THE DEVELOPMENT OF SUSTAINABLE CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM IN MALAYSIA: IMPLICATION FOR PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT

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The Development of Sustainable Cultural Heritage Tourism in Malaysia: Implication for Planning and Management

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ABSTRACT

This thesis examines the development of cultural heritage tourism in Malaysia, and questions if this tourism development has been managed in a sustainable manner. Recent national tourism policies in Malaysia increasingly have been aimed towards promoting cultural heritage tourism, signifying that cultural heritage tourism could be potentially one of the most important areas in the growth of the country's tourism industry. While tourism development has contributed to the country's economic growth, for cultural heritage, the thrust of the tourism industry is to make the most of the country's non-renewable resources. This thesis identifies three key objectives required for creating sustainable tourism development in Malaysia: meeting the needs of local communities, satisfying the demands of a growing number of tourists, and safeguarding the remaining natural and cultural resources.

Knowledge leading to improvements in the development of cultural heritage tourism is important, as knowledge is a primary means of strengthening its positive aspects and simultaneously mitigating its negative aspects, so that development can maintain a long-term viability. This study also explores some of the key management issues relating to the development of cultural heritage tourism at both Federal and State levels. A broad understanding is necessary for providing a firm basis in prescribing a thorough and realistic sustainable development framework. The study employs questionnaires, surveys, and interviews with a range of government officials, local communities, and tourists. The findings indicate that the government has played a major role in shaping the development of sustainable cultural heritage tourism in Malaysia, but at present there are many shortcomings that need to be addressed, such as definitions of the term Cultural Heritage, as well as management issues, including conflicts and bureaucratic barriers. These problems, consequently, hinder a comprehensive management of cultural heritage tourism. Additional findings indicate that local communities are not actively involved in tourism planning or decision-making processes, though they generally are satisfied with development at the locations of this study. The study also calls for higher quality tourist services, and the promotion of other elements of cultural heritage to compliment the already established yet limited elements. Finally, it suggests a Sustainable Cultural Heritage Tourism Framework, incorporating social and cultural elements. This thesis contributes new knowledge to the field of cultural heritage tourism in Malaysia and may serve as a starting point for researchers interested in this area. Furthermore, the results of this study are expected to be useful for guiding policy actions in the future.

Keywords: Tourism, Heritage, Cultural Heritage Tourism, Sustainable Development

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASEAN	Association of South East Asia Nation
BOD	Board of Directors
CH	Cultural Heritage
CHT	Cultural Heritage Tourism
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
MP	Malaysia Plan
MOCAT	Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism
MOT	Ministry of Tourism
MOTC	Ministry of Tourism and Culture
MTPB	Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board
NDP	National Development Plan
NEP	New Economic Policy
SEPU	State Economic Planning Unit
RM	Ringgit Malaysia
TDCM	Tourism Development Corporation Malaysia
UMNO	United Malayan National Organization
UNESCO	United Nation for Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNWTO	United Nation World Tourism Organization

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a general introduction to this study. First, the chapter provides a brief background to the research problem. After explaining the aims and objectives of the study, it states the significance of the study and gives a summary of the research methodologies employed. Finally, the chapter briefly describes the various parts of the thesis, by providing short summaries of each chapter. This puts the overall discussion into perspective.

1.2 Overview

Tourism has become the world's largest industry, contributing significantly to the world's total gross national product. It is also the largest single employer, with an estimated number of 231 million people employed worldwide in 2007 (WTTC, 2008). Despite the world's economic fluctuations and political instabilities, tourism enjoyed an average growth rate of 3.9% in 2007 and 3.0% in 2008 (WTTC, 2009). In addition, in 2008 international tourism arrivals reached 922 million, while receipts from foreign tourism reached US$8 trillion (ibid). While the total earnings from tourism are greater in industrialised countries, they also have contributed significantly towards the development processes of many developing nations in terms of foreign exchange earnings, provision of employment and infrastructure, as well as the ability to generate regional economic development (Rigg, 2003; Meethan, 2001; Ap *et al*., 1995; Inskeep, 1988; Krippendorf, 1987). Moreover, tourism earnings reduce levels of reliance on exports of traditional primary commodities, providing an opportunity for many developing countries to diversify their economic bases (Singh, 2003; McCool, 2001; Dann, 1999).

Although tourism has been perceived as the industry of the future, it faces many challenges as it enters the new century. These challenges include a greater commitment towards the communities that serve as hosts to the tourists (Tosun, 2003; Tosun and Timothy, 2003), increased respect for the places that accept and receive tourists (Meethan, 2001; Sharpley, 1994), and greater responsibilities towards the tourists themselves (Winter, 2008; Aas *et al*., 2005). The ultimate challenge is therefore in delivering tourism products that are appropriate to and compatible with both hosts and guests. In this sense, cultural heritage (CH) tourism is seen as capable of fulfilling such requirements.

Due to the attractiveness of CH as a commodity, an increasing number of areas across the world are being promoted as CH destinations. In fact, CH tourism has long been promoted and valued in the developed world, particularly in North America and Europe (Poria *et al.*, 2001; Shackley, 2000; Graham *et al.*, 2000; Prentice, 1992), and it has also become increasingly important in developing countries, notably in the region of South-east Asia (Ho *et al.*, 2004; McKercher *et al.*, 2004; Cartier, 1998; Nuryanti, 1996). One of the main factors encouraging the development of CH tourism in this region is tourists' demands for new travel destinations and products. Silberberg (1995) suggests that tourist' interests in and demands for CH may be partly due to the shift in people's motivations for travelling that occurred during the 1990s, focusing less on escapism and more on personal and cultural enrichment. In fact, CH tourism is presented as the new or *alternative* tourism, emerging as a niche market whose visitors are said to be different from mass tourists in terms of travel characteristics and behaviours (McKercher *et al.*, 2003). CH tourism is also often perceived as an activity that is in harmony with the everyday life of a community (Sharpley, 2004; Sohaimi, 2004). Furthermore, CH tourism offers multiple opportunities for communities to protect and project their cultural diversity, to stimulate intercultural dialogue, and to contribute to individuals' economic and social well-being (Aas *et al.*, 2005; Carter and Beeton, 2004; Boyd and Singh, 2003; Besculides *et al.*, 2002). In fact, CH tourism is recognised as a means of achieving a balance between conservation and development, through the revival of traditions and the restoration of sites and monuments (UNESCO, 2005; Swarbrooke, 1999).

Linked to CH tourism is the theme of sustainability. Much literature supports the notion of sustainable CH tourism development (Garrod and Fyall, 2000, 2001; Carter and Bramley, 2000). Many scholars in the area agree on the contributions of heritage tourism to economic restructuring and sustainable development (du Cross, 2007; Alzua, 2006; Arthur *et al.*, 2006; Ghosh *et al.*, 2003; Boyd, 2002). This is in line with the Malaysian government's broader policies on the tourism industry, which emphasise sustainable tourism development (Tourism Malaysia, 2002:4). In this sense, the development of CH tourism in Malaysia is not exceptional. However, considering that CH tourism has only recently begun to be recognised and emphasised in Malaysia, a long-term focus with respect to planning is necessary to ensure its sustainability. CH-based tourism, furthermore, requires the protection of scenic, historic, and cultural resources, among others. This is necessary because without meaningful and attractive resources, there would be no CH tourism. However, concerns have been expressed around the ability of CH tourism to be sustainable in the long run. Concerns revolve around increasing

numbers of tourists (Shackley, 2000), the ability of tourism providers to fulfil tourists' demands (Hayes and Patton, 2001), and consequently, extensive manipulation of CH resources and facilities (Ennen, 2002). In addition, Timothy and Boyd explain that in order to be sustainable, authorities need to understand the market requirements. In fact, consideration should be given as to "…whether or not a long-term market actually exists and if certain attractions have a long-term product and experience to offer visitors" (2003:179).

In line with the discussion, however, many of the arguments within CH tourism suggest that not all tourist activities can be described as CH tourism. Hence, the capabilities of tourism suppliers to develop tourism products from CH resources are put to the test. Evidence suggests that there may be types of tourists who progress from general travellers to specialised tourists (Timothy and Boyd, 2003; McKercher and du Cross, 2002; Kerstetter *et al.*, 2001). Tourists' activities that are motivated by the need to enhance personal knowledge and understandings about the destination's cultural heritage are referred to as "special interest travels," whereas activities that are more general tend to demonstrate the characteristics of mass tourists. Despite this trend, however, little is known about individuals who visit CH sites, particularly those in Malaysia.

The use of heritage sites as tourism attractions has not been without its critics (Arthur and Mensah, 2006; Henderson, 2000; Richards, 1996). In fact, it is often argued that heritage tourism is a manifestation of the commodification of culture, and in many instances, the demand for CH tourism may create the potential for conflict since the needs to develop exhibits that are of interest to tourists supersede other important objectives (Hewison, 1987). However, good CH management policies focusing on sustainable development approaches would be able to fulfil desires to protect local heritage sites and their communities, and at the same time, create interest on the part of tourists. In fact, Hall and McArthur (1993:276) suggest that for CH tourism to be sustainable, the site first must be on a scale suitable for the particular location. At the same time, as an attempt to safeguard heritage sites, the development of CH tourism should not result in a permanent degradation of the values associated with the heritage sites themselves. Second, issues of visitation should be given serious consideration, and should be part of the strategic planning frameworks. At the same time, attempts should be made to satisfy the demands of a growing number of tourists. Finally, local communities should be encouraged to get involved in the planning and development of their CH as tourist attractions. In short, it can be concluded that authorities should be able to create and provide a unique tourist

experience that would bring with it jobs and economic opportunities to the locality. At the same time, they should also be able to consider the need to protect CH resources, and respect the social and cultural ways of life of the host communities. The challenge for the authorities, however, is to understand the complexities that lie behind such concepts and to know how best to mobilise them in sustainable ways.

1.3 Background to the Study

Tourism in Malaysia has gone through various phases of development in recent years. Following very modest beginnings, it subsequently went through a phase of rapid growth (see chapter 3). Leisure travel began to develop in Malaysia during the period of British imperial expansion and colonialism (Information Malaysia, 1995; Hitchcock, *et al*., 1993). The majority of foreign visitors holidaying in Malaya at this time tended to be British members of the colonial community on weekend breaks, rather than visitors travelling from other countries. Natural heritage attraction sites such as hill resorts were among the first tourist attractions created in Malaysia, specifically developed for tourists to take advantage of their cooler surroundings. Since the appearance of these early destinations, tourism experienced rapid growth, with the number of tourists increasing from 25,000 in 1968 to 22 million in 2008, and gross tourism earnings for 2008 reaching RM49 billion (see chapter 3). Today tourism is considered the backbone of Malaysia's economy.

The important role that tourism now plays in the national economy has prompted the government to focus on tourism in its national economic plan. This plan sets out a strategic framework for how market and product diversification of tourism could be achieved. One of the proposed strategies has been the development of CH tourism, with the Malaysian authorities maintaining that the promotion of CH tourism could attract higher quality tourists. Today, CH resources are widely and actively used as core elements in the country's promotional tourism plans. One example of this strategy can be seen in the successful ongoing international promotional campaign, 'Malaysia: Truly Asia.' This campaign portrays Malaysia as a unique country with a population consisting of diverse ethnic groups, with its uniqueness manifested through traditional lifestyles, arts and handicrafts, cuisines, and architectural landscapes. In fact, the current national short-term policy on tourism has acknowledged the effectiveness of this campaign and foresees its continued use in the country's future promotional campaigns. As stated in the Ninth Malaysia Plan:

> …the theme 'Malaysia Truly Asia' will be capitalised upon to strengthen it as a distinct and identifiable image recognised by the international tourism community (Ninth Malaysia Plan, 2006: 204).

It is apparent that CH tourism has been forming an increasingly important sector of the tourism industry in Malaysia. Despite this situation, not much information has been collected to support such the trend. The 9th Plan, furthermore, appears to be dominated by marketing and promotional strategies for CH tourism, with a stronger emphasis on image development, and little attention paid to the general development and management issues. This scenario does not seem to support or represent the Plan's broader policies relating to the tourism industry, which emphasise sustainable tourism development. To make things more complicated, there are two government authorities overseeing the development of cultural heritage in Malaysia. Heritage as a *resource* is managed by the Ministry of Culture, Arts, and Heritage (MOCAH), while heritage as a *product* is managed by the Ministry of Tourism (MOT). It is obvious that both ministries are given different yet equally important mandates concerning cultural heritage in Malaysia, but both are actually responsible in overseeing the management of CH attractions. The question now is whether or not both authorities are capable of working together to ensure the future well-being of the country's CH resources.

The central discussion in this chapter focuses on the strong links between CH tourism and sustainable development. However, it is not sufficient to show that such links merely exist. It is also essential to investigate how sustainable CH tourism development may be achieved. In terms of Malaysia, the extent to which its two authorities embrace this concept is also an issue that must be explored. To achieve sustainable CH development, the authorities must consider all of the elements comprising CH tourism development. Through evaluating these processes, the best practices ideally may be developed to benefit both local communities and tourists. However, as stated above, assessments of the growth patterns of CH tourism development in Malaysia have been limited by the absence of data, and little research has been done in this area. If CH resources are to be developed as a sustainable tourism product, it will be essential to utilise strategic planning methods in order to establish the directions and limitations of current and future growth, as well as to ensure that the resources are both competitive and sustainable. The interplay between all of these elements has never been tackled in the context of CH tourism development in Malaysia, and this thesis proposes to address such issues.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The above discussion has introduced the settings relevant to the study area. It highlights issues and problems that serve as a basis for the study. In tandem with the idea of sustainable tourism development, all aspects related to the development of CH tourism should be understood and managed in a sustainable manner. The existence of two separate ministries that overlooked heritage related matters signify a challenging path in managing heritage in Malaysia, both as a resource and as a product. This is because, the situation can give impacts on the directions of cultural heritage tourism as both ministries may have different missions and visions pertaining to cultural heritage.

The aim of this thesis is to investigate the potential of achieving sustainable CH tourism in Malaysia, and ultimately, to recommend and propose elements required in developing a sustainable CH tourism framework. In general, this thesis concentrates on the development and the role of CH tourism with reference to the changing nature of tourism development in Malaysia. It will examine the current market for CH tourism in Malaysia, and the perception of local communities towards development. Understanding the supporting issues is vital. This is because the information gathered can help to ensure that strategies formatted in creating sustainable CH tourism are achievable and workable. Furthermore, understanding the components studied can strengthen the positive aspects, and at the same time mitigate the negative aspects that may result from development. The viewpoints of government officials in terms of CH and tourism development policies will also be examined to facilitate a better understanding of the overall situation. Therefore, the scope of this thesis is broad. Furthermore, the wide range of the study is necessary, due to the fact that the CH tourism industry in Malaysia is still in its early stages.

1.5 Research Question and Objectives of the Study

This thesis has as its research question whether cultural heritage tourism in Malaysia is sustainable in its current form. Having highlighted the neglect of certain issues within the development of CH tourism in Malaysia, this section outlines the main aims and objectives of this study.

Aim 1: To study the development of cultural heritage tourism in general.

Objectives:

a) To define heritage
b) To define cultural heritage
c) To define cultural heritage tourism
d) To understand the concept of sustainable tourism development
e) To understand the development of special interest tourism within the context of CH tourism

Aim 2: To understand the perceptions of the Malaysian authorities surrounding the use of cultural heritage resources as a tourism product.

Objectives:

a) To assess the development of tourism in Malaysia
b) To identify authorities responsible for tourism activities in Malaysia
c) To explore the range of CH attractions promoted in Malaysia
d) To understand the process of selecting CH resources for tourism purposes
e) To understand how sustainable tourism development approach may be incorporated into the development of CH tourism in Malaysia

Aim 3: To examine the impact of cultural heritage tourism development on the community.

Objectives:

a) To understand how local communities perceive their CH
b) To analyse communities' socio-cultural responses to the development of CH tourism
c) To investigate local communities' involvements in the development of CH tourism in Malaysia
d) To investigate how CH tourism development might benefit local communities
e) To explore any potential negative implications of the development of CH tourism in local communities

Aim 4: To examine the demand for cultural heritage tourism in Malaysia.

Objectives:

a) To study the demographic characteristics of foreign and domestic tourists who visit CH attractions in Malaysia
b) To understand the travel motivations of foreign and domestic tourists who visit CH attractions in Malaysia
c) To examine if the factors identified in (b) differ between foreign ASEAN[1], other foreign, and domestic tourists
d) To study the travel behaviours of tourists who visit CH attractions in Malaysia
e) To examine if the factors identified in (d) differ between foreign ASEAN, other foreign, and domestic tourists
f) To understand tourists' preferences of Malaysia's CH attractions
g) To identify whether potential niche market exists in CH tourism in Malaysia

[1] ASEAN stands for the Association of South East Asian Nations. Established in 1967, it is a regional alliance that plays a major role in the region's economic, social and political development. The ten members of ASEAN consist of Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, Thailand, the Philippines, Brunei, Cambodia, Laos, Vietnam and Myanmar.

Aim 5: To examine aspects that should be included in a Cultural Heritage Tourism Framework.

Objectives:

a) To review acts and legal statutes that are directly and indirectly concerned with CH
b) To recommend strategies that could improve the effectiveness of CH tourism development

1.6 Research Methodology

The data utilised in this study include primary and secondary data. The theoretical discussions have required extensive research of secondary data, which are valuable in examining the concepts of heritage, sustainable development, and the consumption of heritage in the tourism industry. Meanwhile, the primary data were obtained through field-work conducted in three major cities that extensively promote CH tourism. Three sets of questionnaires were designed to produce the required data for this research. Data were generated from local communities, tourists, and the public agencies respectively. Details on the collection of the primary data are discussed in chapter 3.

1.7 Context of the Study

Considering that CH tourism is a newly emerging product in Malaysia, it may be concluded that the development of CH tourism in Malaysia could be better understood if studied from a macro perspective, namely by focusing on those entities providing CH, primarily the stakeholders.

Thus, this study focuses on the following stakeholders:

- The Public Sector

  This sector includes the Ministry of Tourism as the main public body responsible for tourism development in Malaysia; the Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board as the main public body responsible for tourism development at the state level and the Ministry of Culture; and Arts and Heritage as the main public body responsible for heritage agendas in Malaysia.

- The Local Community

  The communities existing or working within or near to CH attractions have been incorporated into this study. Although these samples may not strictly represent the total opinions of Malaysians, they have been designed to represent a cross-section of the main participants involved. The main aim is to get an idea of their

perceptions towards their surrounding environment and the development of CH tourism in their area.

- The Tourist

  To the researcher's knowledge, no research had previously been conducted in Malaysia on CH tourists, though their opinions on the presentation of CH attractions are paramount. Tourists featured in this study are those the researcher interviewed in seven selected CH attractions in Malaysia.

1.8 Significance of the Study

Much of the limited research previously undertaken concerning CH tourism in Malaysia focuses on the potential of CH resources to be developed and promoted as tourism products. By comparison, research on the importance of thorough planning for sustainable CH tourism is non-existent. This scenario may be explained by the fact that development is virtually new, even though there has been a rise of interest levied towards CH tourism. However, with increased visitation levels and the growing importance of CH resources in tourism industry in Malaysia, there is a crucial need for such research to be undertaken.

The accumulation of basic data from identified stakeholders will help to understand the current characteristics of the industry, a first step in creating development strategies. Development strategies that are pro-sustainable development should recognise the aspirations of local communities, consider the needs and preferences of tourists, and at the same time, fulfil the country's policy goals on tourism development.

Finally, the thesis recommends a number of steps necessary for developing a framework that can ensure the sustainability of CH tourism in Malaysia and contribute towards the body of knowledge in this under-researched area of tourism in Malaysia.

1.9 Gaps in knowledge

The above section explained that while CH is considered to be an important element of Malaysia's tourism industry, very little research has been conducted on this matter. It is hoped that this thesis will be able to fill this knowledge gap. This thesis will build upon previous research on CH by looking into the political, socio-cultural, and economic relations that exist between stakeholders, and exploring the processes that involve them. In particular, the thesis attempts to better understand these relationships and how stakeholders perceive and manage CH.

1.10 Limitations of the Study

In carrying out the study, a number of limitations and constraints have been identified, which include:

- Sources of Information

  The first limitation is the scarcity of local data, particularly research material on CH tourism. There are not enough archival records for most of the necessary information regarding the topic *per se*. In addition, there are very few published sources of information and data available on the study area.

- Government Formalities and Bureaucracy

  When making appointments with public officials, too many excuses and constraints tend to be made before meetings can be arranged and information made accessible. Due to these formalities, much time was required by the researcher to continue contacting the 'gatekeepers' of each personnel in order to set dates for interviews.

- Available Time and Resources

  Due to factors such as the significant distance between the study areas, the researcher had to take careful decisions in selecting the most suitable CH attractions in Malaysia. This is the reason why the three cities in this study were chosen as the survey sites.

1.11 Outline Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is organised into ten chapters.

Chapter 1 presents the background of this research. It identifies the main issues facing CH tourism. This chapter also includes the purpose of the study and an identification of the research aims and objectives. Finally, it explains the significance of the study, as well as limitations of the study.

Chapter 2 sets out to provide background information about Malaysia. The background of its society is widely discussed. The gradual but important process of moving towards national integration in the country's multi-ethnic culture is also described. Exploring the nature and characteristics of this subject is important in understanding actions, attitudes, and perceptions of the society towards issues related to the development of their CH as tourist attractions.

Chapter 3 describes the methodologies used in carrying out the largely social research survey. This is followed by a discussion on the design of the research tools and criteria for fieldwork. This chapter also discuss the data analysis procedures.

Chapter 4 consists of two parts. The first part is a brief but comprehensive review of the tourism industry in general. It looks at the history of tourism, conceptual definitions and frameworks, and tourism development. The second part analyses overall tourism development in Malaysia. It examines arrival trends, as well as tourism contributions towards the economy in terms of foreign exchange earnings; this part also explains the policies associated with tourism development in Malaysia.

Chapter 5 highlights the applicable and relevant theoretical issues of sustainable development concepts and how these relate to sustainable tourism development concepts. Alternative forms of tourism development are also discussed.

Chapter 6 deals with recent developments in CH tourism. It looks at definitions of culture, heritage, and CH tourism; CH tourists and attractions; CH tourism as an aspect of sustainable tourism development; and the implications of sustainable CH tourism development. Finally, it looks at the development of CH tourism in Malaysia.

Chapter 7 (Community survey) and 8 (Tourist survey) provide analyses of the results generated from the survey questionnaire. Chapter 7 and 8 build a preliminary picture of the empirical findings through analyses of the descriptive results.

Chapter 9 summarises the main points arising from the discussions in the previous two chapters. The discussions in this chapter focus on the issues related to local community, tourists, and authorities.

Chapter 10 returns to the Research Question and Aims and Objectives and provides the final discussion and conclusions of this research. Decisions on the need for suitable action and fresh approaches are suggested. This chapter also outlines this research's contributions to knowledge, and offers some recommendations for implementation and future research.

Chapter 2. Malaysia

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a general profile of Malaysia, including its geography, landscape, climate, and history. The chapter also discusses Malaysia's pluralistic society, its religions, and its political and administrative structure. Finally, this chapter examines the country's economic structure, and in particular the main development changes, including current development indicators.

