A. Peplau and O. S. David

2000 Social Psychology (10th ed.), Prentice Hall: Upper Saddle River, NJ.

TED Case Studies

1999 **Tourism in Langkawi Island.**

Tesser, A. and D. R. Shaffer

1990 Attitudes and Attitude Change, *Annual Review of Psychology* 41: 479-523.

The Holy Quran

"*Surah Al-An'Aam*", 11.

"*Surah Al-Baqarah*", 196.

"*Surah Ali 'Imran*", 137

"*Surah An-Nahl*", 36.

"*Surah An-Naml*", 69.

"*Surah Ar-Rum*", 42.

"*Surah Muhammad s.a.w.*", 10.

"*Surah Yusuf*", 109.

Theobald, W.

1994 **Global Tourism: The Next Decade**, Butterworth-Heinemann: London.

Theuns, D. L.

1976 Notes on the Economic Impact of International Tourism in Developing Countries, *Tourist Review* 31(3): 2-10.

Thomason, P., J.L. Crompton and B.D. Kamp

1979 A Study of the Attitudes of Impacted Groups within a Host Community toward Prolonged Stay Tourist Visitors, *Journal of Travel Research* 17 (Winter): 2-6.

Thurstone, L. L.

1931 The Measurement of Attitudes, *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 26: 249-269.

Tinsley, H.O. and D. Tinsley

1987 Uses of Factor Analysis in Counseling Psychology Research, *Journal of Counseling Psychology* 34: 414-24.

Tisdell, C. and J. Wen

1997 Why Care is Needed in Applying Indicators of the Sustainability of Tourism, *Australian Journal of Environmental Management* 2(March): 19-29.

Tisdell, C.

2000 **The Economics of Tourism Volume II**, Edward Elgar Publishing Limited: Great Britain.

-
- Tyrrell, T. and I. Spaulding
1984 A Survey of Attitudes toward Tourism Growth in Rhode Island, *Hospitality Education and Research Journal* 8(2): 22-33.
- Um, S. and J. L. Crompton
1990 Attitude Determinants in Tourism Destination Choice, *Annals of Tourism Research* 17: 432-448.
- UNESCO
1976 The Effects of Tourism on Socio-cultural Values, *Annals of Tourism Research* 4: 74-105.
- Uriely, N. and A. Reichel
2000 Working Tourists and their Attitudes to Hosts, *Annals of Tourism Research* 27(2): 267-283.
- Var, T., K. Kendall and E. Tarakcioglu
1985 Resident Attitudes toward Tourists in a Turkish Resort Town, *Annals of Tourism Research* 12(4): 652-58.
- Wahab, S. and J. J. Pigram
1999 **Tourism, Development and Growth: The Challenge of Sustainability** (ed.), Routledge: London.
- Wall, G. and C. Wright
1977 The Environmental Impact of Outdoor Recreation, Department of Geography Publication Series No. 11, University of Waterloo: Waterloo.
- Wang, Chih-Yung and P. S. Miko
1997 Environmental Impacts of Tourism on U.S. National Parks, *Journal of Travel Research* 35(4): 31- 36.
- Waters, M.
1995 Globalization, Routledge:London.
- Watt, M.
1988 Islamic Fundamentalism and Modernity, Routledge: London.
- Wells, R. J. G.
1982 Tourism Planning in a Presently Developing Country: The Case of Malaysia, *Tourism Management* 3(2): 98-107.
- Williams, A. and G. Shaw
1991 Tourism & Economic Development: Western European Experiences. Belhaven Press: London.

Wolf, C. P.

1977 Social Impact Assessment: The State of the Art, updated, *SIA Newsletter* 29: 3-23.

Zaichowsky, J.

1985 Measuring the Involvement Construct, *Journal of Consumer Behavior* 12: 341-52

Zainuddin, D

1997 *Langkawi: Into the Next Millenium*, New Straits Times Special Report, July 28:3-3.

Appendix A

List of the Panel Expert Judges

International Judges:

Dr. John Ap
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Professor John L. Crompton
Texas A&M University

Professor Geoffrey Wall
University of Waterloo, Canada

Professor Jafar Jafari
University of Winconsin-Stout

Professor Phillip Pearce
James Cook University

Local Judges:

Dr. Ismail Lebai Othman
Deputy Dean, School of Tourism Management
Universiti Utara Malaysia

Dr. Ali Yusob Md. Zain
Associate Professor, School of Tourism Management
Universiti Utara Malaysia

Dr. Kalsom Kayat
Deputy Dean, School of Tourism Management
Universiti Utara Malaysia

Dr. Razak Chik
Associate Professor and Dean, School of Economics
Universiti Utara Malaysia

Appendix B

PANEL JUDGES SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Sir

I am doing a study on "*Developing a Scale to Measure Resident Attitudes Toward Impacts of Tourism in Langkawi, Malaysia*" for my doctoral programme at the University of Strathclyde, United Kingdom.

Thank you for agreeing to be one of the judges to evaluate the tourism impact items for the proposed scale. Your response to the questions is very important in order for me to come out with an attitudinal scale which is reliable for the case of tourism impacts in Langkawi, Malaysia.

I would appreciate it very much if you could answer all the questions and give any comments and suggestions for a better development of the scale. All information given will only be used for the purpose of this study.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Nurhazani Mohd Shariff
Scottish Hotel School
University of Strathclyde
Glasgow
United Kingdom

PART I

Representation of Tourism Impact

The items below represent impacts of tourism in different aspects such as economic, environmental and socio-cultural. However, some of them may not represent the impacts of tourism at all. Please indicate the degree of representation by indicating if the item is;

1. *Clearly representative of a tourism impact.*
2. *Somewhat representative of a tourism impact.*
3. *Not representative of a tourism impact.*