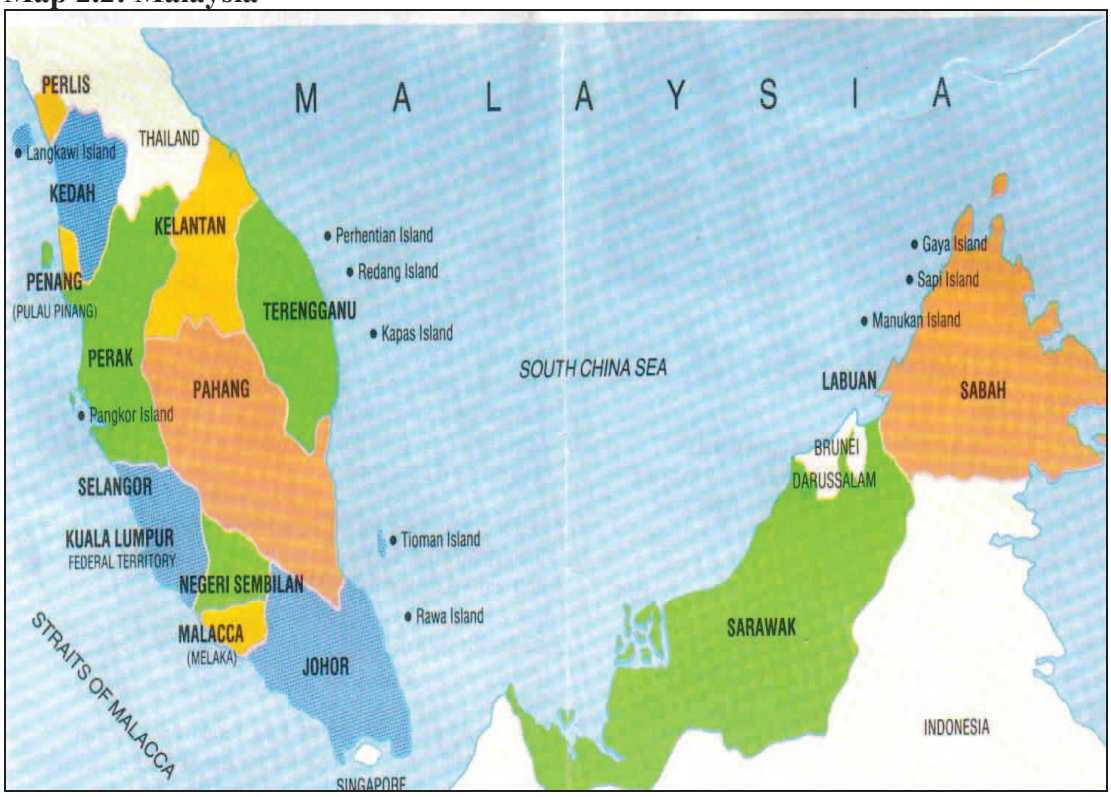
2.2 Geography

Malaysia is situated in the heart of Southeast Asia (see map 2.1). It consists of two parts: the west, also known as Peninsular Malaysia, and the east. The eastern part of Malaysia is located on the island of Borneo. Together, both parts cover a total land area of about 336,700 square kilometres (sq. km.), with Peninsular Malaysia covering 134,680 sq. km., and Sabah and Sarawak totalling 202,020 sq. km. In the south of the Peninsula lies Singapore, joined to the Peninsula by a narrow causeway across the Straits of Johore. To the south and west of Malaysia lies Indonesia, to the north is Thailand, and to the east, the Philippines.

Malaysia comprises the eleven states of Peninsular Malaysia and those of Sabah and Sarawak (see map 2.2). In addition, there are the Federal territories of Kuala Lumpur, Purtrajaya, and Labuan. Because of its location near the equator, the climate in Malaysia is hot and humid throughout the year, and is characterised by high temperatures and plenty of rainfall, due to maritime influences. The climate is governed by the north-east and south-west monsoons, which blow alternately throughout the year. The north-east monsoon, which lasts from October to February, marks the rainy seasons and brings heavy rainfall to the east coast of Peninsular Malaysia and East Malaysia. On the other hand, the south-west monsoon, which occurs from September to December, brings slightly less rainfall than the north-east monsoon to the west coast of Peninsular Malaysia. The annual rainfall is high and varies from 2,000 – 2,500 mm throughout the year.

Map 2.1: Southeast Asia

Map 2.2: Malaysia



Source: Tourism Malaysia (1998)

2.3 Historical Perspectives on the Formation of Malaysia with the Influence of Colonisation on the Malaysian Communities

2.3.1 *Early Development of Malaysia*

Prior to the 16th century, Peninsular Malaysia was not politically unified; it was rather split into small kingdoms and subdivided into nearly independent chiefdoms (Kennedy, 1970:ix). The separate political communities settled near the river estuaries. Their small existence, moreover, had made them vulnerable and it was hard for them to maintain political independence. The centres of political power in the region alternated between Java, Sumatra, and Siam (Thailand) (Hall, 1976:76)). Each of these areas had developed a sea-borne empire. By the thirteenth century, the Thai peoples had created the kingdom of Sukothai in what is now northern Thailand, and they began to exercise political and economic influence as far south as Singapore (Kennedy, 1970:3). Meanwhile, in eastern Java, the Kingdom of Majapahit dominated the lesser kingdoms of modern Indonesia and Peninsular Malaysia from around the fourteenth century to the early sixteenth century (Hall, 1976:61). The creation of the Malay empire of Melaka in the fifteenth century was largely associated with a Malayan nobleman, known as Parameswara, from the Kingdom of Majapahit, who was later known as the founder of Melaka.

Melaka was then a small fishing village, but with a strategic location in relation to rivers, hills, and the wider surrounding area. Such a strategic location is suitable for trade, agriculture and defence. Among the first actions Parameswara made as ruler of Melaka was to create a diplomatic relationship with China's Ming dynasty and appeal for the patronage of China, whose fleets were widely present in the seas of south-east Asia (Kennedy, 1970:61). This brought him political support against the Siamese Kingdom of Sukothai, as well as trade for his new city. Under his reign, Melaka prospered and expanded its territory in the Peninsula. Map 2.3 illustrates the kingdom's territory. At this point of time, it can be contended that the Malayan nobleman's arrival in Melaka in the early fifteenth century marked the beginning of a change from a small settlement of fishermen to a busy and wealthy port and the capital of a Malay empire. At around this time, the peninsula was known as the Malay Peninsular, taking into consideration that the Malays were the predominant indigenous race of that region.

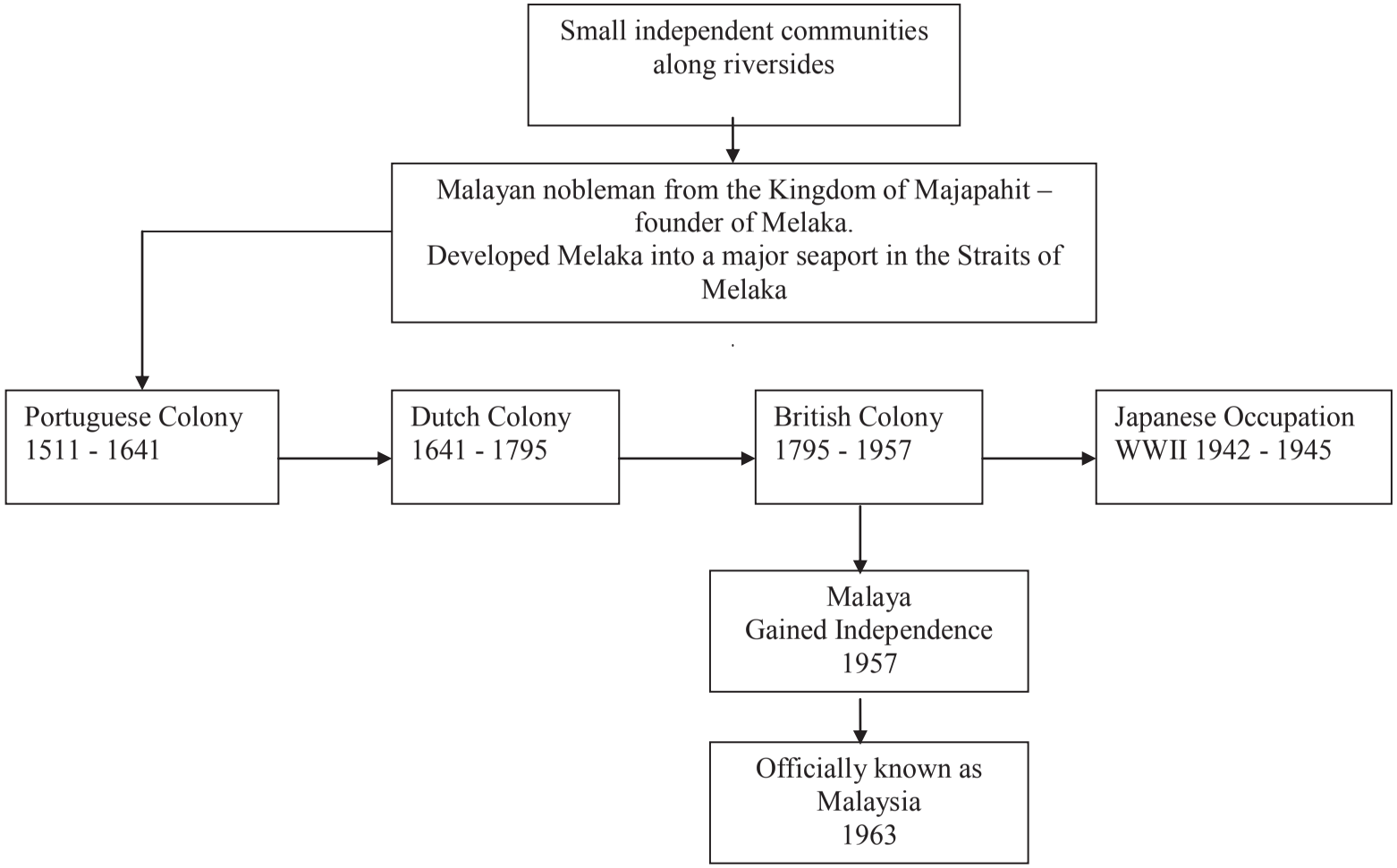
Since the dawn of Malaysia's history, its economic and social development has been very much related to international trade. Having said this, fifteenth century Melaka was a destination for travellers and explorers well before the evolution of contemporary mass tourism. Kennedy (1970:7) described the trading activity in Melaka in its early years as

'…so strong that it became the primary port of call on the Malay Peninsula'. He added that success was primarily due to the gathering of experienced traders from many countries, which must have helped trade in Melaka to flourish. The creation of a Malay Empire in fifteenth century Melaka, therefore, was based upon the profits of trade, with a well-established tradition of port-capitals and foreign policies. Many authors have concluded that there is a strong case for arguing that AD 1400 was the starting point for a continuous history of Malaysia, as well as the development of the Melaka sultanate as the major political and trade centre in the Malay Peninsular (Rigg, 2003; Jeremiah, 2002; Courteney, 1972; Kennedy, 1970). Thus it may be concluded that Melaka was the birthplace of today's Peninsula. Nevertheless, the history of Malaya up to the post-colonisation period is more one of small separate states than of the Peninsula as a whole.

Map 2.3: The Melaka Empire

Source: Kennedy (1970:13)

Figure 2.1: The Foreign Colonies in Malaysia



2.3.2 *Period of Colonisation*

European arrivals in South East Asia were motivated by the prospects of trade, discovery, politics, and religion, and their influence began in the Malay Peninsula during the sixteenth century (Anderson, 1998:174). Figure 2.1 displays the foreign powers in the Malay Peninsular prior to independence. The first European power to conquer Melaka was Portugal. Melaka was seized in 1511 by the Portuguese, when the Straits and the port of Malacca were at the peak of their success. As soon as Melaka was defeated, the Portuguese set upon building a fort overlooking the town. Six months later, the stone fortress, *A Famosa*, was complete (Kennedy, 1970:27). *A Famosa* ensured a Portuguese stronghold in Melaka, as the supreme military, naval, and trading power in the Straits, in place of the old Melaka sultanate (See map 2.4). As a result of the invasion, the Portuguese conquered and ruled Melaka for one hundred and thirty years, until they were attacked and defeated by the Dutch in 1641 (Jeremiah, 2002:53).

Map 2.4: The *A Famosa*

Source: Kennedy (1970:25)

During the early sixteenth century, the Dutch campaigns for the control of Melaka were based largely on a policy of destroying Portuguese trade and cutting off Melaka from the great sea routes. It was actually political developments in Europe that led to Dutch ambitions in the Malay Archipelago, in particular in the Malay Peninsula (Kennedy, 1970:35). In January 1641, after a year-long war against the Portuguese, Melaka fell into the hands of the Dutch. However, by the time the battle ended, Melaka was almost in complete ruins. The Dutch then restored the fort built by the Portuguese, and ruled Melaka for the next 154 years. During the Dutch colonisation, many civic buildings were erected; among them was a Dutch town hall, known as the Stadthuys Building. Like the

Portuguese, the Dutch had no intention of territorial conquest of the whole Peninsula, and only sought Melaka as a means to control the Straits. However, unlike the Portuguese, the attitude of the Dutch towards Melaka differed significantly. While the Portuguese tried to make Melaka the centre of their Southeast Asian trade, the Dutch reduced Melaka to the mere position of a fortress from which Dutch trading interests could be watched in the Straits (Jeremiah, 2002:45). This was because, for the Dutch in the Southeast Asia region, Batavia (Jakarta) in Sumatra, Indonesia, was their headquarters and trading centre between the east and west. The Dutch ruled Melaka until they were defeated by the British.

Thus, in 1795, Melaka again was colonised by another western political empire, the British. The background for this move lay in Europe, when the Netherlands was captured by the French Revolutionary armies during the Napoleonic Wars (Kennedy, 1970:87). The British, however, returned Melaka to the Dutch in 1818 under the treaty of Vienna, but regained Melaka under the Anglo-Dutch Treaty in 1826, in exchange for Bencoleen in Sumatra (Courteney, 1972:71). Under the British, Melaka was governed by the Straits Settlement Administration in Calcutta, India, as part of the Crown Colony of the Straits Settlements. Together with Melaka, the Straits Settlement also consisted of Penang, which was conquered in 1786, and Singapore, gained in 1786 (Jeremiah, 2002:53). These important commercial port towns had been under British control for well over a century, and were federated in 1896 (Leifer, 2001; Anderson, 1998; Crouch, 1996; Kennedy, 1970). The British, with the intention of further accumulating the country's wealth, penetrated inland. Through treaties, relentless persuasion, and negotiations with the Sultans from the many Malay states of the Peninsula, the Dutch, and the government of Thailand in the northern part of the Peninsular, all nine Malay States on the Peninsula came under British protection by the 1920s. The British achieved supremacy over the region in 1786, which lasted until 1957 and was only briefly interrupted by the Japanese occupation during the Second World War. Today, the diversity of foreign influences is still visible through the variety of colonial architecture which is unique to Malaysia. Photo 2.1 to 2.4 illustrates sample of images of some of the different kinds of colonial architecture.

Photo 2.1: Stadhuys Building (1650)

It was built as the centre for Dutch administration and the residence of a Dutch governors and officers.

Photo 2.2: Perak Museum (1886)

It is the oldest museum in Malaysia. The idea of constructing a museum was initiated by Sir Hugh Low, a British Resident in Perak at the time.

Photo 2.3: Sultan Abdul Samad Building (1897)

It housed numerous government departments during the British Administration. The declaration of Independence of Malaysia was performed in front of the building where the Union Jack Flag was lowered and replaced with the national flag of Malaysia.

Photo 2.4: Kuala Lumpur Old Railway Station (1911)

It served as the central point for Malaya's rail transportation system. The building was partly damaged during World War 2 but has been restored to its original condition.

Photo 2.5: Kerapu Bank (1912)

It was built as a branch of Mercantile Bank of India by the British Government. During the Japanese Occupation, it was used as a police station. In 1992 when it was turned into a museum by the state government

2.3.3 *Malaya – Pre Independence*

Malay nationalism and desire for self-rule was felt around the 1930s, but it was not until the Second World War that an active movement emerged (Crouch, 1996:17). It was in 1945 that a sudden spread of political consciousness among the Malays materialised. This consciousness emerged when the British government proposed to unite the nine Malay states, together with Penang and Melaka, under a centralised government known as the Malayan Union. From the British colonial perspective, the proposal was intended for 'political integration of a plural society and the rationalisation of colonial administration, within a unitary form of administration' (Leifer, 2001:174).

The proposal, however, was strongly opposed by the Malays. This was because the proposal imposed too much British control over the entire Peninsula, and at the same time undermined the status and political power of the Malay Sultans, and the rights of the Malays as a whole (Kennedy, 1970:279). As a response to common struggles against the British proposal, a sense of national ethnic solidarity developed among the Malays. Hence, the Malayan Union was never fully established. Instead, opposition to the union led to the formation of UMNO (United Malay National Organisation), the first effective Malay political party.

In February 1948, a Federation of Malaya was formed, replacing the Malayan Union, with the Malay rulers playing an important role in its administration through a federal legislative council and an executive council overseen by the British High Commissioner

(Courteney, 1972:139). The Federation provided the basis for subsequent British decolonisation and the achievement of full independence on 31 August 1957. In the process, the Malays had agreed to confer citizenship on the non-Malays, in return for being granted several requests, which later became part of the constitution (Din, 1997:109; Snodgrass, 1980:46). Among the requests were the retention of the Malay monarchy, the use of Malay language as the national language, and the acceptance of Islam as the country's official religion.

2.3.4 *Malaya – Post Independence*

The name 'Malaya' was chosen to symbolise the newly established country as the land of the Malays, the predominant indigenous race of the Peninsula. Malaya, in its early stage, comprised eleven states in Peninsular Malaysia. The constituent unit of this new entity consisted of the Straits Settlements, and the other nine constituent Malay states. Of these nine states, three states – Perak, Selangor, and Negeri Sembilan contained the bulk of the rich tin-producing areas of Malaya, as well as a large proportion of the rubber plantations (Crouch, 1996:130). The newly developed country and its constitution were further adjusted in order to accommodate a larger entity, as Singapore, Sabah, and Sarawak joined in 1963, and that same year, Malaya became officially known as Malaysia. The reasons for the formation of Malaysia were primarily political rather than economic. Brunei, which had also intended to join the federation, withdrew from negotiations because of various disagreements, particularly regarding the position of its Sultan (Leifer, 2001:23). Singapore, however, left Malaysia in 1965, again mainly for political reasons, and became a fully independent nation (Leifer, 2001:24). When the first Prime Minister of the newly established Malaya was ready to publicly announce the coming of independence in 1957, it was Melaka that he chose as the venue for his important statement.

2.4 The Society

2.4.1 *Population*

The population of Malaysia has undergone several major changes since 1957 in line with the country's rapid development. This section describes the social-cultural context of the majority of the population of Peninsular Malaysia. The total population of Malaysia, according to the Population and Housing Census 2006, was 26.5 million (Department of Statistics, 2007). Malaysia is a plural society. Its population of 26.5 million people is made up of the following ethnic groups: Malay, Chinese, Indian, diverse indigenous

people both in West and East Malaysia, and others. Table 2.1 illustrates the proportion of Malaysia's population according to the ethnic groups.

Table 2.1: Population of Malaysia

Ethnic Group	**Percentile**
Malay	56 %
Chinese	31 %
Indian	10 %
Indigenous people	1 %
Others	2 %
Total	**100 %**

Source: Department of Statistics (2007)

Having said that Malaysia is a plural country, the main three groups are further differentiated into numerous sub-ethnic groups, each with its own particular cultural characteristics. Ethnic differences among the three major groups can be identified through religious beliefs, spoken languages, dietary habits, and political affiliations. This pattern of multi-cultural existence developed as a result of the colonial occupation, when immigrant communities were brought from abroad (Rasiah, 1997:124). In the pre-independence era, particularly in the period up to 1947, net international migration was a very important determinant of changes in the size and ethnic composition of the Peninsula's population. International migration was long encouraged as part of British colonial economic policy, which required additional labour to exploit the export potential of the country's primary commodities, particularly tin and rubber. The massive incoming flux of labour was at its peak between 1870 and 1930, when hundreds of thousands of Chinese and Indians were brought to the Peninsula (Anderson, 1998:325).

Several immigrant racial groups were attracted by the country's growing economy. Among these were the Chinese and Indians. The Chinese, originating mainly from the provinces of South China, were the largest group. Many of them came as labourers in mines and plantations. However, many of the Chinese also dominated trade and commerce, becoming merchants, shopkeepers, and estate owners (Anderson, 1998:325). The Chinese, furthermore, who are mainly Buddhists and Taoists, are divided by mother tongue language and other sub-cultural differences, reflecting differences in the place of their own origin or in that of their parents and grandparents. Meanwhile, Indian immigrants to Malaya were attracted to work related to railways and governmental service, but the majority became involved in plantation work (Rasiah, 1997:127). Large-scale movement from India, mainly from southern India, occurred when the rapid growth in rubber plantations in Malaya could not be met by the local labour supply. Hence, the

Indians became the mainstay of the labour force in the rubber plantations in Malaya. Like the Chinese, the Indians, who are mainly Hindus, are comprised of groups originating from different parts of India with different cultures and customs.

Prior to 1930, there was completely free immigration of all races into the country, but a quota system was introduced in 1930 for economic reasons (Brown, 1999:39). It was a time of great global trade depression, which led to a plunging demand for Malaya's exports. Consequently, there was much unemployment in Malaya. The quota system was applied to all immigrants, but the Chinese were the most affected since they were the largest immigrant group. The quota system, furthermore, was applied from 1930 to the time of the Japanese invasion of Malaya in 1941. Nevertheless, the population of immigrants from China and India to Malaya increased rapidly. Although the overall population increased enormously, a high proportion of it was temporary, and did not regard Malaya as a permanent home (Kennedy, 1970:253). In fact, many of them still have a strong emotional attachment to their homeland, with strong family loyalty (Yen, 1995:200).

Even though it is stated earlier in this chapter that the Malays are usually considered the indigenous community of Peninsular Malaysia, there had also been significant migrations of Malays, mainly from Sumatra and Java. However, it has been argued that Malay immigration is more difficult to detect and analyse (Kennedy, 1970:225). This is due to the fact that they merged fairly easily into the community of local Malays. Although the Malays of Indonesian origin often have dialects and appearances that only minimally differ from the local Malays, they were more readily accepted since they are united in Islam. This situation, thus, allows them to be more easily and quickly assimilated with the local Malays. Most of the Malay immigrants, moreover, took up agricultural occupations. At this point of time, it is important to note that subgroup differences within each of the three major ethnic groups means that the diversity is even greater than that which appears on the surface. Crouch (1996:15) critically described the characteristics of the subgroups that exist within the three major races:

> The Malays are the most homogenous. All Malays are Muslim and speak Malay, which, despite differences among spoken dialects, is a common language in its standard written form. On the other hand, the Chinese and Indians are internally divided along religious, linguistic, and cultural lines. Among the Chinese, the traditional religions are Buddhism, Confucianism and Taoism. The Indians are mainly Hindu but divide into castes. The Chinese and Indians are also heterogeneous culturally and linguistically. The largest Chinese groups, is the Hokkien, followed by the Cantonese, Hakka, Teochiu,

> and other smaller groups, each with its own spoken language and customs. The Indians are mainly Tamil, but there are also smaller Malayalee, Telugu, and Sikh communities.

The ethnic diversity of the population over time has inevitably resulted in the combination of elements from many different ethnic groups, producing a uniquely Malaysian cultural heritage. In fact, Malaysia's multi-ethnic status has become quite valuable as a marketable item in the tourism industry. Elements such as varied traditional daily activities, languages, games, music and songs, traditional and religious festivals, building styles, and handicrafts are of great interest to tourists in general. CH tourism is seen as a process of displaying cultural heritage for touristic purposes, and at the same time, for processes of self-identification. With a promotional tagline of 'unity in diversity' (Hoffstaedter, 2008: 5), Malaysia may be promoted as a unique CH tourism destination, particularly among Malaysians, in order to encourage a better understanding of and respect for the various cultures and lifestyles within the country's multi-ethnic society. In short, the cultivation of understanding and support within its own population may determine the sustainability of CH tourism in Malaysia.

2.4.2 *Religion*

Islam is the official religion of Malaysia, where the majority of worshippers are the Malays. The religion is generally considered to have come to the Malay Peninsular through Melaka during the fifteenth century (Leifer, 2001; Jeremiah, 2002; Cartier, 1996; Crouch, 1996). Islam, furthermore, is believed to have reached Melaka through contacts with Indian and Arabian Muslim traders from India. Having said that, prior to the fifteenth century, the influence of Hinduism and Buddhism were evident in the Peninsula (Hall, 1976:60), but animism and ancestor-worship were also important (Kennedy, 1970:ix). With regards to Islam, the religion was conveyed by foreign Muslim traders to the Melaka royal family, who converted from Hinduism, and gradually spread to the masses of people clustered along the west coast. Melaka, furthermore, helped the spread of Islam to the whole of Malay Peninsular in two ways (Kennedy, 1970:16). One was through marriage between members of the royal house of Melaka and members of other ruling families, in the other Malay states. The other way was by conquest and the replacement of the local ruler by a Muslim prince of the Melaka royal family.

Today, although Islam is the official religion of the country, freedom of religion is practised, and the country is portrayed as a multi-religious nation. This can be seen by the fact that the majority of non-Muslims, that is the majority of non-Malays, embrace other

religions such as Buddhism, Christianity, Hinduism, Confucianism, and others. Table 2.2 illustrates Malaysia's population by religious grouping.

Table 2.2: Population by Religious Grouping (%)

Religion	Percentile
Islam	53.0
Buddhism	17.3
Confucians	11.6
Christianity	8.6
Hinduism	7.0
Folk/tribal	2.0
Unclassified	0.5
Total	**100**

Source: Department of Statistics (2007)

2.4.3 *The Political System*

Kuala Lumpur, the capital of Malaysia, is situated on the west coast of the Peninsula in the State of Selangor (refer to map 2.2). Malaysia is an elective constitutional monarchy patterned after the United Kingdom, and is a member of the British Commonwealth. The Supreme Head of State is the *Yang Di Pertuan Agong* (The King) (Crouch, 1996:2). The government is led by the Prime Minister and members of the cabinet, which is based on a parliamentary democracy, and it holds regular elections for federal and state governments. Meanwhile, the State government is led by the Chief Minister. The States hold power in Muslim law and custom, land agriculture, forestry, and local government, while they share responsibility with the Federal government for social welfare and public health (Kennedy, 1970:293).

The ruling party is the Barisan Nasional (The National Front). The Barisan Nasional is an alliance of parties, of each representing different ethnic groups, and has retained power since pre-independence elections in 1955 (Crouch, 1996:7). The Malays dominate the coalition through UMNO, a dominant political party in Malaysia and the largest within the ruling Barisan Nasional (Jeremiah, 2002:35). In general, the Malaysian Chinese Association (MCA) represents the Chinese in the ruling coalition, while the Indians, who occupy a subordinate position, are represented by the Malaysian Indian Congress (MIC). Today Barisan Nasional has broadened its representation to include parties from Sabah and Sarawak, as well as a few smaller parties in the Peninsula.

Planning in Malaysia is influenced by the Federal and State Constitutions and the various Federal and State legislations relevant to planning. In general, any matters regarding State land fall within the responsibility of the State. The Federal government is responsible for

the provision of legislation aiming at ensuring uniformity of policy, as well as the provision of technical advice and guidance. To be more specific, the Federal authority provides the broad general policies contained within the National Development Plan (NDP). The NDP, which is based on a 5-year plan, becomes the basis for plan generation in the Federation and the States (Courteney, 1972:143). Nevertheless, the State Planning authorities also provide inputs in the preparation of the NDP. Although NDPs are basically social-development plans, it is at this level that development policies, strategies, and programmes on a sectoral basis, including tourism, are formulated. The NDP is then complemented at the state level by the state development plans, which translate the national policies according to state priorities.

2.5 The Economy

2.5.1 *Economy – Post Independence*

Since 1957 the Malaysian economy has undergone rapid structural transformation, marked by a progressive shift from heavy dependence on the export of primary commodities to dependence upon manufactured goods. Rapid economic development, furthermore, has helped boost urbanisation, which resulted in over half of the population living in urban areas (Rasiah, 1997:124). Since then, the Colonial administration has been gradually replaced by local administration. During the initial post-independence phase (1957 – 1970), the Gross National Product (GNP) grew at an average of 6 percent (Rasiah, 1997:130). However, the GNP grew even faster under the New Economic Policy (NEP), with an average of 6.7 percent between 1970 and 1990.

The NEP was a programme initiated in 1970 after ethnic riots in Kuala Lumpur in May 1969. The riots were sparked by tensions following the elections in May 1969, in which the opposition parties performed much better than expected. The riots, furthermore, left members of the ruling coalition party, particularly UMNO, with an urgent need for planning and structuring in terms of national ideology, race relations, and economic planning. Thus, the most significant outcome from the riots was the launch of the NEP, which provided a framework for the country's development policy for the following three decades (Kennedy, 1970:360). The NEP, furthermore, placed great emphasis on measures designed to create national unity through poverty reduction programmes and racial equality.

2.5.2 *Economy – Post 1980*

As the economy grew rapidly up to the mid-1980s, the aims of the NEP dominated government development policy. However, the effects of a severe global recession, which hit Malaysia in 1985, saw the economy fall by one per cent (Crouch, 1996: 221). Around this time, the economy was depending heavily on the exports of its primary products, such as rubber, palm oil, timber, tin, cocoa, pepper, tea, and coffee. The country's commanding position over these commodities was a source of prosperity. However, with the fall in commodity prices during the mid 1980s, the situation adversely affected the country's international trade, resulting in the build-up of domestic and external debts, and creating tremendous pressures for foreign exchange (Snodgrass, 1980:86).

However, after the recovery, the emphasis on the governmental development policy shifted to growth with efficiency, by diversifying the country's industrial base. The shift in economic policy was laid out in the National Development Policy (NDP), which succeeded the NEP in 1991 (Snodgrass, 1980:90). The NDP aimed to further diversify the country's industrial base, and encouraged the continued transition away from unskilled labour-intensive industries towards human-capital-intensive technological industries (Snodgrass, 1980:90). Thus, it can be contended that events in the early 1980s made the government reassess the role of manufacturing and service industries in the national economy. At this point in time, Malaysia made a considerable effort in diversifying its economy by searching for products or services to export. Thus, aside from manufacturing, tourism received increasing attention as an important component in the national development strategy. In terms of manufacturing, as industrialisation gathered momentum, there was considerable diversification and restructuring within the manufacturing sector, with electrical machinery growing in importance. Due to the government's initiative and a massive inflow of direct foreign investment, the trend towards substantial industrialisation became the flagship of the country's economy, replacing agriculture as the largest sector since 1987 (Crouch, 1996: 223). Consequently, the manufacturing sector was able to contribute about 31 percent of Malaysia's GNP in 2001, and about 80 per cent of the country's export revenues.

Like manufacturing, tourism was seriously considered since it is a human-capital-intensive industry. However, unlike manufacturing, tourism at its infancy level requires much less capital and technological input (Crouch, 1996). Consequently, tourism was perceived as able to provide the country with income and employment generation, at a lower cost, along with a relative absence of international restrictions on tourist flow.

Since then, there has been a distinct shift in the structure of the economy. Table 2.3 highlights the top seven foreign exchange earners by sectors. Export revenues from the oil and natural gas industries, which expanded rapidly during the 1970s, also played a key role in financing Malaysia's industrialisation. However, in terms of overall export earnings, oil and natural gas exports now occupy a distant third and fourth place behind manufacturing and tourism. The rubber and tin industries, which were the mainstay of the pre-independence economy of Malaya, have declined rapidly in importance. Thus, at present, due to low prices, tin production is no longer economical.

Table 2.3: Major Foreign Earnings

Sectors	**Ringgit Malaysia[2] (RM) (billion)**
Manufacturing	285.3
Tourism	25.8
Liquefied Natural Gas (LNG)	11.3
Crude Petroleum	11.1
Palm Oil	9.9
Sawn timber and sawn logs	4.0

Source: Tourism Malaysia (2001)

2.6 Conclusions

The above discussion has introduced the geographical, historical, political, and socio-economic settings that have shaped the growth of Malaysia. It can be argued that Malaysia's strategic location, which is in the heart of South East Asia, its political stability, and the government's successful mission in encouraging industrialisation are among the major reasons for the country's remarkable economic growth. However, it is unjust to come to such a conclusion without understanding the challenging tasks that the Malaysian government has had to face in achieving its current position.

Having been ruled by four different colonial powers since the 16th century has given a colourful history to the country. With architecture as the most tangible heritage from the development of colonial times, authorities now view this as an asset for tourism. Meanwhile, the emergence of a differentiated and divided population in the postcolonial era was largely a result of British colonial immigration policies. As a result of such policies, Malaysia today has become one of the most plural and heterogeneous countries in the world, with three major ethnic groups; Malay, Chinese, and Indian. The uniqueness of Malaysian society, furthermore, can be seen in everyday life where aspects of social, religious, and economic life predominate. This is further enhanced by physical evidence

[2] Ringgit Malaysia is Malaysia's currency

that exists in the society, such as the distinguished architectural designs of traditional houses and religious buildings, the variety of traditional cuisines, and the colourful designs of traditional costumes. Like the colonial legacy, the uniqueness of Malaysian society has also inspired opportunities for the development of cultural heritage tourism in Malaysia. The next three chapters of this thesis (Chapters 3, 4, and 5) will cover a series of literature reviews pertaining to the research aims and objectives.

Chapter 3. Global Tourism and the Malaysian Experience

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of tourism development, both at international and national levels. It is necessary to explore tourism in the broader context before focusing on the development of tourism on a micro-level. Tourism is a socio-economic phenomenon involving travel from one point of origin to another destination for purposes of leisure and other activities. Social, economic, and psychological factors motivate travellers to continuously seek out new destinations. This chapter also explores the evolution of travel and tourism from ancient times to today's mass tourism, including responsible tourism with its emphasis on environmental, cultural, and socio-economic stability. Finally, this chapter addresses the development of tourism in Malaysia. It explains how tourism plays a critical role in the economy of the country.

3.2 A Brief History of Tourism

Throughout history, travel has been undertaken for different purposes and motivations, each trip reflecting its own particular characteristics. The earliest recorded tourism in Europe dates back to Ancient Greece. Even though trading and official purposes were the major purposes of travelling, there were additional reasons for travelling as well. Travel tended to be specialised in nature and related to religious practices. People travelled from widely scattered cities to visit and consult oracles, attend religious festivals, and take part in sporting events (Turner and Ash, 1975:20). As a result of the large influxes of visitors to the great religious centres, facilities were developed around the ceremonial buildings. In contrast, the Romans' travels, aside from those connected to administration and trade, were motivated more by pleasure, as evidenced by the existence of villas and spa resorts (Turner and Ash, 1975:28). It was probably the Romans who were largely responsible for introducing the idea of tourism for pleasure (Swarbrooke, 1999:14). Furthermore, the Romans also developed tourism based on sightseeing within their empire, utilising the roads that had been built for military purposes. Despite this, however, tourism in that era was an elitist activity, beyond the means of most Romans. The leisure and pleasure trips were to last until Rome's downfall in the 5th century (Swarbrooke, 1999:16), which consequently led to social and economic instability throughout Europe.

Historically, tourism in the Asian region was developed through the activities of traders, seamen, fishermen, and pilgrims, who moved from one country to another and

contributed to the creation of strong trading networks. Social travel in Asia was not affected by the collapse of the Roman Empire in the 5th century. Conditions in Asia were different, as this area was associated with the heights of civilisations and empires. Hence, there was intense travel for trade, diplomatic, missionary, and educational reasons (Hall, 1976, Kennedy, 1970). Furthermore, the various centres of political power in Asia, having developed their own sea-borne empires, often lasted for long periods of time. Among these was the Kingdom of Funan, in what now comprises Cambodia and southern Vietnam. The kingdom, founded in the 1st century AD, successfully developed a maritime trade linking the Chinese and the Roman Empires until the kingdom was incorporated into the Kingdom of Chenla in the 6th century (Hall, 1976:90). Later, the control of the maritime trade route passed to the maritime Kingdom of Sri Vijaya in present-day Sumatra, Indonesia. By the late 7th century, the kingdom had become a centre of trade with India and China, lasting for 500 years (Hall, 1976:95). Nevertheless, the sea trade in South East Asia continued to thrive.

Around the 13th century, two major political powers began to flourish in the region of Southeast Asia. The Kingdom of Sukothai in what is now northern Thailand extended its frontiers to include much of modern Thailand, northern Malaysia, and Singapore (Kennedy, 1970:ix). Meanwhile, the Kingdom of Majapahit, a Javanese maritime empire, dominated the lesser kingdoms of Indonesia and Malaysia from around the 14th century to the early 16th century. Nevertheless, as mentioned above, in all of these kingdoms, the travel patterns were almost the same, involving the pursuit of trade, religion, and political expansion. However, between the 15th and 19th centuries, travel within Asia, particularly in Southeast Asia, changed tremendously as Western military and political powers invaded countries within the region. This was due to the fact that, on one hand, intervention from the West marked the decline of eastern political sovereignties. On the other hand, colonial domination, which was directly related to the global expansion of European mercantilism and subsequently capitalism, indirectly resulted in modern international tourism in the Asian regions (Britton, 1992:333).

Meanwhile, in continental Europe during the 17th and the 18th centuries, travel for the purpose of broadening one's mind and cultural enhancement, known as the *Grand Tour,* had become a growing pastime for the wealthy. Turner and Ash (1975:33) describe such journeys as offering social refinements as well as academic subjects of study. Thus, the *Grand Tour* could be regarded as the beginning of modern educational tours.

In short, it may be argued that the reasons for travelling in earlier times were personal, containing concrete objectives. Politics and trade, sports and festivals, religion, and cultural and educational experiences were among the main motivations for travel. In modern times, however, travelling tends to be more for purposes of pleasure. Having said this, to date, tourists' choices are influenced not only by their desire to travel but also by the marketing of travel organisations, and increasingly the question of value for money (Ivanovic, 2008; Dredge and Jenkins, 2007; Kotler *et al*., 2006; McIntosh and Goldner, 2001; Morgan and Pritchard, 1999; Mill and Morrison, 1985). Tourism is also constantly modified by changes in taste and fashion, which is an on-going process (Hall and Page, 2000; Kotler and Makens, 1996; Boone, 1995).

Perhaps the most important factor that should be taken into consideration from this chronological development of tourism activity is that most tourism actually occurs within and between countries of the developed world (Jenkins, 1980). Tourism flourished in the North as the result of the socio-economic and political development of those countries that had developed modes of transportation and utilised resources for tourism. Tourism then spread from developed nations to the developing nations of the South, consuming their natural resources, but at the same time, drawing an increasing share of local economic growth. Over time, travel for pleasure extended from the elites to the masses, becoming commercialised and available to those who could afford it.

3.3 Tourism as an Industry

The characteristics of global travel have changed significantly since the period of the Industrial Revolution in the 19th century. Without a doubt, during that period the major thrust for travel and tourism was invention and innovation. With the development of the motorcar, people were able to travel greater distances. In addition to this, the invention of the jet aircraft in the 1950s encouraged people to holiday abroad, and resulted in movements of people on a larger international scale (Pearce *et al*., 1998:255). At the same time, as a result of urbanisation and industrialisation, people themselves had more leisure time and greater amounts of disposable income. Furthermore, tourism was encouraged in the Western world when the idea that everyone who worked should have paid holidays was introduced after the Second World War (Ryan, 1995:22). Consequently, those who were socially and economically better off were able to travel for pleasure.

Such inventions, innovations, and the temporary movement of people, moreover, indirectly inspired the development of organised travel (Swarbrooke, 1999). Thus,

international mass tourism was developed and was to become an industry of major significance, although it is important to note that not everyone agrees that it is appropriate to define tourism as an industry. For example, Manuel (1996:12) explains that '…the industry is not the whole of tourism… tourism is possible without having any special industrial provision to support it'. Travelling to visit friends and relatives (VFR) would be a good example. In terms of Malaysia, travel motivated by VFR could easily mean travel abroad when a Malaysian family travels to visit family or friends in Singapore or Thailand arranging their own transport. Hence it may be contended that the idea of referring to tourism as an industry originates from the development of Western capitalism.

One significant feature of the modern tourism industry is that the industry and the market seem superficially to be yearning for pre-modern characteristics (Methan, 2001; King *et al*., 1995; de Kadt, 1979; Krippendorf, 1987; Turner and Ash; 1975). Examples are escaping from modernity, seeking tradition and authenticity, travelling for natural and cultural attractions, and searching for one's heritage. These characteristics, which are based on natural and cultural resources, are then commoditised as tourism products (Burns, 1999) to suit the preferences of tourists. In other words, the new forms of mass tourism require and consume natural and cultural resources presented as attractions to the market.

3.4 Conceptual Definitions and Frameworks

3.4.1 *Tourism*

Burns and Holden (1995:1) describe the study of tourism as 'bizarre', since the study itself sets out to make theoretical sense of people having fun. Yet tourism is also highly dynamic, and is widely recognised as the world's largest industry (Hall and Page, 2000; Mill and Morrison, 1985). For example, according to Ghosh *et al*. (2003: 19), the number of foreign tourists increased from 25 million in 1950 to 699 million in 2000, indicating an average annual growth rate of 7%. In addition, they report that 'tourism ranks in the top five export categories for 83% of all countries and is the leading factor of foreign exchange in at least 38% of these countries'. Furthermore, in 2002, international tourism and international receipts together accounted for about 8% of the world's total export earnings for goods and services. In fact, a more recent survey shows that international tourism arrivals increased to 922 million in 2008, representing a growth of 2% from 2007. The world travel and tourism industry in 2008 was directly and indirectly responsible for 6-7% of total employment. The UNWTO also reported that globally, as an export

category, tourism ranked fourth after fuels, chemicals, and automotive products, and accounted for about 6% of the world's total export earnings for goods and services in 2008 (UNWTO, 2009).

Several other definitions have been proposed for tourism, but much of the early research into the meaning of tourism is quite subjective, and raises more questions than answers. For example Heath and Wall (1992:4) define tourism as '… forms of recreation that take place beyond a specified distance from the home or in an administrative jurisdiction different from one's place of permanent residence'. While Mill and Morrison (1985:17) define tourism as 'an activity engaged in by people who travel', Smith (1997), on the other hand, defines tourism by describing a tourist as 'a temporarily leisured person who voluntarily visits places away from home for experiencing a change'. Arguably, Smith's definition does not really illustrate the trend in today's tourism activity. This is because recent studies have shown that travelling is not necessarily a leisure-motivated activity. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (2002:12), tourism includes '… the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business, and other purposes'. Today, other purposes may also include health and educational reasons. In fact, the pursuit of visiting family and friends is also considered to be a tourism activity today (Hall and Page, 2000; Abram *et al*., 1997; Burns and Holden, 1995; UNWTO, 1995).

The literature also describes tourism as an activity that involves travelling away from one's usual and permanent environment. Pearce *et al*. (1998:4) indicate that tourism might be seen as an origin-linkage-destination system involving the temporary movement of people from an origin to a destination with (usually) a return to his/her permanent home after at least one overnight stay. Similar to Pearce *et al*., Hudman and Hawkins (1989:5) indicate that the definition of tourism, either at domestic or international levels, has three common elements, including: movement between two places (origin and destination), purpose, and time. They further identify elements such as the tourist, the business providing tourist goods and services, the tourist government (generating country), the government of the host community or area, and the host community, as important in the development of tourism.

Meanwhile, Turner and Ash (1975:130), in their book the *Golden Hordes*, describe tourism activity as 'an escape from uniformity and complexity in search of the exotic and the simple'. In short, both definitions imply that people when travelling seek something

new and different from their normal lives and activities. This may be due to the fact that, at the time when these definitions were introduced, the flow of tourism activity was basically from developed countries to developing countries or the third world (Boniface and Fowler, 1996; de Kadt, 1979). Therefore, regarding the *Golden Hordes*, exotic may also mean 'strange', and 'simple' may refer to the simplistic life of people from the developing countries, in comparison to the lives of the people from the developed world, as observed by the people from the developed world themselves.

Furthermore, in many instances, the words *exotic* and *simple* do not exist simultaneously. Everything is dependent on the visitor's motives (Cohen, 1974) and gaze (Urry, 1990). A visitor who tends to visit and experience rural settlements, for example, the mountain people in northern Thailand or the Iban community in the remote area of Eastern Malaysia, may find himself or herself travelling for miles by foot into the deep jungle, using local transport (in the case of the Iban community, the main transportation is a long boat in a crocodile-infested river) and dependent on a local or native tour guide for assistance. In this instance, an *exotic* experience does not necessarily mean a *simple* one. Another example that may explain the relationship between *exotic* and *simple* is through local entertainment. On one hand, visitors who enjoy an hour-long performance given by hotel staff may conclude that they have seen an *exotic* and yet simple traditional dance of the community they visited. In reality, what they actually would have seen would merely have been a mixture of many traditional songs and dances that may have originated from different regions or ethnic groups within the country.

On the other hand, visitors who experience traditional Balinese dances would find such shows truly exotic, and because such performances would be modified or shortened for the tourist's gaze, they would also assume that such simple dances are part of the community's daily life. However, in reality for the Balinese, traditional dances are highly associated with religious rituals and considered an important aspect of their lives. In line with this discussion, Cohen (1974:533) cautions readers in stereotyping the tourist in the tourism industry. He further explains that the description: *a voluntary, temporary traveller, travelling in the expectation of pleasure from the novelty and change experienced on a relatively long and non-recurrent round-trip* can mean different things to different people. Therefore, the two examples given in the paragraph above illustrate how different tourist motivations may be in terms of fulfilling their 'expectations of pleasure from the novelty and change experienced'.

Apart from describing the reasons for travelling, early definitions of tourism also touched upon how the industry could impose problems for the host country. For example, Jafari (1977:8) describes tourism as:

> …a study of man away from his usual habitat, of the industry which responds to his needs, and the impacts that both he and the industry have on the host social-cultural, economic, and physical environments

In other words, this statement describes the elements of tourists' behaviour, the role of major sectors in the tourism industry (accommodation, transportation, services, etc.), and how the result of these two activities may affect the receiving countries generally, as well as the host communities specifically.

Meanwhile, McIntosh and Goeldner (2001:4) define tourism 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 and Goeldner clearly explain the interactions between tourists and tourism activities in the host country, which comprise activities, services, and industries that deliver a travel experience - namely transportation, accommodation, eating and drinking establishments, shops, entertainment, and other hospitality services for individuals or groups travelling away from home. On the other hand, Mill and Morrison (1985) define tourism in a more detailed and critical manner, and manage to distinguish tourism activities from non-tourism activities. According to these authors (Mill and Morrison, 1985:vii):

> …tourism is a difficult phenomenon to describe…. all tourism involves travel, yet all travel is not tourism. All tourism involves recreation, yet all recreation is not tourism. All tourism occurs during leisure time, but not all leisure time is given to touristic pursuit. Tourism is an activity (taking place) when people cross a border for leisure or business and stay at least twenty-four hours and not exceeding one year.