- | | | |
|-----|--|----------|
| 1. | Tourism increases the noise level in the residents' area. | { } |
| 2. | Tourism creates demand for cultural activities and programs in the residents' area. | { } |
| 3. | Tourism creates demand for the historical activities and programs in the residents' area. | { } |
| 4. | Tourism creates a variety of cultural facilities and activities in the residents' area. | { } |
| 5. | Tourism creates opportunities to learn about other people and cultures. | { } |
| 6. | Tourism creates awareness/recognition of the local culture and heritage among the tourists. | { } |
| 7. | Tourism creates a variety of entertainment in the residents' area. | { } |
| 8. | Tourism creates opportunities to restore and protect historical structures in the residents' area. | { } |
| 9. | Tourism creates opportunities to meet interesting people. | { } |
| 10. | Tourism creates an understanding of different people and cultures by the residents. | { } |
| 11. | Tourism creates vitality for the residents' life. | { } |

12. Tourism increases the revenue generated in the economy. { }
13. Tourism increases the number of jobs to the residents. { }
14. Tourism increases the residents' personal income. { }
15. Tourism increases the amount of income going to the local businesses. { }
16. Tourism creates a variety of shopping facilities in the residents' area. { }
17. Tourism increases the investment and development spending in the residents' area. { }
18. Tourism creates a variety of restaurants in the residents' area. { }
19. Tourism increases the level of traffic congestion in the residents' area. { }
20. Tourism increases the size of crowds which restrict the residents activities in the public areas. { }
21. Tourism increases the size of crowds which affect the enjoyment of residents activities in the public areas. { }
22. Tourism increases the number of driving hazards by tourists. { }
23. Tourism destroys the natural environment (flora and fauna). { }
24. Tourism destroys the wildlife (plants, birds and animals). { }
25. Tourism decreases the quality of natural environment (flora and fauna). { }
26. Tourism increases the level of urbanization (city-type development) in the residents' area. { }
27. Tourism increases the physical ability of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area. { }
28. Tourism increases the quality of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area. { }
29. Tourism increases the financial resources of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area. { }

30. Tourism increases the amount of local taxes collected in the residents' area. { }
31. Tourism increases the amount of property taxes collected in the residents' area. { }
32. Tourism increases the amount of local sales taxes collected in the residents' area. { }
33. Tourism creates a positive attitude by residents toward tourists. { }
34. Tourism creates a community spirit among the residents. { }
35. Tourism creates pride among the residents. { }
36. Tourism increases the level of crime in the residents' area. { }
37. Tourism increases the residents' standard of living. { }
38. Tourism increases the amount of vandalism in the residents' area. { }
39. Tourism creates changes to the residents' traditional culture. { }
40. Tourism increases the cost of living in the residents' area. { }
41. Tourism creates opportunities for cultural exchange and education between the residents and tourists. { }
42. Tourism creates preservation of the residents' cultural identity. { }
43. Tourism improves the understanding and image of the residents. { }
44. Tourism improves the appearance of the residents' area. { }
45. Tourism increases the amount of trade for local businesses. { }
46. Tourism creates demand for accommodation in the residents' area. { }
47. Tourism disrupts the peace and tranquility of the residents. { }
48. Tourism increases the prices of goods in the residents' area. { }

PART II

Items Objectionable to Respondents

With reference to the current level of tourism development in Langkawi, Malaysia, please give your answer to the following statements and questions. Do you think this item is objectionable to the residents?

1. *Yes*

2. *No*

- | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|
| 1. | Tourism increases the noise level in the residents' area. | { | } |
| 2. | Tourism creates demand for cultural activities and programs in the residents' area. | { | } |
| 3. | Tourism creates demand for the historical activities and programs in the residents' area. | { | } |
| 4. | Tourism creates a variety of cultural facilities and activities in the residents' area. | { | } |
| 5. | Tourism creates opportunities to learn about other people and cultures. | { | } |
| 6. | Tourism creates awareness/recognition of the local culture and heritage among the tourists. | { | } |
| 7. | Tourism creates a variety of entertainment in the residents' area. | { | } |
| 8. | Tourism creates opportunities to restore and protect historical structures in the residents' area. | { | } |
| 9. | Tourism creates opportunities to meet interesting people. | { | } |
| 10. | Tourism creates an understanding of different people and cultures by the residents. | { | } |
| 11. | Tourism creates vitality for the residents' life. | { | } |
| 12. | Tourism increases the revenue generated in the economy. | { | } |

13. Tourism increases the number of jobs to the residents. { }
14. Tourism increases the residents' personal income. { }
15. Tourism increases the amount of income going to the local businesses. { }
16. Tourism creates a variety of shopping facilities in the residents' area. { }
17. Tourism increases the investment and development spending in the residents' area. { }
18. Tourism creates a variety of restaurants in the residents' area. { }
19. Tourism increases the level of traffic congestion in the residents' area. { }
20. Tourism increases the size of crowds which restrict the residents activities in the public areas. { }
21. Tourism increases the size of crowds which affect the enjoyment of residents activities in the public areas. { }
22. Tourism increases the number of driving hazards by tourists. { }
23. Tourism destroys the natural environment (flora and fauna). { }
24. Tourism destroys the wildlife (plants, birds and animals). { }
25. Tourism decreases the quality of natural environment (flora and fauna). { }
26. Tourism increases the level of urbanization (city-type development) in the residents' area. { }
27. Tourism increases the physical ability of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area. { }
28. Tourism increases the quality of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area. { }
29. Tourism increases the financial resources of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area. { }

30. Tourism increases the amount of local taxes collected in the residents' area. { }
31. Tourism increases the amount of property taxes collected in the residents' area. { }
32. Tourism increases the amount of local sales taxes collected in the residents' area. { }
33. Tourism creates a positive attitude by residents toward tourists. { }
34. Tourism creates a community spirit among the residents. { }
35. Tourism creates pride among the residents. { }
36. Tourism increases the level of crime in the residents' area. { }
37. Tourism increases the residents' standard of living. { }
38. Tourism increases the amount of vandalism in the residents' area. { }
39. Tourism creates changes to the residents' traditional culture. { }
40. Tourism increases the cost of living in the residents' area. { }
41. Tourism creates opportunities for cultural exchange and education between the residents and tourists. { }
42. Tourism creates preservation of the residents' cultural identity. { }
43. Tourism improves the understanding and image of the residents. { }
44. Tourism improves the appearance of the residents' area. { }
45. Tourism increases the amount of trade for local businesses. { }
46. Tourism creates demand for accommodation in the residents' area. { }
47. Tourism disrupts the peace and tranquility of the residents. { }
48. Tourism increases the prices of goods in the residents' area. { }