From this definition, it is clear that travel for the purposes of tourism should contain certain criteria that differentiate it from ordinary travel. This is especially important when considering that not all recreation activities are tourism-related activities. For example, the action of a man who invites his friends over to his house on a bank holiday to watch a live football match on his television cannot be associated with tourism, even though the scenario involves travelling and spending leisure time.

Apart from the definitions discussed above, Hall's (2000:6) definition seems to share a range of common elements with the other authors, for instance that (a) tourism involves temporary, short-term travel of non-residents, along transit routes to and from a destination, (b) it may have a wide variety of impacts on the destination, and (c) it is primarily for leisure or recreation, although business is also important. On the other hand, Burns (1999:29) acknowledges that to understand tourism, it is best to see it as a system. According to his view, tourism can be explained from four different aspects: political, economic, natural, and social ones. The system approach, according to Burns:

> …emphasises the inter-connectedness between one part of a system and another. This encourages multi-disciplinary thinking which, given tourism's complexities, is essential to depend on our understanding of it.

In short, it may be argued that the complex nature of the concept of tourism has resulted in multiple and varied interpretations. Figure 3.1 summarises the concept of tourism discussed in this chapter.

Based on figure 3.1, it may be contended that tourism as a system is fundamentally made up of five basic elements that support the activity of tourists:

1. The demand side

   Demand can come from either foreign or domestic tourists. Travelling activities may be influenced by the governments of the generating countries (policy and travelling regulation), and the tourists themselves (motivation and capability). Furthermore, tourism is the temporary, short-term travel of non-residents that incorporates these regions: (1) tourist generating areas, (2) intermediary areas (transit routes), and (3) destination areas.

2. The role of intermediaries

   In many cases, prior to visiting the destination area, tourists may arrive in the receiving country via its international airport, ports or other international arrival points, known as transit routes. Thus, the role of intermediaries refers to all of the agents that bring tourists from the generating countries to the destination areas.

3. The supply side

   The supply side refers to the tourism attractions that exist in the destination areas and all of the facilities that support such attractions.

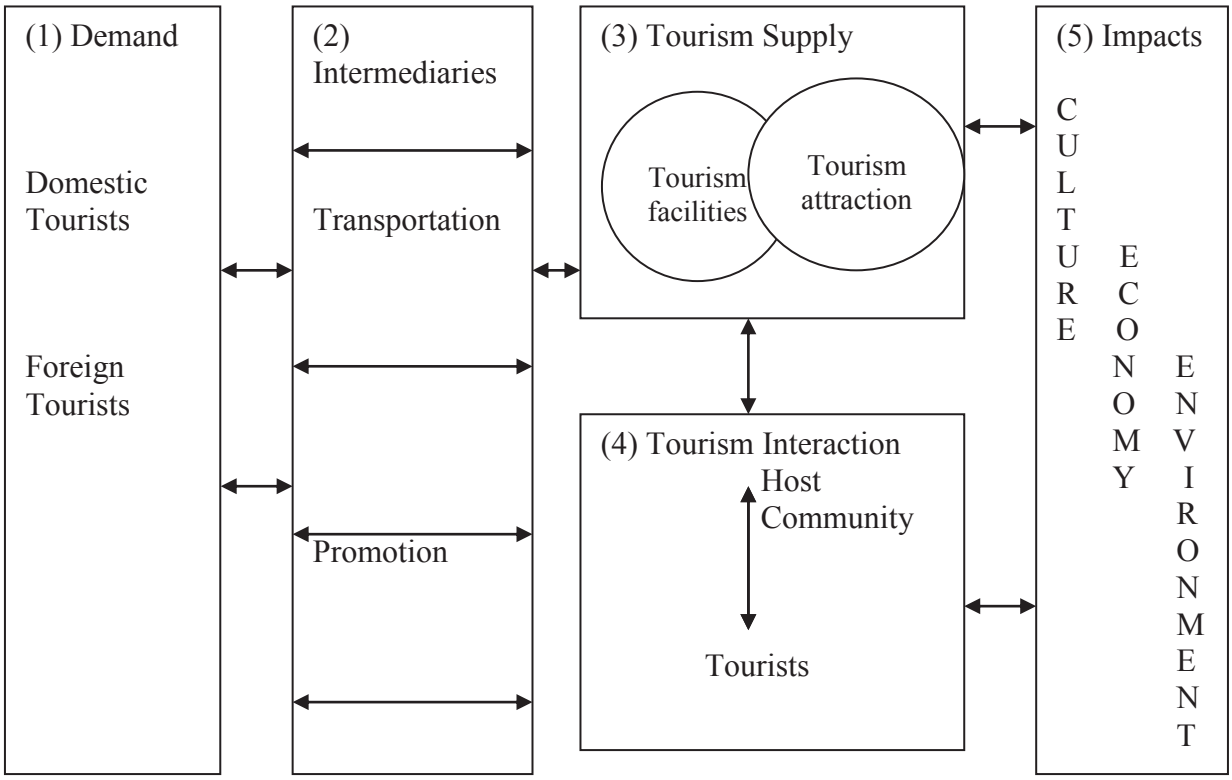
4. Tourism interactions

   In this context, tourism interactions refer to the interactions between tourists and host communities residing within the destination areas.

5. Tourism impacts

   Tourism and tourist activities may contribute positive impacts, but at the same time cause adverse impacts upon the receiving country, and upon the host population specifically.

Figure 3.1: The Tourism Systems



Sources: Derived from the literature (McIntosh and Goeldner, 2001; Hall and Page, 2000; Burns, 1999: Pearce, 1992; Hudman and Hawkins, 1989; Mill and Morrison, 1985; Jafari, 1977; Cohen, 1974)

3.4.2 *Tourists*

According to the UNWTO (1999:8), a visitor may be classified as belonging to one of two categories:

- Tourist

  A temporary visitor staying at least 24 hours in the country visited and the purpose of whose journey may be classified as leisure, visiting friends/family, business, health, religion, and others.

- Excursionist

  A temporary visitor staying less than 24 hours in the destination visited, and not making an overnight stay.

In addition, the UNWTO has defined tourists as containing two additional categories:

- Domestic Tourist

  Any person residing within a country, irrespective of nationality, travelling to a place within the country other than his/her usual residence for a period of not more than 24 hours for a purpose other than the exercise of a remunerated activity in the place visited. The motives for such travel may include leisure, business, visiting family/friends, health, study, religion, or others.

- Foreign Tourist

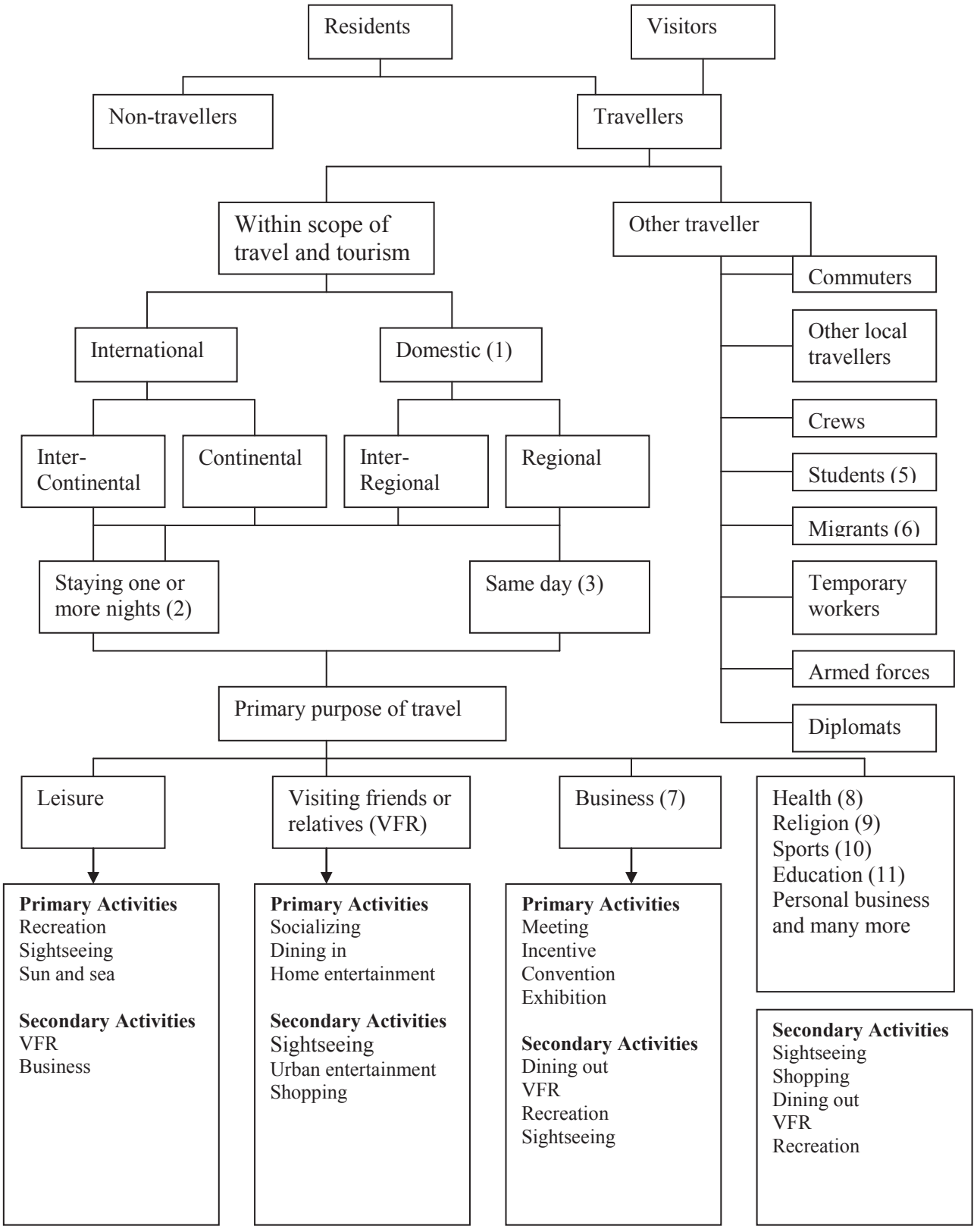
  A person who visits a country other than the one in which he/she lives for a period of not more than 24 hours for any purpose other than one which involves pay from the country being visited. Visits may be for leisure, business, visiting family/friends, health, study, religion, or others.

Therefore, for the purposes of this study, a tourist is defined as any person who travels from his or her normal place of residence for leisure (recreation, health, sport, holiday, study, or religion) or business, as well as visiting family and friends. The trip, furthermore, may last between 24 hours and 12 months. The tourist, who may be either a domestic or foreign one, is not expected to engage in any activity for remuneration at the place of visit. On the other hand, if the travel lasts less than 24 hours, the person is classified as an excursionist.

3.4.3 *Common Classifications of Travellers*

Tourism can be divided into many types, based on the length of stay, the type of transport used, the prices paid, or the number of travellers in the group. Generally, distinctions are made between international tourism and domestic tourism from a geographical point of view (Boniface and Cooper, 1987:2). According to the UNWTO, travellers are categorised into two groups: those included in tourism statistics and those not included in tourism statistics (UNWTO, 2005). The classification of tourists and excursionists, furthermore, can also be based on the purposes of their visit. The above classification schemes are summarised in figure 3.2. Several key definitions that explain figure 3.2 further are noted.

Figure 3.2: A Classification of Travellers in the Tourism Industry



Explanation

(1) Tourism activities within a country.

(2) 'Tourists' according to international technical definitions.

(3) 'Excursionists' according to international technical definitions.

(4) Travellers whose trips are not associated with tourism activities.

(5) Students travelling from home and school only – other travel of students is within the scope of travel and tourism.

(6) All personnel moving to new places of residence, including all one-way travellers such as emigrants, immigrants, refugees, domestic migrants, and nomads.

(7) Travel as a part of work.

(8) Travelling for the reasons of (8) to (11) is more specifically based. Nevertheless those reasons encompass the growing market in the tourism industry. Number 8 refers to people who travel within a country or abroad in order to seek medical advice/treatment. Although it is not justified to associate illness with pleasure, many of the secondary activities can be associated with tourism activities.

(9) Travel by pilgrims to places of religious significance, such as the Hajj to Mecca, visits to the Vatican in Rome, to Jerusalem, and to the Golden Temple in Amritsar (India). Religious pilgrims often require tourist-type facilities and services.

(10) The main reason for this type of travelling is to watch or participate in a tournament. For example: World Cup, Olympic Game, Davis Cup, Rugby World Cup and Commonwealth Game.

(11) There are many examples: school trips, fieldwork, courses, studying at tertiary level, practical training, etc.

Source: Adopted and modified from UNWTO (2005) and McIntosh and Goeldner (2001)

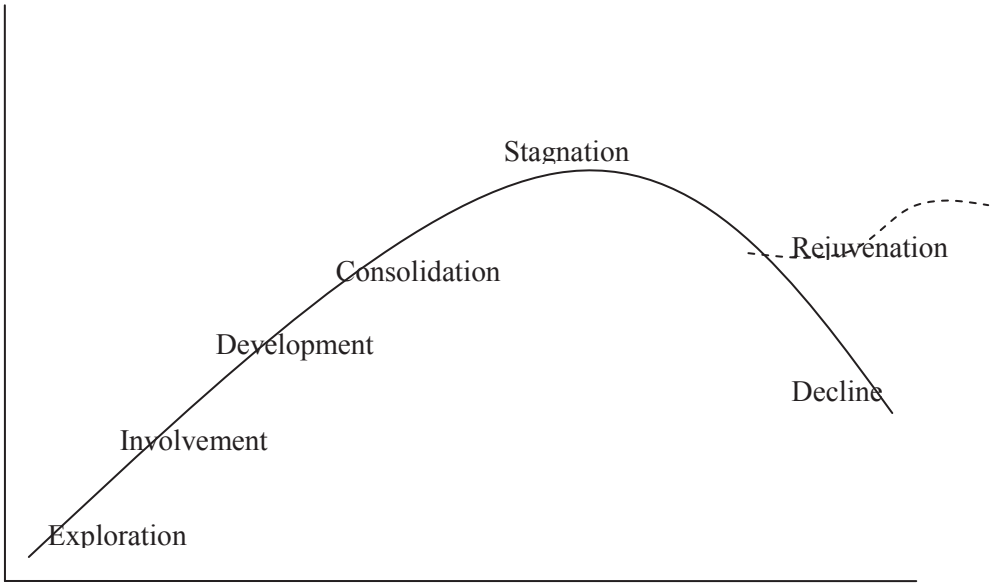
3.5 Tourism Development

Tourism development is related to the consumption of cultural and natural resources, time, and space. Tourism development, furthermore, involves many stakeholders, for example, government agencies, the private sector, tourists, and host communities. On one hand, tourist development used to be more narrowly defined as the provision or enhancement of facilities and services to meet the needs of tourists (Poon, 1993; Gunn, 1988). On the other hand, tourism itself may be seen as a means of development (Sharpley, 2004; Pearce, 1989), or as a passport to development (de Kadt, 1979).

This study explores four models that are most relevant to the study and discussed in the literature that describe tourism development according to past experiences. These models demonstrate the tourism development systems of modern and conventional tourism and, at the same time, reflect some problems and limitations of such development processes at destination and national levels. Nevertheless, the models are significant as a lesson to be

learnt whenever future tourism development is to occur, particularly in terms of their limitations regarding community participation and the Destination Life Cycle. The first model is known as Destination Life Cycle (Butler, 1980:7). The model describes the evolution of a tourist area. In this model, Butler has identified six stages that a destination would hypothetically go through. The six stages are: exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation, and rejuvenation or decline. Figure 3.3 illustrates the stages.

Figure 3.3: Butler's Destination Life Cycle



Source: Butler (1980:7)

- The exploration stage

  In this first stage, there are a small number of visitors who could be considered explorers rather than tourists. At this stage, visitors make their own travel arrangements, and mingle easily with the local community. At the same time, social impact is minimal since commercial activity is small and family-based.

- The involvement stage

  This stage evolves as the number of tourist increases, but the level of tourist/host contact still remains high. At the later stage, as the number of tourists continues to increase, the community may find that in order to earn more, they need to provide more facilities. However, since they are unable to do so due to financial constraints, they seek outside aid.

- The development stage

  Butler describes this stage as one when the area now becomes a tourist resort. New retail businesses appear, some of which may be localised, though the majority are big businesses from the outside, which eventually lead to a rapid decline in host participation. At the beginning of this stage, small tourist package trips begin to emerge, but by the end of this stage, the destination sees an influx of the mass market. The relationships between tourists and hosts change, and tourism is now a business.

- The consolidation and stagnation stages

  At the consolidation stage, the number of tourists still increases, but the rate begins to decline as the destination comes to resemble many other locations. At the end of the consolidation stage, company strategies would focus on maintaining visitors, and hence the stagnation stage is reached. Adverse environmental, economic, and social problems begin to emerge.

- The decline and rejuvenation stages

  As a result of the massive negative impacts, a process of decline begins to take place, although in many cases, due to the economic implications of the destination, local authorities might seek to redevelop the destination into a new kind of tourism attraction, or into a totally different industry. Thus, a rejuvenation stage might be possible.

Although the destination life cycle model cannot predict development in all areas, it is widely referred to and used as the basic model by most planners and developers, not only for development planning but also for changing the directions and patterns of future development.

The second model was introduced by Prosser (1994:30) who proposed a model by characterising the changes of tourism over time in four categories: (1) the number of tourists (2) the contact between tourists and local communities (3) impacts (4) the power held by local members and industry (in terms of control). Table 3.1 summarises the categories. Prosser suggested that as tourism develops further, the numbers of tourist increase, along with the impacts of tourism, while at the same time contact between locals and tourists diminishes. As tourism is further developed, local communities eventually lose control of the industry.

Table 3.1: Prosser's Model of Tourism Development

	Stage 1	**Stage 2**	**Stage 3**
Number of tourists	Low	Moderate	High
Types of impacts	Minimal	Moderate	Extensive
Contact between locals and tourists	High Active participation by the community	Community provides more tourism infrastructure and facilities to accommodate more tourists	Diminish as tourism is managed by non-local investors
Control by locals	Full control	High	No control

Source: Prosser (1994:30)

Meanwhile, a similar process of tourism development is also evident in the work of Williams (1982). This third model introduced a three-stage tourism development model. Like Butler and Prosser, Williams constructed a model based on several major components. Table 3.2 summarises the stages in the model focussing on three components: (1) types of tourists, (2) types of tourism, and (3) types of impacts. On one hand, Williams's description demonstrates some similarities with Butler's model, where the community's involvement is high during the early stages of development but reduces gradually as the development matures. Further development sees planning and management of the industry taken over by outside developers. On the other hand, unlike Butler's model, Williams has cautioned readers about the implications if development is pursued even further. He suggests putting a limit on the development stages, arguing that communities benefit more if tourism is planned, controlled, and managed by them.

Table 3.2: William's Model of Tourism Development

	Stage 1	**Stage 2**		**Stage 3**
Types of tourists	Explorer Travel independently to experience new area	Consists of those who still travel independently but in a larger group	**Optimum zone of tourism development**	Conventional mass
Types of tourism	Community's own initiative and aspiration Attractions represent local area	Community provides more tourism infrastructure and facilities to accommodate more tourists		Tourism development is in accordance with tourists' demands. Tourism is managed by non-local investors
Types of impacts	Minimal	Moderate		Extensive

Source: Williams (1982:136)

Finally, a fourth model has been introduced by Miossec, who described tourism development in four stages (cited in Pearce, 1989:16). The model stresses changes in the provision of facilities (resort and transport networks) and in the behaviour and attitudes of the tourists and local decision-makers and host populations. Table 3.3 summarises the stages. In stage 1 the region is in its early traditional stage, where its traditional economic functions still provide the main sources of income. The second stage represents the period of initial tourism exploration where tourist rooms and guest houses are being established. As the tourist industry expands, an increasingly complex system of resort and transport networks evolves with little resemblance to the original state. At the same time, changes in local attitudes may lead to the complete acceptance of tourism, the adoption of planning controls or even the rejection of tourism in stage 3 and 4. With further development, Miossec suggests that the resort now has an image of its own. It is no longer perceived as being part of a country. This change of character induces some tourists to move on to other areas.

Table 3.3: Miossec's Model of Tourism Development

	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4
Provision of facilities	Little or no development	Tourism development	Increase expansion	Tourist resort has developed
Behaviour of tourists	Tourists who seek new destinations	Tourists still posses high level of interest with the local way of life	Tourism itself rather than the original attractions that draw tourists	Move on to find new places
Attitude of local decision-maker	See the economic potential of tourism	More development to meet the demand of a larger population		
Local residents	Favourable attitudes	Total acceptance of tourism development	Rejection of tourism	

Source: Miossec (cited in Pearce, 1989:16)

In short, all of the models mainly address the issue of:

- changes in tourism over time;
- issues of host community participation;
- numbers of tourist arrivals and;
- relationships between tourists and hosts.

Although the four models display similar stages of tourism development, it is important to note that not all tourist destinations pass through the suggested stage accordingly. Thus it signifies that all of the models have limited applicability. In addition to this, it is interesting to note that one of the important aspects of these models is that local communities are viewed as having the opportunity to control tourism during the early stages, but they eventually lose that control when mass tourism begins to emerge. In fact, Miossec has taken this idea a step further, by acknowledging the opportunity of the local communities to decide whether to abandon or pursue the tourism industry even at the early stages. In reality, however, only a few tourism areas evolve from an unknown place with absolute local control. In contrast to the models, in many instances tourism areas are developed via national policies for economic growth, signifying that government and other non-local management have taken control over the areas even from the beginnings of tourism development. Thus, the process leaves local communities with no opportunity to participate in the development process.

One additional important aspect within the models to be taken into consideration is the assumption that eventually every tourism development will decline. In reality, however, this stage could be avoided. As suggested by Williams (1982), if tourism development is properly managed and controlled by local communities, its growth and benefit may be sustained. In addition, Williams also hinted that any development of conventional mass tourism would harm the population in general. Nevertheless, studies have shown that even in the stage of conventional mass tourism, growth and benefit are still sustainable if certain aspects, for example environment (Sharpley, 2004; Mathieson and Wall, 1982), carrying capacity (Butler, 1997; UNWTO, 1994), perceptions and attitudes of the communities (Smith, 1997; Ap and Crompton, 1995; Pizam and King, 1994;), types of tourists (Kerstetter *et al*., 2001; Wilson, 1997), and economic leakages (Ryan, 1995), are taken into consideration.

In short, the four models discussed above are based on the development of conventional mass tourism, which potentially has high negative impacts. These uncontrolled developments may bring some short-term economic benefits to an area, but eventually over a longer time they may result in environmental and social problems and poor quality destination areas. Nevertheless, all of the weaknesses in the models could be important lessons to be taken into consideration in planning or developing future tourism.

Generally, the development of tourism activity has evolved from three distinct periods. The first period evolved during the 1950s - 1970s, when tourism was recognised as an industry. At this point, tourism development followed an economy-oriented approach, and it was more 'growth centred' (Singh, 2003:31). Issues of economic benefits and impacts upon the creation of income and employment for the country were emphasised. Around this time, tourism development was oriented towards the development of mass tourism. It was seen as a form of 'non-planning' development that resulted in the exploitation of cultural and natural resources for tourism purposes (Singh, 2003:33). Because of the very nature of the industry, tourism creates large economic, social, and environmental problems for the destination countries. Nevertheless, attention to negative impacts, particularly in developing countries, was very limited. In this approach, furthermore, local communities at destinations were not involved in any planning or decision-making processes. During the second period (1980s – 2000), however, the social and environmental implications of tourism were recognised. The impacts of tourism indicate the necessity to prevent destruction of and to protect natural resources and destination areas, especially the local communities (Din 1997:157). In the search to

minimise the negative impacts that come with organised mass tourism, new ideas of what tourism should be have emerged (Hall and Page, 2000; Abram, *et al*., 1997; Burns and Holden, 1995; Zeppel and Hall, 1991). With growth, the nature of tourism is changing rapidly. Globalisation and increased economic interactions between developed and developing nations also have contributed to the emerging concept of sustainability within the tourism industry. Thus, the widely held concept of mass-tourism gradually has been challenged by a more responsible type of tourism, known as alternative tourism. Finally, the third period (2000 up to the present day) continues to see the recognition of tourism development framed by long-term objectives and strategies, and geared towards sustainable approaches. Central to such approaches is that consideration should be given towards the integration of the physical environment (tourism destination), the host community, and the tourists (Ritchie and Inkari, 2006; Weaver, 2005; Boxill, 2004; Jayawardena, 2003; Velikova, 2000). In fact, greater efforts need to be made in incorporating community representation into the planning process (Nyaupane *et al*., 2005; Tosun, 2004; Tosun and Timothy, 2003; Tosun, 2000).

3.6 Tourism Development in Malaysia

Competition to attract tourists is taking place throughout the world at a very rapid rate. This phenomenon is increasingly significant in the region of Southeast Asia. Malaysia's entry into the tourism industry is relatively recent, compared to neighbouring countries such as Thailand and Singapore, the two major Southeast Asian destinations (Hitchcock *et al*., 1999; Din, 1997; Khalifah and Tahir, 1995; Jenkins, 1994). Prior to 1970, tourism was developed indiscriminately and was centred largely on Kuala Lumpur and Penang Island. The official stand towards tourism then was one of relying on market forces to fuel private investments, and tourism was accordingly a 'low priority' sector in the national development plans (Kadir, 1997:102). Priority was not granted to tourism mainly due to the country's reliance upon the export of traditional primary commodities such as rubber, tin, palm oil, and petroleum.

3.6.1 *Tourism Development Organisations – National and Regional Organisational Frameworks*

This section examines the *modus operandi* of organisations administering and managing the tourism sector in Malaysia at national and regional levels. It was only in 1972 that a sole agency concentrating on tourism activity in the country was established. The agency was known as the Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia (TDCM), and its statutory responsibility was to act as a tourism development authority (Kadir, 1997:104). The TDCM, however, was established as part of the Ministry of Trade but the agency was not considered as priority by the Ministry. The misrepresentation by the Ministry of Trade was due to the fact that the Ministry was in its early stages of promoting industrialisation in Malaysia, and tourism was seen as only one of the potential sectors able to create employment opportunities and earn foreign exchange for the country. Consequently, tourism was not considered a priority sector in the national development plan (Kadir, 1997:105). Therefore, ensuing marketing activity was constrained by limited financial allocations, which resulted in Malaysia remaining relatively unknown in the principal tourist-generating markets within the Southeast Asian region, particularly Singapore, Thailand, and Indonesia (MTPB, 1995; Hitchcock *et al*., 1999).

The lack of attention, thus, resulted in the number of foreign tourists to Peninsular Malaysia growing from 25,000 in 1968 to only 36,000 in 1972, making Malaysia one of the least attractive destinations in Southeast Asia. It was not until the mid 1980s that there were signs of considerable effort by the country to restructure its administration and management. The disappointing performance of such commodities during the recession in the mid 1980s prompted the Malaysian Government to consider the tourism industry a national priority to be developed and promoted on a more vigorous scale, due to its perceived capability to create opportunities for economic improvement. Consequently, tourism was granted high priority in 1987 when the industry was elevated to cabinet status, with the establishment of a separate Ministry of Tourism and Culture. As a direct result of this establishment, the Department of Culture from the Ministry of Culture, Youths and Sports was moved to the newly established Ministry, while the TDCM was moved from the Ministry of Trade and Industry, and in 1992 it was reorganised and replaced by the Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (MTPB), also known today as *Tourism Malaysia*.

The Ministry of Tourism and Culture (MOTC) was created because culture was the basis for tourism promotion in Malaysia, emphasizing on the diversity of the Malaysian

society. The Mid-Term Review of the Fifth Malaysia Plan remarks on the establishment of the MOTC that; 'of paramount importance was the propagation of Malaysian culture as a touristic asset' (Malaysian Government, 1989:262). MOTC was later expanded to become the Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism in 1990 (MOCAT). The expansion was seen as a move to recognise culture and arts as integral components of tourism. Amongst the agencies under MOCAT include: National Art Gallery, National Art Academy and Malaysian Handicrafts. There were two reasons for the placement of tourism under MOCAT:

1. MOCAT was formed in order to properly manage activities in the tourism industry, a service-oriented and fast-growing industry in Malaysia, indicating the country's first step in seriously supporting the industry.

2. The formation of MOCAT was to help create local awareness of national CH and support the development of national identity among the multi-ethnic population.

Tourism was then emphasised as a vital economic activity, with full support from the government in terms of funding, planning, coordination, regulation, and enforcement. However, in March 2004, Malaysia carried out its general elections, and as a result several of the ministries were rearranged. MOCAT was replaced by the Ministry of Tourism (MOT), while Culture and Arts divisions were administered under a new portfolio, known as the Ministry of Culture, Arts, and Heritage (MOCAH). The revised way in which tourism was administered and managed in Malaysia can be explained with the aid of figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4 summarises the overall role of the MOT according to its respective divisions. Furthermore, in addition to the divisions, the MOT also was in charge of an agency, known as *Tourism Malaysia*, which solely focuses on promoting tourism products locally and internationally. From figure 3.4, it could be contended that the environment under which tourism operates in Malaysia is multi-faceted. The system of tourism organisation is basically centralised. At Federal level, the main public organisation responsible for tourism promotion is the MOT. The MOT, furthermore, is vested with the power to plan, formulate, implement, regulate, and monitor the development of tourism, as well as its policies and strategies. Subsequently the policies are handed to the implementing arms at the state level for interpretation and execution. At the State level, the responsible agency is the State Economic Planning Unit (SEPU), which bears the important task of interpreting and implementing national policies and strategies, and carrying out tourism

programmes and projects. The SEPU was formed in each of the thirteen states in Malaysia, in order to pursue all economic activities, including tourism, at the state level. The States, furthermore, in collaboration with Tourism Malaysia, are responsible for marketing their tourism products, although at the same time, all states are equally promoted by the Federal organisation. The only difference is the growth rate of tourism development that has taken place in each of the States.

3.6.2 *Tourism Malaysia*

In addition to the respective Divisions described in figure 3.4, an agency by the name of the Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board, also known as *Tourism Malaysia*, was formed within the Ministry. As explained earlier in this chapter, *Tourism Malaysia* was an agency replacing TDCM. *Tourism Malaysia* was given a mandate by the government to coordinate all marketing activities of the tourism industry in the public and private sectors. It was also given the sole power to manage and regulate promotional and marketing tourism products at both domestic and international levels. The overall role of *Tourism Malaysia* is explained by the function of its respective divisions shown in figure 3.5. Altogether, there are eleven divisions, headed by a Director General. Advising the *Tourism Malaysia* is the Board of Directors (BoDs). The BoDs is comprised of a group of personnel from the private and public sectors appointed by the MOT by virtue of their extensive experience. Among the directors are the Presidents of Malaysia Association of Hotels (MAH) and the Malaysia Association of Tour and Travel Agency (MATTA). Table 3.4 clarifies the organisations associated with tourism development in Malaysia by summarising the objectives and functions of both the Ministry of Tourism and its agency *Tourism Malaysia.*

Figure 3.4: Organisational Structure for the Ministry of Tourism
Source: Ministry of Tourism (2005)

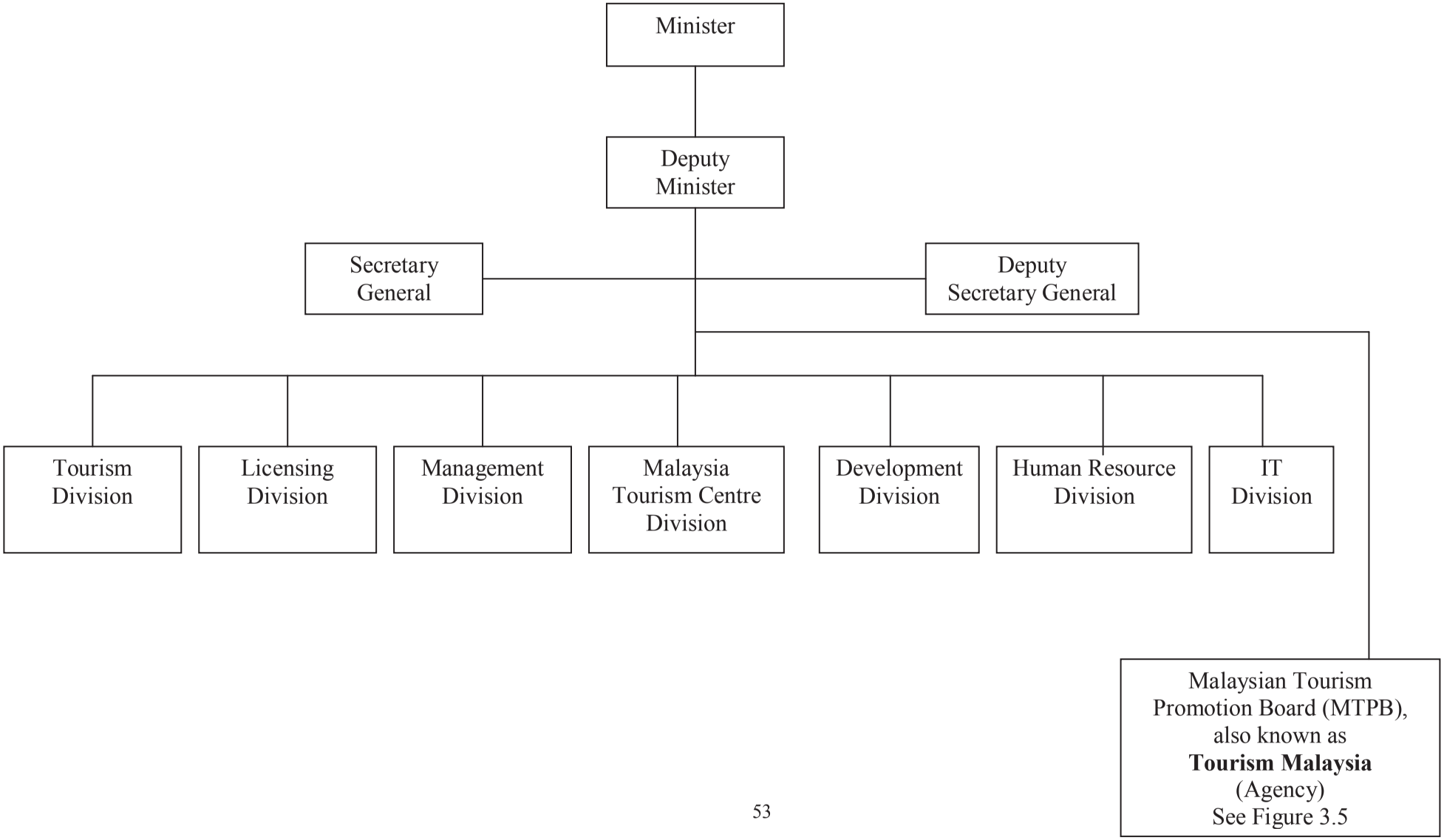


Figure 3.5: Organisational Structure for Tourism Malaysia
Source: Ministry of Tourism, 2005

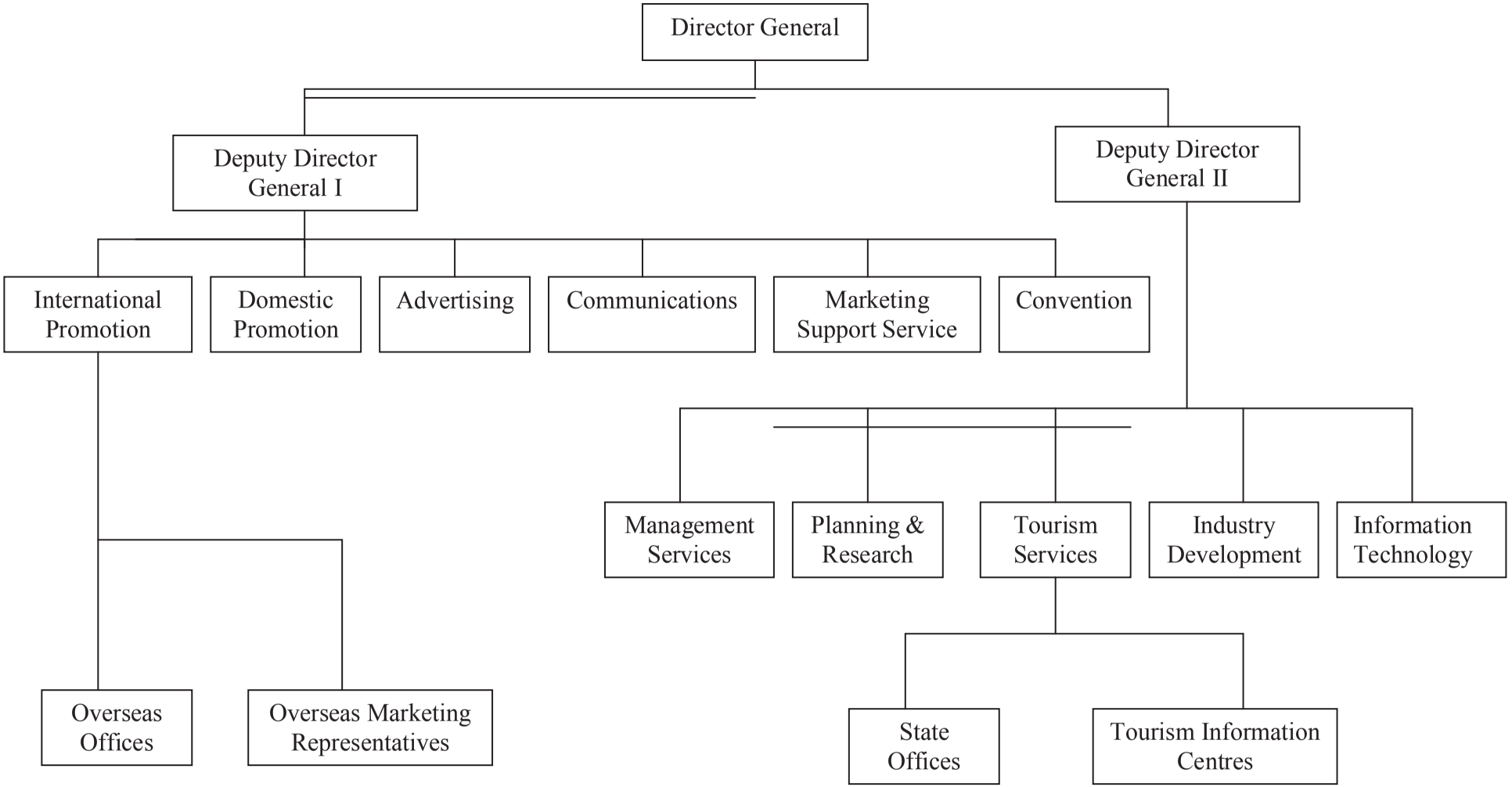


Table 3.4: The Objectives and Functions of the Ministry of Tourism and its Agency at the Federal Level

	Objectives	**Functions**
Ministry of Tourism	• to develop and implement the Malaysia Tourism Plan	• to plan, monitor and supervise the implementation of the 5-year Tourism Malaysia Plans • to implement and supervise • to develop and enhance the provision of tourism facilities and amenities • to evaluate
Tourism Malaysia	• to increase the number of foreign tourists • to extend the average length of stay, and in doing so: - to increase revenue from tourism • to stimulate the growth of domestic tourism • to enhance Malaysia's share in the business market • to help promote new investments in the country, and in doing so: - to increase employment opportunities	• to stimulate Malaysian tourism and tourism-related industries • to stimulate, promote and market Malaysia as a tourist destination, both internationally and locally • to coordinate any marketing and promotional activities in relation to tourism conducted by any government department, governmental or non-governmental agency or organisation, and the private sector

Source: Ministry of Tourism (2005)

Furthermore, in an effort to intensify overseas promotion, *Tourism Malaysia* has opened a total of thirty-two overseas offices in nineteen different countries. Table 3.5 summarises all of its offices abroad.

Table 3.5: Marketing Offices in Major Foreign Cities

Country	**Cities**
Asia	
ASEAN	Jakarta, Medan, Singapore, Phuket, Bangkok
Eastern	Beijing, Shanghai, Quang Zhou, Hong Kong, Taipei
Northern	Tokyo, Osaka, Seoul
Southern	Mumbai, New Delhi, Chennai
Western	Dubai, Jeddah, Istanbul
Europe	
Northern	London, Stockholm
Southern	Milan
Western	Frankfurt, Paris
Eastern	Moscow
North America	Los Angeles, New York, Vancouver
Southern Africa	Johannesburg
Oceania	Melbourne, Sydney, Perth

In addition to the *Tourism Malaysia* overseas offices, there are also seven Tourism Malaysia State offices in Malaysia. The main functions of these local offices are:

- to carry out activities organised by Tourism Malaysia Head Offices in Kuala Lumpur;

- to work hand in hand with State Governments to ensure the success of Tourism Malaysia's promotional programmes;

- to provide key support to tour operators by helping them create new tour packages.

Tourism Malaysia also manages eighteen Tourist Information Centres around the country, the function of which is to disseminate tourism information to the public.

3.7 Tourism Policies and Planning in Malaysia

Tourism policies in Malaysia have been developed in order to fulfil two main agendas: social and economic ones. The first agenda aims at utilising tourism activities for social development. By encouraging the participation of the Malaysian population in the tourism industry, especially in economically disadvantaged areas, these policies are consistent with the objectives of the overall national development plan, which is directed towards the restructuring of Malaysian society so that close associations between race, income, employment, and geographical location will be lessened (9MP, 2006:192). Another aim of social policies is to tap the potential of tourism in terms of sustaining and preserving local cultures and heritage. The incidence of ethnic riots in Kuala Lumpur in May 1969 is something that the nation does not wish to experience again. As discussed in chapter 2 (p.27), the NEP (New Economic Policy) programme was launched as the result of this political unrest. It was designed to set up a framework for Malaysia's development policy, heavily emphasizing techniques for creating a sense of national unity. As stated earlier, tourism is perceived as fulfilling dual objectives: economic and social ones. Economically, tourism is able to create opportunities for a country's financial improvement and development. To minimise the costs of tourism development, a country would normally rely upon its existing cultural and natural resources as its attractions. Thus, by promoting cultural heritage as one of its most important assets, not only could Malaysia utilise its tourism resources efficiently, it could also serve its social obligations by promoting unity in the country. It is hoped and anticipated that understanding and appreciating other cultures through domestic tourism will promote national integration amongst Malaysians.

One approach towards national integration is through the development of national culture, or what can be termed 'Malaysian culture'. This does not mean that all the different cultures have to be mixed together to form a new and unrecognisable culture. Instead, an appreciation by members of each race of the culture of other races is an aspiration. To this effect, planners and promoters have revived various traditional art forms from multiple races in Malaysia. Festivals are held and competitions between performers of traditional arts are organised. Meanwhile, traditional dances, music, and instruments are introduced to present day audiences. All of these efforts are intended to inculcate a sense of national loyalty through local awareness of cultural matters, national identity and heritage. Consequently enhance national pride and commitments (King, 1995:109; 5MP, 1986:89). An example of national cultural festival is the *Citrawarna* Malaysia or Colours of

Malaysia. It is an annual event of street performances to showcase Malaysia's cultural heritage through music, songs and dances. It was first launched in 1999 by Tourism Malaysia.

The second agenda focuses mainly on the contribution of tourism to the country's economic growth. It is envisaged that tourism will create and increase the foreign exchange earnings of the country, particularly via the expenditures of foreign tourists (9MP, 2006:192). The foreign earnings, furthermore, are expected to flow into the local economy, via multiplier effects, and would able to influence economic growth within and outside the tourism industry. Related to the economic growth induced by the generation of income from tourism is the anticipation of employment opportunities. In addition to the earnings generated from the international and domestic tourism, it is anticipated that the tourism industry would be able to create employment opportunities. While by promoting domestic tourism, it is hoped that the Government would discourage Malaysians from travelling abroad for holidays, which subsequently would enable a reduction in foreign exchange leakages.

Generally, the tourism industry conforms to the National Development Plan, which relates to the strategies of the New Economic Policy (NEP). The main goal in the NEP is to reduce the deficit in the balance of payments of the country's foreign exchange, as well as to encourage economic diversification. Thus, promoting tourism has become one of its main agendas. Nevertheless, the concern for serious tourism planning and development is still a new phenomenon in Malaysia. As noted earlier, the ever-increasing attention given by the government to develop a national tourism industry only arose during the mid-1980s. Table 3.4 describes the financial allocations for the tourism sector in the National Development Plans between 1970 and 2010. However, although tourism has always been considered part of the nation's five-year development plan, it was only during the Fifth Malaysia Plan (1986-1990) that it was regarded as a priority sector with huge amounts of funding allocated for development.

As shown in table 3.6, the allocations for tourism in the national development plans have been raised in each successive five-year Development Plan, indicating the increasing importance of the industry. For example, in the Second Malaysia Plan (1971-1975), the amount allocated for the tourism industry was only 10% of the total budget, but for the Fifth Malaysia Plan, 22% of the budget allotment was allocated to tourism. The development thrust was to expand and diversify the tourism base, and to reduce the

country's dependency upon a narrow range of activities and markets (Din, 1997). Strategies were mostly focused on developing tourism attractions and facilities, as well as promoting the country internationally. Thus, by the end of the Fifth Malaysia Plan (1986-1990), there was a substantial increase in the number of tourist arrivals. As a result of the successful tourist outcomes, by the time the Sixth Malaysia Plan (1991-1995) was announced, the budget allocation for tourism had increased to more than 50% of the total budget. The trend continued within the more recent Malaysia Plans. The high budget allocations, furthermore, continue to strive in order to expand and diversify the industry to wider markets.

Details of all the Malaysia Plans described in table 3.6 are discussed in sections 3.7.1 to 3.7.7. It is important to note that the subsequent Plans described are based on the Second Malaysia Plan to the Eight Malaysia Plan. This was because, as noted earlier in this chapter, prior to 1970, tourism was considered a low priority sector in the national development, as commodities were then seen as the main agenda in the country's economy. As a result, tourism was left to develop unplanned and in unsystematic ways. Thus, it was only in the Second Malaysia Plan that tourism was mentioned specifically and a small development budget began to be allocated to the sector.