PART III

Tourism Impact Domains

Please classify the items into tourism impact domains by indicating;

1. *Economic domain*
2. *Environmental domain*
3. *Social and cultural domain*
4. *Other domain (e.g. taxes, crowding and services)
Please specify*

- | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|
| 1. | Tourism increases the noise level in the residents' area. | { | } |
| 2. | Tourism creates demand for cultural activities and programs in the residents' area. | { | } |
| 3. | Tourism creates demand for the historical activities and programs in the residents' area. | { | } |
| 4. | Tourism creates a variety of cultural facilities and activities in the residents' area. | { | } |
| 5. | Tourism creates opportunities to learn about other people and cultures. | { | } |
| 6. | Tourism creates awareness/recognition of the local culture and heritage among the tourists. | { | } |
| 7. | Tourism creates a variety of entertainment in the residents' area. | { | } |
| 8. | Tourism creates opportunities to restore and protect historical structures in the residents' area. | { | } |
| 9. | Tourism creates opportunities to meet interesting people. | { | } |
| 10. | Tourism creates an understanding of different people and cultures by the residents. | { | } |

11. Tourism creates vitality for the residents' life. { }
12. Tourism increases the revenue generated in the economy. { }
13. Tourism increases the number of jobs to the residents. { }
14. Tourism increases the residents' personal income. { }
15. Tourism increases the amount of income going to the local businesses. { }
16. Tourism creates a variety of shopping facilities in the residents' area. { }
17. Tourism increases the investment and development spending in the residents' area. { }
18. Tourism creates a variety of restaurants in the residents' area. { }
19. Tourism increases the level of traffic congestion in the residents' area. { }
20. Tourism increases the size of crowds which restrict the residents activities in the public areas. { }
21. Tourism increases the size of crowds which affect the enjoyment of residents activities in the public areas. { }
22. Tourism increases the number of driving hazards by tourists. { }
23. Tourism destroys the natural environment (flora and fauna). { }
24. Tourism destroys the wildlife (plants, birds and animals). { }
25. Tourism decreases the quality of natural environment (flora and fauna). { }
26. Tourism increases the level of urbanization (city-type development) in the residents' area. { }
27. Tourism increases the physical ability of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area. { }
28. Tourism increases the quality of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area. { }

29. Tourism increases the financial resources of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area. { }
30. Tourism increases the amount of local taxes collected in the residents' area. { }
31. Tourism increases the amount of property taxes collected in the residents' area. { }
32. Tourism increases the amount of local sales taxes collected in the residents' area. { }
33. Tourism creates a positive attitude by residents toward tourists. { }
34. Tourism creates a community spirit among the residents. { }
35. Tourism creates pride among the residents. { }
36. Tourism increases the level of crime in the residents' area. { }
37. Tourism increases the residents' standard of living. { }
38. Tourism increases the amount of vandalism in the residents' area. { }
39. Tourism creates changes to the residents' traditional culture. { }
40. Tourism increases the cost of living in the residents' area. { }
41. Tourism creates opportunities for cultural exchange and education between the residents and tourists. { }
42. Tourism creates preservation of the residents' cultural identity. { }
43. Tourism improves the understanding and image of the residents. { }
44. Tourism improves the appearance of the residents' area. { }
45. Tourism increases the amount of trade for local businesses. { }
46. Tourism creates demand for accommodation in the residents' area. { }
47. Tourism disrupts the peace and tranquility of the residents. { }

Appendix C

PRE-TEST SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

I am doing a study on “*Developing a Scale to Measure Resident Attitudes Toward Impacts of Tourism in Langkawi, Malaysia*” for my doctoral programme at the University of Strathclyde, United Kingdom.

This survey is being conducted in order to pre-test the instrument. The purpose is only to determine the tourism impacts items which affect residents in Langkawi. It is assumed that you have been to Langkawi, however, if not, please think of a tourist destination you are familiar with.

I would appreciate it very much if you could answer all the questions and send it back to me as soon as possible. All information given will only be used for the purpose of this study.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Nurhazani Mohd Shariff
Scottish Hotel School
University of Strathclyde
Glasgow
United Kingdom

First, please indicate whether you believe the impact item is,

- P = a positive impact
 N = a negative impact
 X = neither a positive nor
 negative impact

Second, if you have indicated a positive (P) or negative (N) response, please indicate one of the 5 numbers which corresponds to the level of importance of each item.

- 1 = Unimportant
 2 = Somewhat unimportant
 3 = Neither unimportant nor important
 4 = Somewhat important
 5 = Important

Impact Item	Type of Impact	Level of Importance
-------------	----------------	---------------------

Tourism brings about a change in:

- | | | |
|---|-----|-----|
| 1. The noise level in the residents' area. | { } | { } |
| 2. Demand for cultural activities and programs in the residents' area. | { } | { } |
| 3. Demand for the historical activities and programs in the residents' area. | { } | { } |
| 4. Opportunities to learn about other people and cultures. | { } | { } |
| 5. Awareness/recognition of the local culture and heritage among the tourists. | { } | { } |
| 6. The variety of entertainment in the residents' area. | { } | { } |
| 7. Opportunities to restore and protect historical structures in the residents' area. | { } | { } |
| 8. Opportunities to meet interesting people. | { } | { } |
| 9. An understanding of different people and cultures by the residents. | { } | { } |
| 10. Vitality for the residents' life. | { } | { } |

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 11. The revenue generated in the economy. | { | } | { | } |
| 12. The number of jobs to the residents. | { | } | { | } |
| 13. The residents' personal income. | { | } | { | } |
| 14. The amount of income going to the local businesses. | { | } | { | } |
| 15. The variety of shopping facilities in the residents' area. | { | } | { | } |
| 16. The investment spending in the residents' area. | { | } | { | } |
| 17. The variety of restaurants in the residents' area. | { | } | { | } |
| 18. The level of traffic congestion in the residents' area. | { | } | { | } |
| 19. The size of crowds which affect the residents activities in the public areas. | { | } | { | } |
| 20. The size of crowds which affect the enjoyment of residents activities in the public areas. | { | } | { | } |
| 21. The number of driving hazards by tourists. | { | } | { | } |
| 22. The natural environment (flora and fauna). | { | } | { | } |
| 23. The wildlife (plants, birds and animals). | { | } | { | } |
| 24. The quality of natural environment (flora and fauna). | { | } | { | } |
| 25. The level of urbanization (city-type development) in the residents' area. | { | } | { | } |
| 26. The physical ability of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area. | { | } | { | } |
| 27. The quality of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area. | { | } | { | } |