Table 3.6: Budget Allocation for Tourism in National Development Plan

Five-year Plan	Allocation (RMmillion)	Conversion[3] (UK£million)	% of Plan Allocation
Second Malaysia Plan 1971 -1975	8.59	1.28	0.10
Third Malaysia Plan 1976 - 1980	27.19	4.06	0.08
Fourth Malaysia Plan 1980 - 1985	40.00	5.97	0.09
Fifth Malaysia Plan 1986 - 1990	140.50	20.90	0.22
Sixth Malaysia Plan 1991 - 1996	533.90	79.69	0.51
Seventh Malaysia Plan 1997 – 2000	696.90	104.01	0.52
Eighth Malaysia Plan 2001 - 2005	990.20	147.80	0.54
Ninth Malaysia Plan 2006 - 2010	1,847.90		0.60

Source: Government of Malaysia (1971, 1976, 1980, 1986, 1991, 1996, 2001, 2006)

[3] UK£1 is equivalent to RM6.7

3.7.1 *Second Malaysia Plan (1971-1975)*

The Second Malaysia Plan focused primarily on investments in basic infrastructure; emphasis was assigned to highways and airports and the expansion of air travel throughout East Malaysia. In addition, emphasis was given to the development of tourist sites and facilities within each State.

3.7.2 *Third Malaysia Plan (1976-1980)*

The policy guidelines formulated earlier were continued in the Third Malaysia Plan. In this plan, RM27.19 was made available to the tourism industry in order to assist with the preparation of physical planning and the implementation of tourism projects. Various incentives were given to stimulate the development of new accommodation and recreational facilities. Moreover, the Government became more involved in projects related to tourism, and funds were channelled to various government development agencies. Strategies on promotion included the establishment of tourist promotion offices locally and overseas in order to coordinate development in the public sector, as well as between the public and private sectors.

3.7.3 *Fourth Malaysia Plan (1981-1985)*

The Fourth Malaysian Plan focused primarily on investments in human resource development in the tourism industry. However, within this period, the tourism sector, being labour intensive, experienced a manpower shortage.

> …there was a shortage of qualified personnel at all levels; managerial, supervisory and operational levels. To ensure a steady flow of qualified tourism labour markets, training in hotel and travel sectors should be encouraged and developed (4MP, 1980:272).

As a result, various trainings and courses related to tourism were provided. More specifically, hotel and catering schools for training skilled and semi-skilled manpower in hotel administration and management were also established. A budget allocated for this term was almost double the previous budget in the Third Malaysia Plan.

3.7.4 *Fifth Malaysia Plan (1986-1990)*

The main objective of the Fifth Malaysia Plan was to achieve a total commitment from the public sector, the private sector, and the general public. The main policy was to coordinate the efforts of all related government agencies and the private sector. Privatisation policies were also actively pursued in this Plan.

3.7.5 *Sixth Malaysia Plan (1991-1995)*

The emphasis of the Sixth Malaysian Plan was to improve the balance of payments by acknowledging tourism as an important foreign exchange earner. Thus:

> …promotional activities will be intensified largely in the primary target markets. …incentives will be given in terms of reducing import duties on consumer products which will contribute to the increase in tourist expenditure on shopping. Such products range from clothing, jewellery and perfumes to electronic goods.

Furthermore, the Sixth Malaysia Plan also identified the potential growth of domestic tourism, and its ability to reduce the currency outflow.

> …in order to encourage them to travel locally, the promotion of domestic tourism will be given considerable emphasis through programmes and activities aiming at creating an awareness of attractions available within the country for vacation (6MP, 1990:467).

In addition, several other tourist information centres were built at various locations throughout the country in order to upgrade tourism services nationally.

3.7.6 *Seventh Malaysia Plan (1996-2000)*

The Seventh Malaysia Plan further stressed the need to utilise tourism as a foreign exchange earner. In achieving this objective, it was recommended that '…the market segment…be widened to include medium-to-high spending categories of tourists' (7MP, 1995: 520). In so doing, focus was given in terms of diversifying into new products and services, and expanding the existing range of activities and products into a more customer-focused tourism product. In fact:

> ...to provide tourists with a variety of attractions, efforts will be undertaken to encourage the creation of additional specialty products within the vicinity of these destinations (7MP, 1995:520).

At this period, involvement by the community was emphasised. Also within this period, emphasis was given in promoting cultural heritage. In this regard, the development of CH tourism such as museums and art galleries as well as cultural and arts centres were given more focus. According to the Plan:

> …Cultural infrastructure, which will serve as a repository of Malaysia's rich cultural heritage, will be further developed…Malaysia's unique cultural heritage will be emphasized through the utilization of traditional architecture, attire, music, food, handicrafts and the local arts (7MP, 1995: 521).

Furthermore, the Plan also emphasised the minimisation of adverse impacts that tourism may cause to the environment. At this point, there was no mention of impact of tourism on CH sites. According to the Plan:

> …more specific criteria and guidelines will be implemented to ensure that the development of infrastructure for tourism does not adversely affect environmentally-sensitive touristic areas such as rivers, highlands, coastal areas and beaches. In this regard, measures will be undertaken to ensure that their carrying capacities will be adhered to. …environmental audits will be undertaken on a regular basis (7MP, 1995: 523).

3.7.7 *Eighth Malaysia Plan (2001-2005)*

The Eighth Malaysia Plan continued to mobilise the strategies formulated in the previous plan, along with additional strategies. Marketing and promotional efforts continued to dominate its strategies, concentrating on identifying potential tourists from other regions, attracting more tourists to stay longer and spend more, as well as make repeat visits to Malaysia. As noted in the Eighth Malaysia Plan (2000:370):

> …tourism development will continue to focus on attracting foreign tourists as well as encouraging domestic tourism. Marketing activities will concentrate on expanding the tourism market share by sustaining existing markets and developing newly identified markets. ….markets such as the Middle Eastern countries as well as China, India, Japan and the United States will continue to be undertaken.

In this Plan, aspects of cultural heritage were considered core attractions of tourism products, and greater involvement by the community was emphasised in order to maximise benefits and minimise adverse effects (8MP, 2000: 367). In achieving the above strategies, the plan summarised that (ibid):

> …sustainable tourism development will be the key strategy that will provide the necessary balance among economic, social, cultural and environmental needs in all tourism planning and implementation.

Meanwhile, human resource development and the provision of qualified workers with quality services in the tourism industry continued to be given priority.

> …to ensure professionalism in the delivery of services by tour operators, guides and tourism-related personnel, further efforts will be taken to coordinate training in the tourism industry, and at the same time will continue to improve the quality of course contents and develop more learning guides. Institutions of higher learning including public and private universities as well as private

> colleges will be encouraged to offer courses specialising in tourism (8MP, 2000:372).

In addition, domestic tourism was strongly encouraged, and promotional campaigns intensified. As noted in the Plan:

> …to support the promotion programmes, tour operators and airlines will be encouraged to develop specialised tour packages to suit the preferences of domestic tourists. A monitoring system will be established to monitor the activities and pattern of travel of domestic tourists so as to enable the development of specific tourism product and formulation of strategic marketing plans (8MP, 2000:373).

3.7.8 *Ninth Malaysia Plan (2006-2010)*

Similar to the Eighth Malaysia Plan, the Ninth Malaysia Plan also saw marketing and promotional efforts continuing to dominate its strategies. Six strategic thrusts were identified in the policy, including (9MP, 2006: 211):

1. Ensuring sustainable tourism development;
2. Enhancing the development of innovate tourism products and services;
3. Encouraging and facilitating domestic tourism;
4. Intensifying marketing and promotional activities;
5. Enhancing human resource development; and
6. Ensuring the comfort, safety, and well being of tourists.

Meanwhile, in order to increase the number of tourist arrivals, focus was also placed upon attracting a larger share of high-spending travellers. Four countries were identified in the plan: Russia, China, India, and the Middle East. In addition, five tourism products were identified for expansion and diversification in order to cater to varying tourist interests and preferences, with heritage tourism among them. As noted in the 9MP (2006: 212).

> …the preservation and restoration of historical sites, buildings and artefacts will be continued as part of efforts to conserve national heritage as well as increase the number of tourist attractions. In addition, heritage trails will be developed based on specific themes including the Baba Nyonya heritage, the Portuguese and Dutch era in Melaka, war relics in Kota Bahru as well as Bunga Mas in Kedah and Kelantan.

3.8 International Tourism in Malaysia

3.8.1 *Arrivals and Types*

With increased promotional and marketing efforts, the number of tourist arrivals in the country has increased steadily, from 7.4 million in 1990 to 16.3 million in 2005 (8MP Midterm Review, 2004:354). Table 3.7 summarises the number of tourist arrivals, tourist

receipts, and average lengths of stay between 1990 and 2008. Regarding the number of tourist arrivals between 1990 and 1995, it is important to note that there were a significant number of tourist arrivals particularly in 1990, 1994, and 1995. The high number of tourist arrivals during those particular years was a result of the vigorous promotions carried out by the Ministry of Tourism locally and abroad for the Visit Malaysia Year 1990 and 1994 (Tourism Malaysia, 2002).

The Visit Malaysia Year 1990 (VMY 1990) was the first major attempt by the government to establish a name in the international tourism market. The VMY was a strategy adopted by the related Ministry to increase international awareness of Malaysia. The VMY, furthermore, acted as "… an umbrella for a range of festivals and events, it represented an opportunity to repackage existing events and to develop new ones" (Hall, 1996:84). Above all, the principal objective of the VMY was to increase tourist arrivals to the country, and encourage longer staying periods (Tan, 1991:167).

However, the success of VMY 1990 lasted only for a year. As shown in table 3.7, there was sharp decline in the number of tourist arrivals in 1991, though it increased again gradually in the following years. The outbreak of the first Gulf War and global recession experienced in many countries were some of the factors contributing to the reduction in the number of tourist arrivals in 1991 (Tan, 1991:167).

Following the successful VMY 1990, and in order to boost Malaysia's popularity internationally, another Visit Malaysia Year was promoted in 1994 (VMY 1994), which resulted in a steady growth of tourist arrivals. The increase in the number of tourists was the result of vigorous promotions carried out by the Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board offices locally and overseas for the VMY 1994. However, despite a steady increase in the number of tourist arrivals after the VMY 1994, the number again slumped seriously due to localised outbreaks of *Nipah* and *Coxsackie* virus epidemics, as well as the Asian financial crisis in 1998 (8MP, 2001:433). Furthermore, the invasion of Iraq by the USA and the outbreak of the Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) epidemic in Asia, including Malaysia, again affected the number of tourist arrivals in 2003 (8MP Midterm Review, 2003). However, the industry was able to recover from the SARS outbreak, and since then there has been a steady increase in tourist arrivals to the country. Hence, these marketing programmes adopted by the Ministry could be considered a success.

Table 3.7: International Tourist Arrivals, Tourist Receipts and Length of Stays 1990 – 2008

Year	Tourist Arrivals (million)	Tourist Receipt (RM billion)	Average Length Of Stay (Night)[4]
1990	7.4	4.4	4.6
1991	5.8	4.2	4.6
1992	6.0	4.5	4.8
1993	6.5	5.0	4.7
1994	7.1	8.2	4.8
1995	7.46	9.1	4.8
1996	7.14	10.3	5.4
1997	6.21	9.6	5.3
1998	5.55	8.5	5.5
1999	7.93	13.4	5.5
2000	10.22	17.3	5.8
2001	12.78	25.8	6.1
2002	13.39	26.8	7.8
2003	10.58	21.3	7.3
2004	15.70	29.7	6.0
2005	16.3	31.9	7.2
2006	17.4	36.2	n.a.
2007	20.9	46.0	6.3
2008	22.1	49.5	6.4

Source: Tourism Malaysia (2006; 2009)

Although the number of tourist arrivals to Malaysia has increased progressively, an examination of the breakdown of tourists by country of residence indicates the continued overdependence upon tourists from other ASEAN countries. The breakdown of inbound tourists between 1995 and 2005 is presented in table 3.8. In terms of the tourists from the ASEAN countries, Singapore, Thailand, and Brunei continue to account for the majority of tourist arrivals, with Singapore remaining the dominant feature, followed by Thailand. Hall (1996:83) describes that there are significant differences between the travel behaviours of the Asian and non-Asian market. The Asian market consists of ASEAN, Japan, Taiwan, South Korea, and China.

> …Asians are sightseers who tend to stay two to three days, while Western visitors average around a week with relaxation, especially at beach resorts, as a major travel motivation. The group tour still dominates the Asian market.

However, it is important to note that a significant characteristic of Singaporean tourists is that many of them make multiple, shorter trips to Malaysia. In a broader sense, the dominance of tourists from Singapore may be due to the country's close proximity to Malaysia, easy land access and the favourable exchange rate as compared to the Singaporean Dollar. Many Singaporeans come to Malaysia mainly for vacation,

[4] This was computed by dividing the actual duration of stay of all tourists by the total number of arrivals.

shopping, business, visiting friends and family, or eating out. These activities, consequently, have inflated the number of arrivals. Consequently, the high number of Singaporean tourists has directly influenced the shorter average length of stay of foreign tourists in this country. Nevertheless, given the current economic circumstances in the Southeast Asian region, it is likely that these countries shall continue to be the mainstay of the Malaysian tourism industry.

Table 3.8: Number of Arrivals by Selected Country

	1995	**2000**	**2004**	**2005**
Number of tourists arrival (in millions)	7,469	10,221	15,400	16,300
	%	%	%	%
ASEAN Countries	73.5	70.4	69.3	63.5
Japan	3.8	4.5	4.8	5.2
Taiwan	1.8	2.1	2.2	2.4
China	2.5	4.2	4.5	4.8
United Kingdom	1.8	2.3	2.1	2.5
Australia	1.8	2.3	2.5	2.7

Source: Tourism in Malaysia – Key Performance Indicator (2006)

Apart from ASEAN countries, other important markets include China, Taiwan, Japan, Australia, the United Kingdom, and the USA. Australia is the largest non-Asian market, with 270,423 arrivals, followed by the United Kingdom with 252,340 arrivals. Although the majority of tourists come from the Asian region, serious attention is also given to tourists and potential tourists from other continents. Following the Ministry of Tourism's research activities, it has recognised other countries that could possibly be identified as new and potential markets. Table 3.9 summarises the existing and growing markets for promotional purposes.

Table 3.9: Existing and Potential International Markets

Description	**Countries**
Existing markets	Singapore, Japan, Australia, UK, Germany, USA, Thailand, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and South Korea
Emerging markets	France, Italy, New Zealand, South Africa, Canada, Scandinavia, China, India, Russia and Saudi Arabia
Potential markets	Turkey, Kuwait, Jordan, Syria, Oman, and the United Arab Emirates

Sources: 8MP (2006:356)

The markets described in table 3.9 are identified for marketing purposes on the basis of several factors (Hall, 1996:82). Among these are:

- the economy of the market;
- the countries' governmental policies on travel restriction;
- accessibility, in terms of airline capacity between generating regions and Malaysia;
- strength of generating regions' currencies compared to that of the Malaysian Ringgit ; and
- consumer (in generating countries) responses to the Ministry's marketing activities.

Normally, the highest peaks in number of arrivals have been recorded during the months of April, June, July, August, and December (Tourism Malaysia, 2005). This is due to the holiday patterns of the generating countries, which are concentrated more during the summer and end-of-year holidays.

3.8.2 *Travelling Patterns*

There are substantial differences in the travelling characteristics and activities undertaken by foreign tourists visiting Malaysia. Hall (1998:83) describes the characteristics of tourists who visit Malaysia by stating that many of the tourists come to Malaysia for a holiday but have different places in mind.

> The Genting Highlands being a primary area for the Asia market, especially Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Thailand; the Kuala Lumpur-Malacca region attracts the Japanese, American and Australian markets; while Penang is a primary destination for Japanese honeymooners and the Australian market.

An inbound survey carried out by the Ministry involved indicates that the purpose of visits during 2003 varied: 59.6% came for holiday, followed by 30.5% for business, and 10.2% for visiting friends and relatives (VFR).

3.9 Domestic Tourism in Malaysia

Supplementing the substantial degree of international tourism in Malaysia has been an increase in the number of trips made by Malaysian tourists within their own country. It is important to note that both groups differ in terms of travel motivations and behaviours, and in terms of the advantages as well as problems that each may cause while at the destination. Nonetheless, there is still a general lack of effective measures for understanding the function of domestic tourism as an agent for economic and social

development. The above trend suggests that both segments should be given equal attention by the government. However, despite these growing numbers, the government's focus on the development and promotion of domestic tourism has been a relatively recent agenda. The reason why domestic tourism has been neglected in terms of policy and practice is because the idea of earning hard currency from the activities of foreign tourists remains high on the government's agenda. Nevertheless, domestic tourism has several advantages that the authorities cannot fail to acknowledge. According to Rao and Suresh (2001:208), domestic tourism could benefit the country through:

- Preventing foreign currency outflows caused by outbound tourism;
- Sustaining demands for tourism when overseas tourist arrivals show seasonal variation;
- Domestic tourism is also much easier and cheaper to promote via printed and electronic media; and
- Domestic tourism is able to remove barriers and feelings of difference and otherness among local communities and hosts.

Over time, the rapid growth experienced by the Malaysian economy during the past decade has proved that domestic tourism is an important aspect to be considered by the government. This is because as the economy grows, it creates an increase in the number of middle class people who are better off in terms of their standards of living and finances, with more disposable income. Thus, such growth in the population contributes to the expansion of the country's domestic tourism (7 MP, 1996:507).

However, despite the healthy growth in domestic tourism, the domestic tourist population is hard to determine. The reason is because many domestic tourists are likely to travel for the purposes of visiting friends and/or relatives, and use their own methods of transportation; many also stay with these friends and/or relatives throughout their vacation period. Thus, the various activities undertaken by domestic tourists would exclude most commercial services and facilities, making it almost impossible to assess the precise proportion of those who travel exclusively for leisure purposes (Diegues, 2001: 54). Furthermore, the majority who stay in hotels are those who are likely to travel for business purposes, and may not participate in leisure activities. Diegues (2001:55)

concludes that, in general, the number of domestic tourists is usually measured in two ways:

1. The number of national passengers embarking and disembarking at airports, or
2. Registration at hotels that participate in the government promotional activities.

In Malaysia the population of domestic tourists is measured mainly through registrations at hotels, as well as by their participation in tourist mega-promotions and events. Generally, the population of domestic tourists in Malaysia grew steadily between in the 1990s, increased significantly by the year 2000, and has continued to do so in recent years (9MP, 2006:193; 8MP, 2001:437 and 7MP, 1996:522).

As noted above, despite the healthy growth in domestic tourism in Malaysia, it received very little attention until the Seventh Malaysia Plan. Today, however, attention is given to the development of domestic tourism, particularly in reducing the number of Malaysian tourists travelling overseas. In fact, specific strategies on promoting domestic tourism were mentioned in the Eighth Malaysia Plan. For example, several promotional programmes under the theme *Cuti-cuti Malaysia* (Holiday in Malaysia) have been widely promoted with participation from the private sector through discounted prices for shopping, accommodation, transportation, and package tours. Aside from this, the government has greatly encouraged the private sector to develop budget as well as medium-priced hotels in order to stimulate domestic tourists to seek commercial accommodation while travelling within the country. The government hopes that the initiatives taken, directly and indirectly, will help attract more Malaysians to participate in domestic tourism.

3.10 Conclusions

The role of tourism is best summarised by Tarlow and Muehsam (1992:32):

> …the latter part of the twentieth century has seen a dramatic change in travel and tourism. Travel is no longer a torturous necessity, but an increasingly pleasurable option. With its emphasis on resource preservation, individual autonomy, comfort, convenience, affordability, and personalisation, post industrial travel will offer a broader horizon and opportunities.

The evolution of tourism is related to, influenced by, and a part of the evolution of the global economy; it is also a sign of modernity. In other words, economic prosperity, with regard to social incomes and leisure time, has facilitated the growth of travel and tourism. Thus, tourism has not appeared suddenly in modern times, but through the rapid

transformation of technology. This technology, consequently, has revolutionised the scale and organisation of tourism in recent times. There are at least three features of modern tourism sought after by modern societies:

1. Tourism reflects the idea of the dominant Western paradigm;
2. Mass modern tourism has become a significant global industry;
3. Tourism is characterised by standardisation (tour packages and seasonality).

There are four models that describe tourism development according to past experiences, but all of them are based on conventional mass tourism. Nonetheless, those models are valuable for future development planning, particularly in learning about past tourism development efforts. Future development planning can learn much, especially from those efforts that put more emphasis upon maintaining economic growth with limited concern for socio-cultural (host communities) and ecological (environmental) consequences.

The government has played a significant role in influencing the trends of tourism development. The tourism objectives set by the government reflect the purposes of having such development, and usually supplement broader national socio-political and economic objectives. In Malaysia, the aims of achieving a successful tourism industry are twofold: economic development and national integration. In the early days of tourism development, the importance of tourism in the economic sense was over-emphasised. The performance of the tourism industry in Malaysia was measured in terms of the number of foreign tourist arrivals. This is why most government statistics focused only on the activities of foreign tourists, despite the increase in the number of domestic tourists. Economic advantages, furthermore, are seen especially in terms of:

- The opportunity to earn substantial foreign exchange;
- The contribution of the industry to national and regional economic growth;
- The creation of substantial employment.

However, the evolution of tourism development in Malaysia has demonstrated a change in perspective. The current approach emphasises more sustainable tourism development. In other words, the government is focussing on more holistic and integrated approaches to tourism development, and taking into consideration the roles of local communities. The concept of sustainable tourism development is discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter 4. Sustainable Tourism Development

4.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the concept of sustainable tourism development. This concept has been derived from the general concept of sustainable development. Lessons from earlier development theories have made possible the emergence of sustainable tourism development, which aims to avoid and reduce the impacts of tourism and tourist activities. This concept, furthermore, has introduced a new terminology, known today as alternative tourism. Alternative tourism has been developed on the basis of conserving host environments and cultures. Alternative tourism also aims to contribute towards a more sustainable and equitable distribution of benefits to host communities. Finally, this chapter argues that achieving sustainable tourism development is not about introducing a new kind of tourism product to the market, but about directing every aspect of the industry to be more resource conscious.

4.2 Sustainable Tourism Development

The evolution of tourism development has revealed it to have a double-edged character (Dredge and Jenkins, 2007; Tosun and Timothy, 2003; McKercher and du Cross, 2002; McIntosh and Goeldner, 2001: Ap and Crompton, 1995; Pizam *et al*., 1994; Gunn, 1988). On one hand, the emergence of international tourism has contributed to economic growth, and raised the incomes of individuals and nations through foreign exchange earnings, employment, and economic diversification. On the other hand, it has led to many adverse impacts upon host societies and their environments. Generally, there are three types of tourism impacts: economic, social, and environmental ones (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). In terms of economic impacts, efforts to increase receipts from tourism often are offset by outflows of money used to purchase the imports necessary for developing a successful tourism industry (Harssel, 2003:161). Tourists consume food, drinks, and other imported goods because the quantity or quality of domestic production is insufficient. In addition, the influence of foreign corporations makes it difficult for local and small investors at the destination to compete, as corporations have the advantage of international business networks. In terms of negative social impacts, because tourism brings *outsiders* into a society, it has the possibility of influencing that society. In some locations, tourism has caused what has been labelled the ‘demonstration effect’. The term *demonstration effect* refers to negative changes in host communities, such as the imitation and adoption of new behaviour and other characteristics, including spending patterns (Cook *et al*., 2002:251).

In addition, the difference in cultural backgrounds between host communities and guests may lead to conflicts when tourists demonstrate unfamiliar behaviour with their hosts, and the hosts consider such behaviour offensive. In terms of environmental impacts, the relationship between tourism and the environment is closely intertwined. A substantial increase in the number of people using an area's resources is likely to have a detrimental impact on the environment. Not only it will increase traffic, but it will also cause harm to a fragile area. In many tourist destinations, air and water pollution are serious environmental problems. In fact, untreated sewage is one of the most common sources of water pollution in many tourist destinations, as contaminated water eventually destroys the marine environment (Foster, 2004:24).

As a result of these detrimental impacts from tourism activities, concerns over mass tourism development have begun to emerge. Mass tourism, as explained by Sharpley (2000: 275), involves

> …the movement of large numbers of people, usually on standardised, inclusive tours, for the purpose of holiday-taking, and is characterised by a variety of factors including price, place, scale and type of development and seasonality.

Such concerns indicate a necessity to protect and prevent the destruction of natural resources and destination areas from mass tourism, especially in local communities. In response to the recognition that previous development activities have been unsound, and that economic advantages must no longer be the only criteria supporting the development of tourism, ideas of sustainable tourism development were proposed in the early 1990s. The concept of sustainable tourism arose from the mother concept of *sustainable development*. The term sustainable development is defined in the Brundtland Report (Our Common Future) (1988:43) as:

> …development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

This report stresses the importance of integrating environmental protection and conservation values into the development process, as well as incorporating the wellbeing of a community's present and future. In other words, the concept challenges conventional practices associating development with economic growth, and proposes changing the idea of 'development versus conservation' to one of 'development in harmony with the environment' (Godfrey, 1996:60). The term *sustainability*, furthermore, is mostly about resource management (Ibid:60), widely used to refer to the management and maintenance of ecological systems and resources, but it has also been applied to economic, social, and

even cultural spheres (McCool, 2001; Hall and Page, 2000; UNWTO 1995; Ryan, 1991). Today the work of the Brutland Commission exerts a strong influence over all development sectors, including tourism. Thus, sustainable tourism development is seen as a solution to the current ecological crisis and to the environment/development dilemma (Burns and Holdern, 1995:211), which could reduce the negative impacts of tourism, particularly impacts upon the natural environment and local communities (Scheyvens, 2002:53).

The UNWTO (1995:7), in line with the general definition of sustainable development, defines sustainable tourism development in a more holistic way, by taking into consideration the wellbeing of future generations:

> …a sustainable tourism development approach implies that the natural, cultural and other resources of tourism are conserved for continuous use in the future, while still bringing benefits to the present society.

In other words, it is about 'managing resources in such a way that we can fulfil economic, social and aesthetic needs while maintaining cultural integrity and essential ecological processes' (Stadel, 1996:446). This definition is relevant to the current trends in tourism development, as most development 'depends on attractions and activities related to the natural environment, historic heritage and cultural patterns of areas' (UNWTO, 1995:7). Like the UNWTO, Basu (2003:142) emphasises that by recognising that tourism resources are limited, tourism, as in other industries, must acknowledge that there are limits to development, particularly in environmentally and culturally sensitive locations. Meanwhile, Butler (1993:29) defines sustainable tourism development as:

> … tourism which is developed and maintained in an area (community, environment) in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the environment (human and physical) in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and wellbeing of other activities and processes.

From this definition, it may be contended that the concept of sustainable tourism focuses on the management of the entire tourism industry in order to bring it into line with the concepts of sustainable development. This definition concludes that the tourism industry must maintain tourist visits and activities and retain the attractiveness of tourism resources, while at the same time produce no (or minimal) adverse social, cultural, or environmental impacts.

For host areas, sustainable tourism concerns many strategies, such as the provision of both unskilled and skilled employment for locals, conservation of the natural environment, maintenance of traditional values, and benefits diffused through communities. As it is a people-centred concept, sustainable tourism development should be geared towards 'resident responsive' tourism (Hawkins, 1994:267), including more democratic forms of participation in decision-making by grassroots members of a community (Dann, 1999:26). Community empowerment is granted on the basis that the tourism product consists of the members' own culture, and only the members of such communities can know the best ways to present their culture to the tourism market. However, in many developing countries, community empowerment is more of an illusion than a reality. The management of sustainable tourism development is still 'top down instead of bottom up' (Singh, 2003:35). In many instances, the type and scale of development are predetermined by the federal or state authorities, while tourism activities are put together by tour operators who are not local to the destination areas. Thus, participation by the local community ends up being played out as the exact opposite of what the concept originally anticipated.

Apart from this, as noted earlier, by practising sustainable tourism, local communities must acknowledge that there are limits to development. Limits, however, may be understood differently by different individuals within a community. Those who prefer to practise conventional habits may see sustainable tourism as a barrier to development and prosperity. In fact, the idea of restricting the consumption of tourism to natural and cultural resources may particularly infuriate those who have been depending entirely on tourism as a source of income, because for some, restrictions could mean reducing the number of tourists, and this would diminish their income levels from tourism activity.

In terms of the authorities, it is paramount that federal and local governments have strong views and perspectives regarding the issue of tourism sustainability. As noted earlier in this chapter, within the process of managing sustainable tourism development, trade-offs must be made. Without a definite position, decisions during such trade-offs could be unjust, which consequently would make tourism development in the area unsustainable in the long run. Basu (2003: 143) insists that for a country to fully benefit from the concept, it must first understand the nature of tourism development within a country in general, and in a destination area specifically. It must also understand

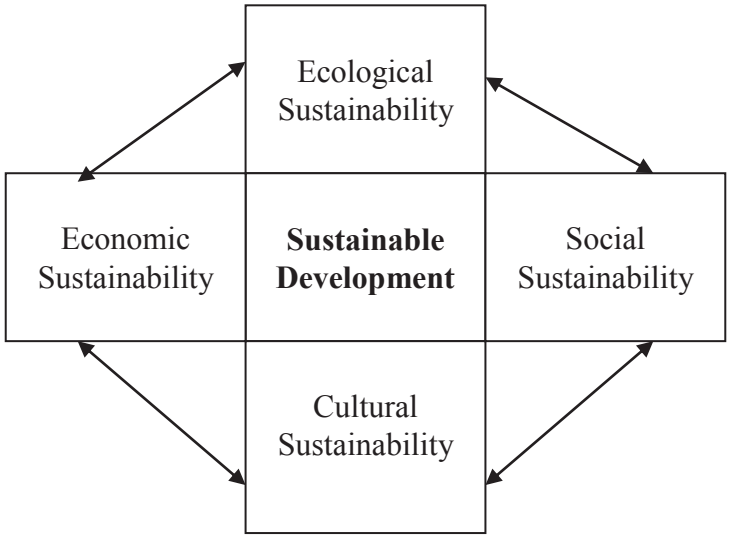
- The fragility of tourism resources (environment, communities, culture, buildings) upon which development is based;
- The level of maturity of the industry in the area;
- The resources' abilities to handle damage and change; and
- The government's outlook and abilities to control the industry in the area.

Several studies, however, have criticised the concept of sustainable tourism. Burns and Holdern, (1995:212) argue that even though the term is widely used, the report provides little guidance in actually implementing sustainable development. The absence of a clear definition has consequently allowed some to claim that they are practising sustainable development, while essentially retaining their previous approaches. Weaver and Opperman (2000:353) offer another critique, arguing that the term is conflicting, with *sustainability* and *development* being mutually exclusive, thus making it difficult to implement practically. Finally, Basu (2003:142) cautions about the dangers of not having a clear definition, particularly in the trade-offs during planning and decision-making processes. However, as Burns and Holden (1995:212) have stated, 'the meaning of sustainable development is not clear and is consequently open to varying interpretation'. Hence, trade-offs would certainly depend upon the various interpretations made by the decision-makers, emphasising priorities and preferences. For example, trade-offs could be made between economy and ecology, but also between dependency and autonomy. Processes of interpretation furthermore, would be greatly influenced by factors such as economics, politics, and cultural norms. Nonetheless, sustainable development is about managing development in a sustainable manner, in other words, in acceptable ways in order to ensure that changes to the society, culture, and environment will be minimal.

4.3 Achieving Sustainable Tourism Development

The key to achieving an acceptable balance in the development of sustainable tourism is by understanding the integration of four basic elements found in the sustainable development concept. The four elements in the sustainable development are illustrated in figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: Model for Sustainable Development



Source: Synthesised from the review of multiple definitions and concepts of sustainable tourism development.

The four elements, furthermore, can be summarised as:

1. Ecological sustainability, ensuring that tourism development is compatible with the maintenance of essential ecological processes, biological diversity, and biological resources;

2. Social and 3. cultural sustainability, ensuring that tourism development increases people's control over their own lives, is compatible with the culture and values of people affected by it, and maintains and strengthens community identity;

4. Economic sustainability, ensuring that tourism development is economically efficient and that resources are managed so that they support future generations.

Thus, within the context of this study, it may be contended that sustainable tourism development is a concept intended to achieve three main objectives:

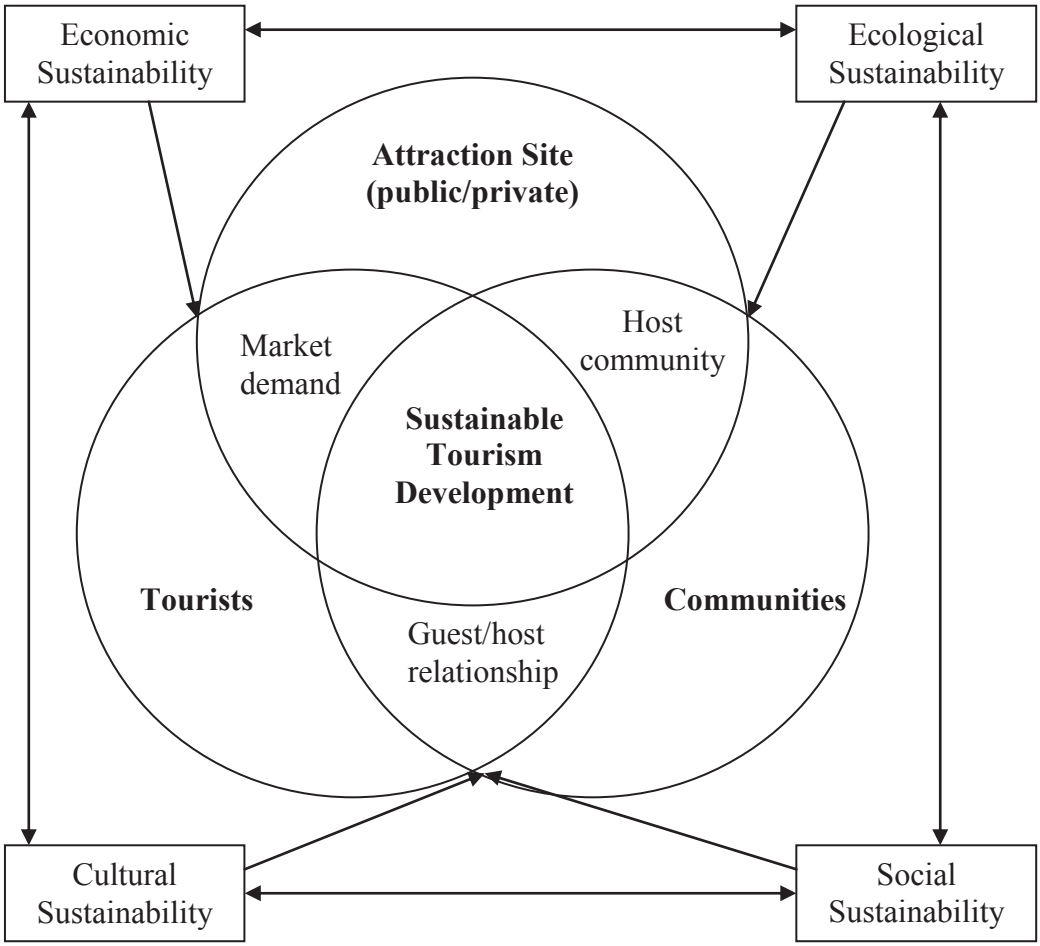
1. To improve the quality of life within host communities;

2. To provide a high-quality experience for tourists;

3. To maintain the quality of the natural and cultural environment upon which both the host communities and the tourists depend.

Based on the above discussion, figure 4.2 illustrates a model for sustainable tourism development, and at the same time applies the basic concept of sustainable development within the context of tourism development.

Figure 4.2: Model for Sustainable Tourism Development



Source**:** Synthesised from the review of multiple definitions and concepts of sustainable tourism development.

- **Ecological Sustainability**

In this context, ecological sustainability refers to the issue of avoiding or minimising environmental impacts upon a destination area (Swarbrooke, 1999; Abraham *et al*., 1997; Burns and Holden, 1995). It ensures that tourism development is compatible with the maintenance of essential ecological processes, biological diversity, and resources. There are a number of specific terms used to describe tourist activities that relate to ecological sustainability, for example green tourism and eco-tourism (Desbiolles, 2009; Boxill, 2004; Ghosh *et al.*, 2003; Chin *et al.*, 2000; Bjork, 2000).

- Social Sustainability

This concept refers to the ability of a community, whether a local or national one, to absorb inputs, such as extra people (in terms of an increased number and origin of tourists and immigrant workers), and to continue functioning, either without the creation of social disharmony as a result of these inputs, or by adapting its functions and relationships, so that potential disharmony may be reduced or eliminated (Mowforth and Munt, 1998:99).

- Cultural Sustainability

Cultural sustainability depends upon the ability of host communities to retain or adapt elements of their culture to distinguish them from other cultures. Cultural sustainability also ensures that tourism development increases people's control over their own lives, is compatible with the culture and values of people affected by it, and maintains and strengthens community identity (Din, 1997; UNWTO, 1995; Burns and Holden, 1995).

- Economic Sustainability

Economic sustainability refers to the level of economic gain from the activity sufficient either to cover the cost of any special measures taken to cater for the tourists and alleviate the effects of the tourists' presence, or to offer income appropriate to the inconvenience caused to the local community visited (Mowforth and Munt, 1998:99).

Regarding social sustainability, two factors may influence the capability of a local community to absorb inputs. The first factor is the level of dependency of that particular community upon the tourism industry as its source of income. Studies have revealed that those who economically benefit from the tourism industry are more resilient than those who are not (Pizam *et al*., 1994:10). The second factor concerns the ability of local communities to absorb new and different cultures, especially ones introduced by tourists from developed countries (Tosun and Timothy, 2002; Burns and Holden, 1995; Mathieson and Wall, 1982). Nonetheless, it has been widely argued in the literature that to solely blame tourism for every cultural disorder in a host country would be quite unjust (Sharpley, 2000; Matheson and Wall, 1982). Entertainment (music and cinema), and media technology (television and internet) have played their fair share in bringing so-called Western culture to host countries. This scenario may be seen in many countries, including Malaysia, that actively promote the tourism industry.

Turner and Ash (1975:120) have criticised the economic impacts of tourism by pointing to many developing countries where employment opportunities within local communities are limited to low-skilled, low-paying jobs. Thus, to automatically assume that economic gains from tourism could compensate for the inconveniences caused by the industry may be unjust. In fact it may be unjust to the local community, but also to the country as a whole. In many instances (particularly in developing countries) local communities are only able to hold low-skilled and low-paying jobs, since their inhabitants are unskilled and inexperienced (UNWTO, 1995:32). Thus, most managerial-level jobs would be given to outsiders, and often when there is a shortage of qualified manpower within a country,

such outsiders would certainly also be foreigners (Ibid:30). Consequently, economic leakage would occur in the destination area, as most of the money earned by the foreign workers would not remain within the country, and the trickle-down effects of tourism on the local economy would be very minimal indeed. Thus it may be argued that economic sustainability can only be achieved if economic leakage can be minimised, if not avoided altogether.

Having discussed this model, it is important to stress that in order to have a broader, more acceptable view of sustainable tourism, environmental, social and cultural aspects need to be considered alongside the economic requirements. As portrayed in figure 4.2, all of the four elements need to be well understood in order to provide maximum benefits to local communities, tourists, and attraction sites. Sustainability as a concept in tourism has introduced a new terminology, currently known as the *new tourism*. Common terms such as *appropriate*, *responsible*, and *alternative* have been used interchangeably to describe this new form of development. The new tourism seems to be yearning for certain characteristics: escaping from modernity, seeking authenticity, searching for unspoilt natural environments, and experiencing tradition and heritage, including making contact with local cultures in underdeveloped areas (Singh, 2003; Sirakaya *et al.*, 2002; Smith, 1997; Burns and Holden, 1995). Examples of the new tourism, or alternative tourism, include ecotourism (Boxill, 2004; Basu, 2003; Ghosh *et al.*, 2003), rural tourism (Choi *et al.*, 2006; Confer and Kerstetter, 2002; McKercher and du Cross, 2002), agro tourism (Fraser and Chisholm, 2000) and heritage tourism (Arthur and Mensah, 2006; Aas *et al*., 2005; Kerstetter *et al*., 2001; Long, 2000). In addition, a recent development in the tourism industry has seen the emergence of a local based open-air museum concept known as the ecomuseum. Ecomuseums, which originated in France in the 1970s, are local self-empowerment and small scale community projects where the core objective is to bring local communities and their heritage together, to preserve the local heritage, while at the same time to benefit economically (Davis, 1999). Ecomuseums are now widely established around the world. The development of ecomuseum in Southeast Asia can be found in Vietnam, Laos and Thailand (Llyod and Morgan, 2007; Galla, 2005).

4.4 Alternative Forms of Tourism

Much of the literature on alternative tourism focuses more on a product approach, considering it a new commercial tourism product (Scheyvens, 2002). In other words, the development of alternative tourism may either present it as a new attraction or as an additional attraction to existing ones, while different forms of alternative tourism serve different purposes. However, despite such differences, most forms are proposed as alternatives to conventional mass tourism development, and aim to reduce the adverse impacts of mass tourism. Table 4.1 explains the characteristic differences between mass and alternative forms of tourism.

As stated the literature has a tendency to compare mass and alternative forms of tourism, particularly in terms of their scales of development (small versus large), degrees of control and ownership, types of tourists, and types and degrees of interactions between hosts and guests (Basu, 2003; Scheyvens, 2002; McCool, 2001; Mowforth and Munt, 1998; McIntyre, 1993). In addition, alternative tourism is considered to be more responsible and friendly to the environment than mass tourism (on physical and cultural levels) and to host populations. This is due to the fact that alternative tourism concentrates on small-scale projects emphasising local ownership and local resources (natural and human) (Burns and Holden, 1995:208). As a result of local ownership, it is envisaged that tourism revenues may be retained in a community with minimal leakage. New developments, consequently, have led to increasing segmentation and specialisation within the tourism market (Kerstetter, 2001:269).

Table 4.1: Characteristics of Mass and Alternative Tourism

Conventional Mass Tourism	Alternative Tourism
General Features	
Rapid development	Slow development
Maximises	Optimises
Socially/environmentally inconsiderate	Socially/environmentally considerate
Uncontrolled	Controlled
Short term	Long term
Remote Control	Local control
Development Strategies	
Development without planning	First plan, then develop
Project-led scheme	Concept-led scheme
Tourism development everywhere	Development in suitable places
Concentration on 'honey pots'	Re-use of existing buildings
New building	Pressure and benefit diffused
Development by outsiders	Local developers
Employee imported	Local employment utilised
Tourist Behaviour	
Large groups	Individuals, families, friends
Fixed programme	Spontaneous decisions
Little time	Much time
Sights	Experience
Imported lifestyle	Local lifestyle
Comfortable/passive	Demanding/active
Loud	Quiet
Shopping	Bring presents

Source: Sharpley (2000:273).

Existing literature indicates that alternative tourism offers tourists a unique, differentiated experience, and reflects an increase in 'experiential learning' types of holidays. In other words, alternative tourism relates to tourists, usually in small groups, who are travelling in order to learn about and experience the features of a particular area (UNWTO, 1995:19). Zeppel and Hall (1991:30) describe alternative tourism as an activity undertaken by individuals who travel because they have a particular interest in a certain aspect, which can only be pursued in a particular region or at a specific destination. By participating in alternative tourism, tourists may acquire more meaningful learning experiences that are rewarding, enriching, and adventuresome. At the same time, the tourists feel satisfied knowing that they have made a significant contribution to the destination area by minimising damage to resources and allowing for its future

replenishment. Comparisons made in the literature consequently consider alternative tourism as a choice that the market has to make between conventional tourism (mass tourism) and the new tourism (alternative tourism) (Godfrey, 1996:60). Thus, it may be argued that the new tourism may be seen as a vision of the future, an alternative to mass tourism.

Despite the view of alternative tourism as the *good* tourism, some countries believe that mass tourism is still able to provide nations with greater opportunities and benefits. This is because, for many of these countries, tourism has become a major development option, and having a smaller scale of tourism development may result in fewer economic benefits (Sharpley, 2000:277). Therefore, another option in alleviating the adverse impacts resulting from tourism activities is to focus on the development of conventional mass tourism, while making sure that the development itself remains within acceptable limits. In other words, in order to ensure that the development of mass tourism will be sustainable it must practice effective planning and management strategies. After all, even though alternative tourism is presumed to be more responsible and focused, without proper planning and control, this new kind of tourism would be no different, in terms of its impact, than previous forms of tourism. Therefore, as Godfrey explains (1986:61), 'to achieve sustainable tourism development is not by replacing mass tourism, but rather to reform the tourist establishment and mass tourism from within'. Godfrey (1986:61) also recommends that in order to achieve sustainability in the development of mass tourism, planning itself should focus on adjusting and improving the quality of existing mass tourism activities, and that planning should be undertaken with the understanding that it is not a unique or isolated procedure, but rather an interdependent function of a wider and permanent socioeconomic development process. In other words, in order for a destination or a country to benefit from tourism development, it must be able to utilise its tourism resources according to the needs of the community and the tourists. At the same time, the destination or the country must control and deal with its social and environmental problems and threats.

4.5 Conclusions

In short, it may be contended that the basic aim of sustainable development is the promotion of development that enhances natural and built environments in ways that are compatible with the following three themes:

1. Environmental quality – an avoidance of damage to ecosystems and the conservation of cultural and natural resources;

2. Social equity and the eradication of poverty;

3. An avoidance of the imposition of added costs or risks to succeeding generations.

By the same token, the concept of sustainable tourism development is intended to satisfy both hosts and guests in the tourism industry. Such development not only promotes the conservation and protection of the environment and local communities, but also appreciates tourists who seek knowledge and information-based tourist attractions. Such development also accepts and recognises the importance of enhancing the quality of life of the host communities by improving their living and working conditions.

The new form of tourism known as the alternative tourism is closely related to the concept of sustainable tourism development. Indeed, lessons from earlier development practices have made possible the emergence of alternative forms of tourism, which aim to avoid and reduce the impacts of conventional mass tourism. Thus, many types of tourism activities that emphasise responsible travel have been created and promoted as alternatives to conventional mass tourism. Examples include heritage tourism, ecotourism, rural tourism, agro-tourism, and others. Despite the positive discussions existing in the literature on alternative tourism, it has its own weaknesses and challenges. Suggestions have been made that rather than shifting entirely to the new approach of alternative tourism, authorities should focus on developing more thorough and effective tourism plans encompassing the wellbeing of tourists, local communities, and their surroundings. Otherwise, the destination or country that fails to meet with such requirements is likely to follow the same path of conventional tourism in the past. The following chapter explores the concept of cultural heritage tourism and its applications, both globally and within the context of Malaysia.