28. The financial resources of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area. { } { }
29. The amount of local taxes collected in the residents' area. { } { }
30. The amount of property taxes collected in the residents' area. { } { }
31. The amount of local sales taxes collected in the residents' area. { } { }
32. The residents' attitude toward tourists. { } { }
33. The community spirit among the residents. { } { }
34. The pride of local residents. { } { }
35. The level of crime in the residents' area. { } { }
36. The residents' standard of living. { } { }
37. The amount of vandalism in the residents' area. { } { }
38. The residents' traditional culture. { } { }
39. The residents' cost of living. { } { }
40. Opportunities for cultural exchange between the residents and tourists. { } { }
41. The appearance of the residents' area. { } { }
42. The amount of trade for local businesses. { } { }
43. Demand for accommodation in the residents' area. { } { }
44. The price of goods in the residents' area. { } { }

Thank you for your cooperation.

Appendix D

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

I am doing a study on “*Developing a Scale to Measure Resident Attitudes toward Impacts of Tourism in Langkawi, Malaysia*” for my doctoral programme at the University of Strathclyde, United Kingdom.

This survey is being conducted in order to test the instrument. The purpose is to develop a standardize scale to measure resident attitudes toward impacts of tourism development. I would appreciate it very much if you could answer all the questions. All information given will only be used for the purpose of this study.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Nurhazani Mohd Shariff
Scottish Hotel School
University of Strathclyde
Glasgow
United Kingdom

PART I

Please circle one number or category which corresponds to the level of change for each item.

1	=	Large Decrease
2	=	Moderate Decrease
3	=	No Change
4	=	Moderate Increase
5	=	Large Increase
6	=	Do Not Know

Item**Level of Change**

Tourism development in Langkawi has brought about the following change in the:

1. Noise level in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Demand for cultural activities and programs in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Demand for the historical activities and programs in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. An understanding of different people and cultures by the residents.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. The amount of revenue generated in the economy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. The amount of investment spending in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. The number of wildlife (plants, birds and animals) in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. The quality of natural environment (flora and fauna) in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Variety of entertainment in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. The quality of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Item	Level of Change					
11. The amount of financial resources of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. The capacity of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) to perform their services in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. The amount of property taxes collected in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. The positive attitude of residents toward tourists.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. The community spirit among the residents.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. The pride of local residents.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Opportunities for cultural exchange between the residents and tourists.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Demand for accommodation in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Awareness/recognition of the local culture and heritage among the tourists.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. The residents' standard of living.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. The variety of restaurants in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Opportunities to restore and protect historical structures in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. The variety of shopping facilities in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. The amount of trade for local businesses.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Item	Level of Change					
26. The amount of local taxes collected in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. The size of crowds which affect the enjoyment of residents activities in the public area.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. The amount of income going to the local businesses.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. The residents' traditional culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6

PART II

Please circle one number which corresponds to your level of like or dislike for the changes brought about by tourism.

1	=	Dislike
2	=	Somewhat Dislike
3	=	Neither Like Nor Dislike
4	=	Somewhat Like
5	=	Like

Item	Level of Liking/Disliking				
<i>The following changes brought about by tourism in the:</i>					
1. Noise level in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Demand for cultural activities and programs in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Demand for the historical activities and programs in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
4. An understanding of different people and cultures by the residents.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The amount of revenue generated in the economy.	1	2	3	4	5

Item	Level of Liking/Disliking				
6. The amount of investment spending in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The number of wildlife (plants, birds and animals) in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The quality of natural environment (flora and fauna) in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The variety of entertainment in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The quality of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The amount of financial resources of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The capacity of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) to perform their services in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
13. The amount of property taxes collected in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
14. The positive attitude of residents toward tourists.	1	2	3	4	5
15. The community spirit among the residents.	1	2	3	4	5
16. The pride of local residents.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Opportunities for cultural exchange between the residents and tourists.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Demand for accommodation in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.	1	2	3	4	5

Item	Level of Liking/Disliking				
20. Awareness/recognition of the local culture and heritage among the tourists.	1	2	3	4	5
21. The residents' standard of living.	1	2	3	4	5
22. The variety of restaurants in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Opportunities to restore and protect historical structures in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
24. The variety of shopping facilities in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
25. The amount of trade for local businesses.	1	2	3	4	5
26. The amount of local taxes collected in the residents' area.	1	2	3	4	5
27. The size of crowds which affect the enjoyment of residents activities in the public area.	1	2	3	4	5
28. The amount of income going to the local businesses.	1	2	3	4	5
29. The residents' traditional culture.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Overall, I would rate the changes in my area which associated with tourism as something I,	1	2	3	4	5

PART III

This part of the survey asks information about you and your household. Please circle one number which corresponds to your answer.

1. Are you or any member of your household employed in a tourism-related job?

1 = Yes

2 = No

2. How many years have you lived in Langkawi?

- 1 = Above 6 years
- 2 = Between 4 – 6 years
- 3 = Between 1 – 3 years
- 4 = Below 1 year

3. How old are you?

- 1 = Above 50 years old
- 2 = Between 40 – 50 years old
- 3 = Between 20 – 39 years old
- 4 = Below 20 years old

4. Overall, do you like the changes brought about by tourism in Langkawi?

- 1 = Yes
- 2 = No

5. What is your race?

- 1 = Malay
- 2 = Chinese
- 3 = Indian
- 4 = Others

Thank you for your cooperation.

Appendix E

BORANG SOAL SELIDIK

Assalamua'laikum / Salam sejahtera,

Saya merupakan pelajar program Phd. dalam bidang pelancongan di University of Starthclyde, United Kingdom. Bersama ini disertakan borang soal selidik bagi memenuhi kajian saya yang bertajuk, "*Developing a Scale to Measure Resident Attitudes toward Impact of Tourism in Langkawi, Malaysia*".

Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengenalpasti item impak pelancongan yang memberi kesan kepada penduduk di Langkawi. Borang soal selidik ini diedarkan bertujuan untuk mencapai objektif kajian semata-mata. Kerjasama tuan/puan menjawab borang soal selidik ini amat dihargai dan didahului dengan ucapan terima kasih.

Sekian, wassalam.

Yang benar,

Nurhazani Mohd Shariff
Scottish Hotel School
University of Strathclyde
Glasgow
United Kingdom

Bahagian I - Berikut adalah tahap-tahap perubahan akibat daripada pembangunan pelancongan di Langkawi. Sila bulatkan jawapan anda berdasarkan:

- 1 = Menurun dengan kadar yang banyak
 2 = Menurun dengan kadar yang sedikit
 3 = Tiada perubahan berlaku
 4 = Meningkatkan dengan kadar yang sedikit
 5 = Meningkatkan dengan kadar yang banyak
 6 = Tiada jawapan / tidak tahu

Item Impak Pelancongan	Tahap Perubahan					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Pelancongan menyebabkan tahap kebisingan di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Pelancongan menyebabkan permintaan terhadap aktiviti dan program budaya di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Pelancongan menyebabkan permintaan terhadap aktiviti dan program bersejarah di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Pelancongan menyebabkan tahap pemahaman penduduk terhadap pelbagai budaya dan manusia,	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Pelancongan menyebabkan tahap pendapatan yang dihasilkan untuk ekonomi di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Pelancongan menyebabkan jumlah pelaburan ke atas kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Pelancongan menyebabkan jumlah kehidupan liar (tumbuhan, burung dan binatang) di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Pelancongan menyebabkan qualiti alam persekitaran (flora dan fauna) di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Pelancongan menyebabkan pelbagai hiburan di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6

Item Impak Pelancongan	Tahap Perubahan					
10. Pelancongan menyebabkan kualiti servis jabatan perkhidmatan tempatan (polis, bomba dan hospital) di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Pelancongan menyebabkan jumlah sumber kewangan jabatan perkhidmatan tempatan (polis, bomba dan hospital) di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Pelancongan menyebabkan tahap keupayaan servis jabatan perkhidmatan tempatan (polis, bomba dan hospital) di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Pelancongan menyebabkan jumlah cukai ke atas aset yang dikutip di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Pelancongan menyebabkan sikap positif penduduk terhadap pelancong,	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Pelancongan menyebabkan tahap kekeluargaan di kalangan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Pelancongan menyebabkan pemeliharaan maruah di kalangan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Pelancongan menyebabkan jumlah peluang berlakunya pertukaran budaya di antara penduduk dan pelancong,	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Pelancongan menyebabkan jumlah permintaan terhadap sektor penginapan di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Pelancongan menyebabkan jumlah peluang mempelajari sikap dan budaya luar,	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Pelancongan menyebabkan tahap kesedaran/ pengiktirafan budaya dan warisan tempatan dikalangan pelancong,	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Pelancongan menyebabkan tahap kepentingan aspek kehidupan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6

Item Impak Pelancongan	Tahap Perubahan					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Pelancongan menyebabkan jumlah restoran yang pelbagai di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Pelancongan menyebabkan peluang memelihara struktur bersejarah di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. Pelancongan menyebabkan jumlah kemudahan membeli-belah di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Pelancongan menyebabkan jumlah perniagaan tempatan di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. Pelancongan menyebabkan jumlah cukai tempatan yang dikutip di kawasan penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. Penambahan pelancong yang penuh sesak menyebabkan tahap keseronokan penduduk menjalankan aktiviti,	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. Pelancongan menyebabkan jumlah pendapatan yang diagih kepada perniagaan tempatan,	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. Pelancongan menyebabkan budaya tradisi penduduk,	1	2	3	4	5	6

Bahagian II - Berikut adalah tahap-tahap untuk mengetahui samada penduduk suka atau tidak akan pelancongan di kawasan mereka. Sila bulatkan jawapan anda berdasarkan:

- | | | |
|---|---|--------------------|
| 1 | = | Tidak suka |
| 2 | = | Kurang Suka |
| 3 | = | Kedua-duanya tidak |
| 4 | = | Suka |
| 5 | = | Sangat suka |

Item Impak Pelancongan	Tahap Suka/Tidak Suka				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Tahap kebisingan di kawasan penduduk akibat pelancongan.	1	2	3	4	5

Item Impak Pelancongan	Tahap Suka/Tidak Suka				
2. Permintaan terhadap aktiviti dan program budaya di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Permintaan terhadap aktiviti dan program bersejarah di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Pemahaman penduduk terhadap pelbagai budaya dan manusia.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Pendapatan yang dihasilkan untuk ekonomi di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Jumlah pelaburan di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Jumlah kehidupan liar (tumbuhan, burung dan binatang) di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Kualiti alam persekitaran (flora dan fauna) di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Wujudnya pelbagai hiburan di kawasan Penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Bertambah kualiti servis jabatan perkhidmatan tempatan (polis, bomba dan hospital) di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Bertambah jumlah sumber kewangan jabatan perkhidmatan tempatan (polis, bomba dan hospital) di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Bertambah tahap keupayaan servis jabatan perkhidmatan tempatan (polis, bomba dan hospital) di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Bertambah jumlah cukai ke atas aset yang dikutip di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Penduduk bersikap positif terhadap pelancong.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Merapatkan tahap kekeluargaan di kalangan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5

Item Impak Pelancongan	Tahap Suka/Tidak Suka				
	1	2	3	4	5
16. Pemeliharaan maruah di kalangan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Bertambahnya jumlah peluang berlakunya pertukaran budaya di antara penduduk dan pelancong.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Bertambah jumlah permintaan terhadap sektor penginapan di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Bertambah peluang mempelajari sikap dan budaya luar.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Bertambah tahap kesedaran/pengiktirafan budaya dan warisan tempatan dikalangan pelancong.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Bertambah tahap kepentingan aspek kehidupan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Bertambah jumlah restoran di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Peluang memelihara struktur bersejarah di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Bertambah jumlah kemudahan membeli-belah di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Bertambah jumlah perniagaan tempatan di kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Bertambah jumlah cukai tempatan yang di kutip kawasan penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Jumlah pelancong yang menyebabkan keseronokan penduduk menjalankan aktiviti berkurangan.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Jumlah pendapatan yang diagihkan kepada Perniagaan tempatan.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Berubah budaya tradisi penduduk.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Secara keseluruhannya, saya _____ akan perubahan di kawasan saya akibat daripada pelancongan.	1	2	3	4	5

Bahagian III – Berikut adalah beberapa soalan mengenai latarbelakang anda sebagai maklumat tambahan kepada kajian ini. Sila bulatkan jawapan yang bersesuaian.

1. Adakah anda atau ahli keluarga anda berkerja di sektor pelancongan?

1 = Ya

2 = Tidak

2. Berapa lamakah anda menetap di Langkawi?

1 = Melebihi daripada 6 tahun

2 = Antara 4 – 6 tahun

3 = Antara 1 – 3 tahun

4 = Kurang daripada 1 tahun

3. Berapakah usia anda?

1 = 50 tahun ke atas

2 = Antara 40 – 50 tahun

3 = Antara 20 – 39 tahun

4 = 20 tahun ke bawah

4. Secara keseluruhannya, adakah anda suka akan perubahan di kawasan anda akibat daripada pelancongan di Langkawi?

1 = Ya

2 = Tidak

5. Anda berbangsa,

1 = Melayu

2 = Cina

3 = India

4 = Lain-lain

Terima kasih di atas kerjasama anda.

Appendix F

List of Original Tourism Impact Items Identified (48 Items)

- increase the noise level.
- creates demand for cultural activities and programs.
- creates demand for historical activities and programs.
- creates variety of cultural facilities and activities.
- creates opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.
- creates awareness/recognition of the local culture and heritage.
- creates variety of entertainment.
- creates opportunities to restore and protect historical structures.
- creates opportunities to meet interesting people.
- creates an understanding of different people and cultures.
- creates vitality for residents' life.
- increases the revenue generated in the economy.
- increases the number of jobs to residents.
- increases residents' personal income.
- increases the amount of income going to local business.
- creates variety of shopping facilities.
- increases the investment and development spending.
- creates variety of restaurants.
- increases the level of traffic congestion.
- increases the size of crowds which restrict residents activities in public area.
- increases the size of crowds which affect the enjoyment.
- increases the number of driving hazards.
- destroys the natural environment (flora and fauna).
- destroys the wildlife (plants, birds and animals).
- decreases the quality of natural environment (flora and fauna).
- increases the level of urbanization (city-type development).
- increases the physical ability of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities).

- increases the quality of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities).
- increases the financial resources of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities).
- increase the amount of local taxes collected.
- increases the amount of property taxes collected.
- increases the amount of local sales taxes collected.
- creates positive attitude by residents toward tourists.
- creates community spirit among residents.
- creates pride among residents.
- increase the level of crime.
- increases residents' standard of living.
- increases the amount of vandalism.
- creates changes to residents' traditional culture.
- increases cost of living.
- creates opportunities for cultural exchange and education.
- creates preservation of the residents' cultural identity.
- improves understanding and image of residents.
- improves the appearance of residents' area.
- increases the amount of trade for local business.
- creates demand for accommodation.
- disrupts the peace and tranquility of the residents.
- increases the prices of goods.

Appendix G

Pretest Factor Analysis Results with Varimax Rotation of Tourism Impact Scale with all Forty-four Items (n = 220)

Item	Factor Loadings	Communality
<i>Tourism brings about a change in:</i>		
Factor 1: Amenity Services/Attitude		
- opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.	0.66	0.73
- awareness/recognition of the local culture and heritage among the tourists.	0.53	0.72
- understanding of different people and cultures by residents.	0.67	0.68
- vitality for the residents' life.	0.58	0.61
- the physical ability of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	0.73	0.83
- the quality of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	0.81	0.81
- the financial resources of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	0.72	0.68
- the residents' attitudes toward tourists.	0.78	0.72
- community spirit among the residents.	0.66	0.65
- pride of local residents.	0.76	0.71
- demand for accommodation in the residents' area.	0.66	0.71
Factor 2: Environmental		
- the number of driving hazards by tourists.	0.55	0.74
- the natural environment (flora and fauna).	0.88	0.90
- the wildlife (plants, birds and animals).	0.83	0.84
- the quality of natural environment (flora and fauna).	0.84	0.80
Factor 3: Taxes		
- the amount of local taxes collected in the residents' area.	0.81	0.86
- the amount of property taxes collected in the residents' area.	0.85	0.88
- the amount of local sales taxes collected in the residents' area.	0.65	0.79
- the price of goods in the residents' area.	0.49	0.60

Item	Factor Loadings	Communality
<i>Tourism brings about a change in:</i>		
Factor 4: Economic		
- opportunities to restore and protect historical structures in the residents' area.	0.74	0.80
- the revenue generated in the economy.	0.80	0.69
- the number of jobs to the residents.	0.70	0.75
- the residents' cost of living.	0.59	0.79
Factor 5: Socio-cultural		
- demand for cultural activities and programs in the residents' area.	0.79	0.73
- demand for historical activities and programs in the residents' area.	0.82	0.74
- the size of crowds which affect the enjoyment of residents activities in the public area.	0.51	0.68
Factor 6: Amenities		
- the amount of income going to the local businesses.	0.58	0.76
- the variety of shopping facilities in the residents' area.	0.72	0.81
- the variety of restaurants in the residents' area.	0.58	0.70
- The amount of trade for local businesses.	0.57	0.66
Factor 7: Communication		
- the level of urbanization (city-type development) in the residents' area.	0.48	0.59
- the residents' traditional culture.	0.73	0.76
- opportunities for cultural exchange between the residents and tourists.	0.65	0.72
- the appearance of the residents' area.	0.57	0.74
Factor 8: Noise		
- the noise level in the residents' area.	0.78	0.73
- the level of traffic congestion in the residents' area.	0.58	0.75
- the size of crowds which affect the residents activities in the public area.	0.59	0.75

Item	Factor Loadings	Communality
<i>Tourism brings about a change in:</i>		
Factor 9: Miscellaneous (a)		
- the residents' personal income.	0.47	0.66
- the level of crime in the residents' area.	0.38	0.73
- the residents' standard of living.	0.83	0.79
- the amount of vandalism in the residents' area.	0.49	0.71
Factor 10: Investment		
- opportunities to meet interesting people.	0.49	0.68
- the investment spending in the residents' area.	0.78	0.79
Factor 11: Entertainment		
- the variety of entertainment in the residents' area.	0.47	0.67

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7
Eigenvalue	11.4	5.3	3.4	2.6	2.0	1.6	1.5
Variance (%)	25.9	12.0	7.6	6.0	4.5	3.7	3.4
Cumulative Variance (%)	25.9	37.9	45.6	51.6	56.1	59.9	63.3
Number of item (E = 44)	11	4	4	4	3	4	4
	F8	F9	F10	F11			
Eigenvalue	1.4	1.1	1.2	1.0			
Variance (%)	3.2	2.5	2.4	2.3			
Cumulative Variance (%)	66.5	69.0	71.4	73.7			
Number of item (E = 44)	3	4	2	1			

Appendix H

Pretest Reliability Analysis Results of Tourism Impact Scale (n = 220)

Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation
- Noise level in the residents' area.	.3781
- Demand for cultural activities and programs.	.3822
- Demand for historical activities and programs.	.3487
- Opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.	.5145
- Awareness/recognition of the local culture.	.5923
- Variety of entertainment in the residents' area.	.5064
- Opportunities to restore and protect historical structures.	.3671
- Opportunities to meet interesting people.	.3381
- Understanding of different people and cultures.	.4300
- Vitality for the residents' life.	.4888
- Revenue generated in the economy.	.2293
- Number of jobs to the residents.	.2811
- Residents' personal income.	.1901
- Amount of income going to the local businesses.	.5329
- Variety of shopping facilities in the residents' area.	.5216
- Investment spending in the residents' area.	.2434
- Variety of restaurants in the residents' area.	.5554
- Level of traffic congestion in the residents' area.	.3440
- Size of crowds which affect the residents activities.	.4548
- Size of crowds which affect the enjoyment of residents activities in the public area.	.5965
- Number of driving hazards by tourists.	.3498
- Natural environment (flora and fauna).	.5597
- Wildlife (plants, birds and animals).	.5142
- The quality of natural environment (flora and fauna).	.4677

- Level of urbanization (city-type development) in the residents' area.	.3768
- Physical ability of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	.7139
- Quality of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	.6200
- Financial resources of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	.6350
- Amount of local taxes collected in the residents' area.	.5667
- Amount of property taxes collected in the residents' area.	.5382
- Amount of local sales taxes collected in the residents' area.	.4564
- Residents' attitudes toward tourists.	.5397
- Community spirit among the residents.	.5890
- Pride of local residents.	.5041
- Level of crime in the residents' area.	.4035
- Residents' standard of living.	.3327
- Amount of vandalism in the residents' area.	.3395
- Residents' traditional culture.	.5292
- Residents' cost of living.	.3511
- Opportunities for cultural exchange.	.4472
- Appearance of the residents' area.	.4896
- Amount of trade for local businesses.	.5772
- Demand for accommodation in the residents' area.	.5743
- Price of goods in the residents' area.	.4187

Reliability coefficients 44 items

Alpha = .9291

Standardized item alpha = .9281

Appendix I

Factor Analysis Results with Varimax Rotation of Tourism Impact Scale with all Twenty-nine items : Langkawi Survey (n = 145)

Item	Factor Loadings	Communality
<i>Tourism development in Langkawi has brought about a change in:</i>		
Factor 1: Environmental		
- the wildlife (plants, birds and animals).	0.92	0.92
- the quality of natural environment (flora and fauna).	0.69	0.81
- the quality of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	0.63	0.81
- the capacity of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) to perform their services in the residents' area.	0.88	0.84
- opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.	0.55	0.76
- amount of local taxes collected in the residents' area.	0.78	0.79
- the amount of income going to local businesses.	0.73	0.77
Factor 2: Amenity Services		
- amount of investment spending in the residents' area.	0.71	0.70
- variety of restaurants in the residents' area.	0.82	0.73
- the amount of trade for local businesses.	0.57	0.71
- size of crowds affect the enjoyment of residents activities in the public area.	0.61	0.64
Factor 3: Socio-cultural		
- the noise level in the residents' area.	0.72	0.73
- demand for cultural activities and programs in the residents' area.	0.82	0.80
- demand for historical activities and programs in the residents' area.	0.86	0.81
- an understanding of different people and cultures.	0.43	0.63

Item	Factor Loadings	Communality
<i>Tourism development in Langkawi has brought about a change in:</i>		
Factor 4: Community Attitude		
- the community spirit among the residents.	0.90	0.87
- pride of local residents.	0.91	0.87
Factor 5: Economic		
- awareness/recognition of the local culture and heritage among the tourists.	0.44	0.67
- the residents' standard of living.	0.86	0.78
- opportunities to restore and protect historical structures in the residents' area.	0.71	0.78
Factor 6: Entertainment		
- variety of entertainment in the residents' area.	0.76	0.63
- the resident positive attitudes towards tourists.	0.35	0.59
- the residents' traditional culture.	0.55	0.73
Factor 7: Accommodation		
- demand for accommodation in the residents' area.	0.84	0.75
- the financial resources of local services (police, fire, medical and utilities) in the residents' area.	0.55	0.68
Factor 8: Miscellaneous (a)		
- the revenue generated in the economy.	0.84	0.81
- the amount of property taxes collected in the residents' area.	0.44	0.66
Factor 9: Shopping		
- variety of shopping facilities in the residents' area.	0.51	0.80
Factor 10: Communication		
- opportunities for cultural exchange between the residents and tourists.	0.92	0.86

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6
Eigenvalue	5.6	3.4	2.5	2.3	2.0	1.6
Variance (%)	19.2	11.7	8.6	7.8	7.0	5.5
Cumulative Variance (%)	19.2	30.8	39.4	47.2	54.2	59.7
Number of Item (E = 29)	7	4	4	2	3	3

	F7	F8	F9	F10
Eigenvalue	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.0
Variance (%)	4.8	4.0	3.7	3.5
Cumulative Variance (%)	64.5	68.4	72.1	75.6
Number of Item (E = 29)	2	2	1	1

Appendix J

Results of the Tested Scale in Langkawi (Table 8.1-8.13)

Table 8.1: The Wildlife (plants, birds, and animals)

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Changes caused by tourism:</i>		
Large decrease	64	44.1
Moderate decrease	39	26.9
No change	8	5.5
Moderate increase	6	4.1
Large increase	2	1.4
Do not know	26	17.9
Total	145	100.0
<i>Attitudes toward the changes:</i>		
Dislike	82	56.6
Somewhat dislike	24	16.6
Neither like nor dislike	38	26.2
Somewhat like	1	0.7
Total	145	100.0

Table 8.2: The Capacity of Local Services (police, fire, Medical and utilities) to Perform Their Services

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Changes caused by tourism:</i>		
Moderate increase	100	69.0
Large increase	16	11.0
Do not know	29	20.0
Total	145	100.0
<i>Attitudes toward the changes:</i>		
Somewhat dislike	1	0.7
Neither like nor dislike	2	1.4
Somewhat like	123	84.8
Like	17	11.7
Do not know	2	1.4
Total	145	100.0

Table 8.3: Local Taxes Collected

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Changes caused by tourism:</i>		
Moderate decrease	1	0.7
No change	11	7.6

(Continued)

Moderate increase	103	71.0
Large increase	1	0.7
Do not know	29	20.0
Total	145	100.0
<i>Attitudes toward the changes:</i>		
Dislike	2	1.4
Somewhat dislike	59	40.7
Neither like nor dislike	82	56.6
Somewhat like	2	1.4
Total	145	100.0

Table 8.4: Variety of Restaurants

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Changes caused by tourism:</i>		
No change	1	0.7
Moderate increase	3	2.1
Large increase	141	97.2
Total	145	100.0
<i>Attitudes toward the changes:</i>		
Somewhat like	6	4.1
Like	139	95.9
Total	145	100.0

Table 8.5: Investment Spending

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Changes caused by tourism:</i>		
Moderate decrease	1	0.7
No change	1	0.7
Moderate increase	26	17.9
Large increase	117	80.7
Total	145	100.0
<i>Attitudes toward the changes:</i>		
Somewhat dislike	1	0.7
Neither like nor dislike	3	2.1
Somewhat like	44	30.3
Like	97	66.9
Total	145	100.0

(Continued)

Table 8.6: Size of Crowds Which Affect the Enjoyment of Residents Activities

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Changes caused by tourism:</i>		
Moderate decrease	1	0.7
No change	4	2.8
Moderate increase	136	93.8
Large increase	3	2.1
Do not know	29	20.0
Total	145	100.0
<i>Attitudes toward the changes:</i>		
Dislike	2	1.4
Neither like nor dislike	13	9.0
Somewhat like	128	88.3
Like	2	1.4
Total	145	100.0

Table 8.7: Demand for Historical Activities and Programs

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Changes caused by tourism:</i>		
Moderate increase	113	77.9
Large increase	29	20.0
No change	2	1.4
Do not know	1	0.7
Total	145	100.0
<i>Attitudes toward the changes:</i>		
Neither like nor dislike	1	0.7
Somewhat like	115	79.3
Like	29	20.0
Total	145	100.0

Table 8.8: Demand for Cultural Activities and Programs

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Changes caused by tourism:</i>		
Moderate increase	117	80.7
Large increase	26	17.9
Do not know	2	1.4
Total	145	100.0

(Continued)

<i>Attitudes toward the changes:</i>		
Dislike	1	0.7
Somewhat dislike	1	0.7
Neither like nor dislike	3	2.1
Somewhat like	117	80.7
Like	23	15.9
Total	145	100.0

Table 8.9: The Noise Level in the Area

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Changes caused by tourism:</i>		
Moderate increase	103	71.0
Large increase	33	22.8
No change	9	6.2
Total	145	100.0
<i>Attitudes toward the changes:</i>		
Dislike	69	47.6
Somewhat dislike	64	44.1
Neither like nor dislike	9	6.2
Somewhat like	2	1.4
Do not know	1	0.7
Total	145	100.0

Table 8.10: The Community Spirit among the Residents

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Changes caused by tourism:</i>		
Moderate decrease	9	6.2
No change	126	86.9
Moderate increase	5	3.4
Do not know	5	3.4
Total	145	100.0
<i>Attitudes toward the changes:</i>		
Dislike	6	4.1
Somewhat dislike	27	18.6
Neither like nor dislike	108	74.5
Somewhat like	4	2.8
Total	145	100.0

(Continued)

Table 8.11: The Pride of Local Residents

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Changes caused by tourism:</i>		
Moderate decrease	8	5.5
No change	128	88.3
Moderate increase	3	2.1
Large increase	2	1.4
Do not know	4	2.8
Total	145	100.0
<i>Attitudes toward the changes:</i>		
Dislike	6	4.1
Somewhat dislike	27	18.6
Neither like nor dislike	106	73.1
Somewhat like	6	4.1
Total	145	100.0

Table 8.12: The Residents' Standard of Living

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Changes caused by tourism:</i>		
No change	16	11.0
Moderate increase	117	80.7
Large increase	8	5.5
Do not know	4	2.8
Total	145	100.0
<i>Attitudes toward the changes:</i>		
Somewhat dislike	1	0.7
Neither like nor dislike	21	14.5
Somewhat like	118	81.4
Like	5	3.4
Total	145	100.0

Table 8.13: Opportunities to Restore and Protect the Historical Structures

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Changes caused by tourism:</i>		
No change	18	12.4
Moderate increase	89	61.4
Large increase	32	22.1
Do not know	6	4.1
Total	145	100.0

(Continued)

Attitudes toward the changes:

Somewhat dislike	2	1.4
Neither like nor dislike	22	15.2
Somewhat like	61	42.1
Like	60	41.4
Total	145	100.0