Chapter 5. Cultural Heritage Tourism: Global and Malaysian Perspective

5.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the concept of heritage and considers the application of heritage within the tourist context. This chapter consists of three parts. The first part examines the definitions of the key terms of this study. The second part explores the nature of cultural heritage (CH) tourism, and how proper management of CH attractions is essential in ensuring the sustainability of such places. Finally, this chapter provides the context for Malaysia as a CH tourism destination. It discusses the benefits and potential difficulties of CH tourism in Malaysia.

5.2 Culture

One major problem in analysing culture is the vast scope of meanings implied by the term. Tomlinson (1991:4) notes that '…either there is a considerable amount of confusion…or … culture is so large and all-embracing a concept that it can accommodate all these definitions'. The Oxford English Dictionary (2002:80) defines culture as the '…appreciation of the arts, and the whole range of skills of a people at a certain period'. Hamblin (1978:6), on the other hand, defines culture as "a set of beliefs, objects and events acquired by individuals as members of society." In short, these discussions recognise that culture is a process involving human beings, and therefore does not emerge out of a vacuum.

Meanwhile, Richards (1996) views culture as involving the ways of perceiving, thinking, and evaluating the world, the self, and others. Similar to Richards, Thiaw (1998) and Munjeri (1998) relate culture to people and their surroundings, where surrounding environments also significantly impact the ways in which social groups perceive life. All three authors indicate that such cognitive capabilities emerge from interactions with others within a particular social group, suggesting culture is a learned process. On the other hand, McKercher and du Cross (2000:6) explain that culture consists of the sum of inherit values, knowledge, beliefs, and ideas, which constitute the shared notion of social action. Again, central to this definition is the notion of culture as a learned process, and the outcome from this learning process is transferable from one generation to another. In line with McKercher and du Cross (2003:10), Kim (2003:3) argues that culture is a transactional process. It is during the cultural transmission from one generation to another that culture is recreated, redefined, and restructured by those involved. In the process, it

acquires new characteristics and forms, which removes the concept of culture as a static entity. Instead, it is a continuous and ongoing process that mainly refers to the ways in which a group of people live within a society. Consequently, the process itself determines the codes of conduct of each specific social group. The process, furthermore, can be associated with a group of human beings as small and personal as a family, or as one as big and powerful as a civilization. In short, it may be concluded that culture refers to the customs, practices, languages, values, and world-views that define social groups.

Today culture is seen is two ways: as a process (in a society or a nation); and as a product. The latter, however, is a more current usage of culture, which includes '…art but also language, religion and customs….visible productions of the society's values and beliefs' (Kolb, 2000:23).

5.3 Heritage

The preliminary discussion aims to review some of the meanings of *heritage* and to establish an understanding of the word for the purposes of this thesis. The term heritage is used in a wide context, and it certainly does not only refer to old buildings. The word heritage in its broader sense is generally associated with the word inheritance (Collins Dictionary, 1996), meaning something transferred from one generation to another. The Oxford English Dictionary (2002: 161) defines heritage in the following terms:

> …something inherited at birth….anything deriving from the past or tradition….historical sites, traditions, practices….regarded as the valuable inheritance of contemporary society.

This definition refers to what is inherited, on a specific and individual basis, usually from one's own ancestors. What Timothy and Boyd (2003:16) refer to as *personal heritage* includes things that are cared for by an individual or a community, and passed on to future generations. The level of emotional connection is high, which consequently develops into a strong sense of belonging and pride. Today, however, heritage is not just associated with individual inheritance. The idea of heritage has been broadened to include both human and natural environments, architectural complexes and archaeological sites, and not only rural heritage and the countryside but also urban contexts. Consequently, heritage is defined as something that belongs to all of us. Hence, the talk of heritage and national heritage has been widely used (MacManamon and Hatton, 1999; Hall and McArthur, 1998; Nuryanti, 1996; Hewison, 1987). As Lowenthal (1985:12) argues, "through time, certain heritage features come to symbolize a society's

shared recollections'. In line with Lowenthal, Timothy and Boyd (2003:15) note that 'on this level, historical monuments often represent durable national ideals and national pride'. Therefore, it may be deduced that heritage in general may be defined as anything that is inherited by and of value to present-day society; it includes any elements from the past that society may wish to keep (Timothy and Boyd, 2003:2). The meaning of the term *of value*, however, depends on a society' beliefs, judgements, and social, physical, and natural surroundings. This is because heritage itself is chosen and defined by humankind. As quoted by Hall (1998:4), '…what is [a] heritage resource in one culture may be "neutral stuff" in another.' In short, how a person defines heritage will rely on '…individual and collective attitudes, values and perceptions, wants, technology, economics, politics and institutional arrangements' (Hall, 1998:4).

Having no precise definition of the word, and instead considering it to imply a commonly held national heritage leads to definitions that are too vague to be meaningful. For example, Millar (1989: 9) defines heritage as 'the natural, cultural and built environments of an area', a definition which could embrace almost anything. This is the criticism that Hewison (1987) directs against the word. According to Hewison:

> …heritage means anything you want. …it means everything and anything you want (1987:32).

Based on the above discussion, it may be concluded that the over-generalised meaning of heritage is unavoidable. After all, as stated above, heritage itself is chosen and defined by humankind. Therefore, the definition may become quite subjective. Despite such criticism, however, it is only fair to note that the term "heritage" has evolved in ways that are far removed from its original dictionary definition. It is currently necessary to adopt a definition of heritage that is more precise in meaning, particularly for management purposes. The International Council for Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS) (http://www.icomos.org) defines heritage by dividing it into natural and cultural environments. This definition further specifies classifications of tangible and intangible elements. According to ICOMOS, tangible elements include landscapes, historical sites and places, and the built environment, while intangible elements consist of collections, past and continued cultural practices, knowledge, and living experiences. Similar to ICOMOS, the United Nations for Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) also defines heritage in terms of its nature, either natural or cultural (UNESCO, 2001). The term "natural heritage" is used to describe gardens, landscapes, national parks, wilderness, mountains, rivers, islands, and flora and fauna. On the other

hand, "cultural heritage" is defined as consisting of traditions or living expressions that are inherited from our ancestors and passed on to our descendants. Examples of living expression include oral traditions, performing arts, social practices, rituals, festive events, as well as knowledge and skills related to the production of traditional crafts. At the same time, UNESCO defines heritage as either tangible (movable or immovable) or intangible. In conclusion, UNESCO (1989:59) summarises the definition by acknowledging that the term cultural heritage includes:

> …the entire corpus of material signs – either artistic or symbolic – handed on by the past to each culture and, therefore, to the whole of humankind. As a constituent part of the affirmation and enrichment of cultural identities, as a legacy belonging to all humankind, the cultural heritage gives each particular place its recognizable features and is the storehouse of human experience (UNESCO, 1989:59).

The importance of intangible CH involves an understanding of its capacity to transmit knowledge and skills from one generation to the next. In addition, understanding the intangible CH of different communities may help in developing mutual respect for other ways of life. Intangible CH is defined as:

> …all forms of traditional or folk culture including collective works originating in a given community and based on tradition. These creations are transmitted orally or by gesture, and are modified over a period of time through a process of collective recreation. They include oral traditions, customs, languages, music, dance, rituals, festivities, traditional medicine and pharmacopoeia, the culinary arts and all kinds of special skills connected with the material aspects of culture, such as tools and the habitat (UNESCO, 2001).

In 2003, following the definition established in 2001, UNESCO emphasized the expansion of the concept of intangible CH. The Convention succeeded in raising awareness about the importance of intangible CH. According to the Convention:

> …'intangible cultural heritage' means the practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skills – as well as the instruments, objects, artefacts, cultural spaces associated therewith – that communities, groups, and in some cases, individuals recognize as part of their cultural heritage (UNESCO, 2003: 2).

Intangible CH, defined in this way, is said to manifest in domains such as: 1) oral traditions and expressions, including language as a vehicle for intangible cultural heritage; 2) performing arts; 3) social practices, rituals, and festive events; 4) knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe; and 5) traditional craftsmanship practices (Viyayah, 2011). In other words, the concept of intangible CH includes living expressions and the traditions that countless groups and communities worldwide have

inherited from their ancestors and transmitted to their descendants, in most cases orally. In short, 'intangible' represents the abstract and the non-measurable, as well as the notion of oral traditions acting as the main vehicle for intangible processes (ibid:36).

In line with this discussion, scholars have begun to address and consider the intangible nature of CH as equal in importance to, or in some cases more important than, tangible aspects of CH (Vecco, 2011; Ma and Wang, 2008; Kenji, 2004; Munjeri, 2004). Others, however, are convinced that tangible CH merely complements intangible CH, with the latter giving the former its meaning (Bendix, 2009; Smith and Akagawa, 2009; Bortolotto, 2007). In line with this, Leimgruber (2011:166) concludes that material CH is secondary, since the tangible can only be interpreted through the intangible. This discussion clearly demonstrates that the important attributes giving CH its vitality are not objects themselves, but also knowledge about objects, or the bodies of knowledge that can activate objects. Thus, CH carries a sense of continuity. It is also dynamic and never static. In fact, the Convention itself accepts that intangible CH resources are constantly being created, and therefore are constantly changing. Yoshida (2004:109) takes this concept further by suggesting that safeguarding intangible CH should not be viewed as preserving intangible CH, because such an approach implies that heritage could be maintained in an unchanged condition. Instead, safeguarding should be read as ensuring the dynamism of intangible CH. This definition clearly suggests that heritage can no longer be defined on the basis of material aspects alone. This definition also makes it possible to recognize intangible CH as something to be protected and safeguarded.

Today, the term heritage is increasingly attached to present-day activities linked to the past. As described by the Centre for Heritage and Society (2005),

> Heritage is a contemporary activity with far-reaching effects. It can be an element of far-sighted urban and regional planning. It can be the platform for political recognition, a medium for intercultural dialogue, a means of ethical reflection, and the potential basis for local economic development. It is simultaneously local and particular, global and shared.

Present-day activities, furthermore, have expanded during recent years in their range and scope. The majority of such activities have come to the force since the 1980s in the Northern countries, with the recognition of the growth of the so-called *heritage industry* (Hewison, 1987). The heritage industry is defined by Turnbridge and Ashworth (1994) as the sale of goods and services, with the heritage component as the core element. Such a definition relates to the idea of heritage as consisting of material objects (Silberberg,

1995). It also highlights the commodification of heritage, with tourism development as the prime objective in the heritage industry (Henderson, 2002, Hovinen, 1995). The recognition of heritage as a commoditised product is central to recent definitions of heritage, which could be summarised as '…the contemporary use of the past' (Graham *et al*., 2000:2).

5.4 Heritage – Selected Countries' Perspectives

Regarding the definition of heritage and the notion of heritage as a dynamic concept, this chapter further explores the idea of heritage as applied in several countries. For instance, Thailand is an example of living heritage (Peleggi, 1996). This is because much of its so-called heritage refers to the everyday life of its people. Examples include Buddhist temples, monks, royal palaces, arts, handicrafts, as well as some social and commercial activities, such the floating market in Bangkok. Thailand also owns several historical and archaeological sites, as well as natural landscapes, all of which are integrated into the country's heritage agenda. In fact, the ancient cities of Sukhothai in northern Thailand and Aytthaya in southern Thailand have been on the World Heritage List since 1991 (Peleggi, 1996:440). Like Thailand, Hong Kong is also rich in tangible and intangible CH, but unlike Thailand, CH in Hong Kong is more concentrated on the continuity of the pre-colonial culture amongst villagers living in the New Territories, which is still considered the rural part of Hong Kong. In fact, this region is currently recognised as a national treasure by the country (Cheung, 1999:579). In contrast to the people in Thailand and Hong Kong, the people from the African continent believe that natural heritage and cultural heritage are intermingled (Ondimu, 2002: Munjeri, 1998: Thiaw, 1998). This is mostly due to the fact that African land is filled with spiritual significance, and that spiritual power more or less governs the wellbeing of the land and its people. Therefore, to ignore or untangle the relationships of these two segments of heritage would impact the sacred and spiritual traditions of an African nation. Munjeri (1998:67) has simplified this notion by saying, 'In Africa, natural heritage is the very basis of cultural heritage'. Based on the above discussion, it may be suggested that overlaps exist in the classifications of heritage. This discussion also supports the argument made by Hall that heritage is used as a label for different things by different people.

5.5 Heritage and History

Definitions of heritage have been based upon how heritage differs from, and connects to, history. Many authors distinguish between the two on the grounds of consumption. For

example, Ashworth and Tunbridge (1994:73) conclude that in many instances, history does not become heritage by itself, and in fact, is not the main contributor to the concept of heritage. Elements such as myths, folklore, and products of creative imaginations could have significantly influenced the whole idea of heritage. The term products of creative imaginations, in the researcher's view, may refer to the processes of presentation and interpretation. In other words, heritage is not a one-dimensional historical narration, rather it exists in multiple forms, along with social, cultural, and numerous of other circumstances that contribute to the development of heritage.

In line with this discussion, MacManamon and Hatton (1999:2) arguably raise the question of distinguishing between *heritage* and *history*, when they quote from a flyer for a conference, saying that 'History offers [the] use [of] true stories about the past; heritage sells or provides us with the past we appear to desire'. This may be provocative, but what these writers are possibly suggesting is that heritage is simply a commercialised form of history. In other words, heritage is history transformed into something comprehensible for the public. Despite this, the quote fails to recognise that whatever is desired by an audience about heritage *per se*, would have come from the past itself. How it is presented and interpreted to the current audience may not be a key factor in determining the authenticity of a particular history, since heritage itself would carry different meanings for different people. The fact is, 'authenticity derives from the object being conserved, while heritage derives from its users' (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 1994:23). After all, history itself is a written interpretation (Orbasli, 2000:12).

In conjunction with this issue, Herbert (1995) and Lowenthal (1985) have raised some concerns over the use of history in the present-day. They stress the dangers of trying to modify or add new elements, be they intriguing or romantic versions of history, and they warn against how such changes could affect the originality of the past. Furthermore, they argue that if the past is changed, in turn it can and will change our own identities. Consequently, the past will become what Lowenthal describes as a *foreign country* (1985). Perhaps this is why heritage sometimes has been charged as a *bogus history* (Urry, 1990:110) for its tendency to simplify the complexities of history, and in doing so to mislead the audience about the *real past* (Hewison, 1987). Perhaps it is clear at this point that different perspectives on the world have led to different personal definitions of the term heritage.

Nonetheless, it is only fair to say that heritage is a mixture of multiple factors, including history, culture, and tradition. As Schouten (1995:24) mentions, heritage is history processed through mythology, ideology, nationalism, local pride, romantic ideas, or just plain being marketed into a commodity. Most of the things that make up heritage, including objects, buildings, landscapes, and sites, may be viewed as the tangible remains of an earlier period, but all are transformed by the subjective *tourist gaze* (Urry 1990) of the viewers, into something which is personal and familiar. This is why heritage is often referred to as 'an industry in the sense of a modern activity, deliberately controlled and organized with the aim of producing a marketable product' (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 1994:16), which consists not just of history as 'the remembered past', but also of creative imaginations, mythologies, and folklores (ibid:2).

What can be noted from the above discussion is that heritage is very much about present-day public consumption, as distinguished from history. In short, heritage is a commodity, while history is an academic discipline. Heritage is not the equivalent of history, yet history is a source of heritage. In other word, heritage has evolved as a specific use of history, but not as a synonym for it. Heritage, furthermore, enables people to gain insights into the past and understand how it has affected the present. Heritage tourism, in fact, offers opportunities for portraying the past in the present. In this context, considering that heritage is a carrier of historical value from the past, it may therefore be argued that heritage is a strong component of the cultural traditions within a society. But who decides what belongs to someone's or something's heritage? The answer is: anyone or any society. Any individual or group can create heritage, and is free to decide what will become part of that heritage. The conclusion presented in this discussion leads to the assumption that heritage is something dynamic that may be changed over time. Any changes in someone's opinions or attitudes may influence the actual composition of heritage, even its very existence. For example, changes in policy by governing bodies associated with national heritage may directly influence the creation or growth of future heritage. The same is relevant for users of heritage. The cost of getting to a site and the degree of its promotion may contribute to the number of visitors to heritage places.

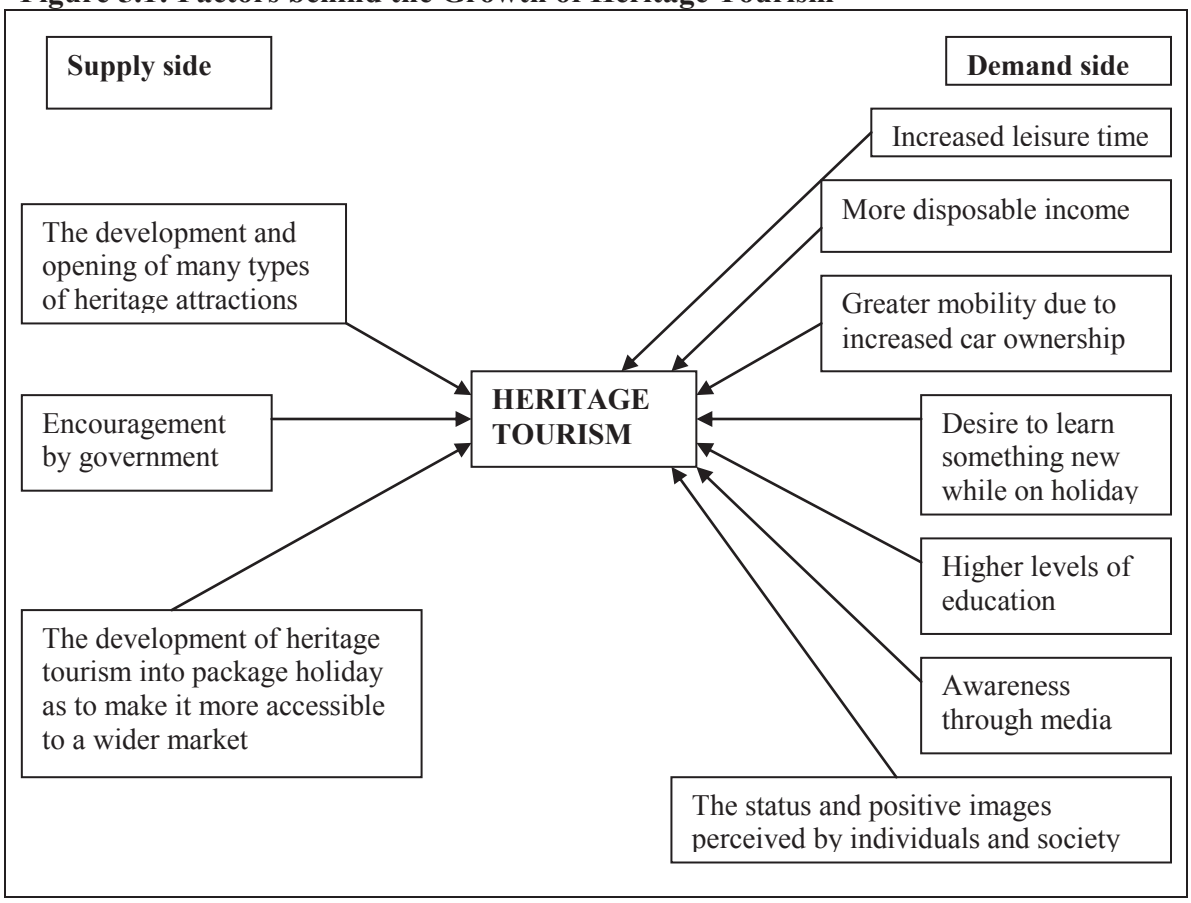
5.6 Cultural Heritage Tourism

The actual definition of CH tourism is a subject of debate. However, literature suggests that the development of CH tourism has been significantly influenced by certain factors, including (Poria, 2003; Alzua *et al*., 1998; Swarbrooke, 1995; Ashworth *et al*., 1994):

- The recognition that CH resources can play an important role in community continuity, renewal, and development;
- The role of CH resources in creating and maintaining individual and community identity;
- The role that CH resources can play in providing for recreation opportunities.

Perhaps the most comprehensive discussion regarding heritage tourism may be derived from Swarbrooke (1994:223), who confirms that the growth of heritage tourism has resulted from interest shown on both demand and supply sides. Figure 5.1 summarises the results.

Figure 5.1: Factors behind the Growth of Heritage Tourism



Sources: Swarbrooke (1994:223)

Prentice (1992), on the other hand, indicates that higher demands for CH tourism may be due to factors such as:

- An existing dissatisfaction in the market concerned with present-day products; therefore CH tourism is seen as an alternative to mass tourism;

- A rising focus on learning while travelling in order to enhance one's knowledge and appreciation of other cultures;

- A genuine interest in understanding and studying other cultures. Hence, tourists are going for active rather than passive holidays;

- A realisation on the part of governments about the demand for CH tourism, and the creation of facilities to assist its development.

In general, CH tourism encompasses a wide range of tangible and intangible elements (Swarbrooke, 1994: 222). However, tangible remains of the past, such as buildings, sites, and artefacts form the principle resources for CH tourism (Zeppel and Hall, 1991:35). Nuryanti (1996: 250) suggests that 'CH tourism offers opportunities to portray the past in the present'. Similarly, Hall and Zeppel (1991: 54) conclude that CH tourism is an:

> …experiential tourism, in the sense of seeking an encounter with nature or feeling part of the history of a place.

Poria *et al*. (2003:248) argue that CH tourism should be defined by motivation, rather than by site-specific attributes. They define heritage sites based upon the motivations of tourists, tourists' perceptions of a site, and whether or not tourists perceive it to be part of their own heritage. In line with this discussion, Poria (2001:1048) has defined CH tourism as:

> …a subgroup of tourism, in which cultural heritage resources are the core element that are used in the formulation of the tourism product offered to the market. The reason for visiting a cultural heritage attraction is based on the cultural heritage characteristics of the place, according to the tourist's perceptions of the attraction in relation to their own understanding of what cultural heritage is.

Poria's definition (2001), however, is countered by Garrod and Fyall (2001:1051), who argue that such a definition completely ignores the role of the suppliers of the heritage product, and is more inclined towards tourists' demands. They further argue that for people to be motivated to engage in CH tourism, the attraction they wish to visit must possess certain heritage traits. Thus, emphasis should also be given to the role of the suppliers who market and promote the attractions.

According to the Oxford English Dictionary (1999:367), attraction is 'the action or power of evoking interest'. Gunn (1993:58) defines attractions as 'those developed locations that are planned and managed for visitors' interest, activity and enjoyment'. However, Millar (1989:116) has demonstrated that CH attractions cannot be put into the same category as other leisure attractions. This is because while other kinds of attractions may be upgraded

or even rejuvenated once the attractions are worn out or out of date, it is not possible to do so for heritage attractions. This is due to the fact that, in many instances, CH resources are irreparable and to some extent irreplaceable. On the other hand, the heterogeneous nature of heritage attractions has led Prentice (1993) to introduce a typology of attractions. It consists of twenty-three categories. Table 5.1 illustrates the typology.

Table 5.1: Prentice's Typology of Heritage Attractions

Types of attraction	Description
1 Natural history	Include nature reserves, nature trails, aquatic life displays, rare breeds centres, wildlife parks, zoos, butterfly parks, waterfall parks, geomorphological and geological site; including caves, gorges, cliffs, waterfalls
2 Science based	Including science museums, technology centres, 'hands on' science centres, 'alternative' technology centres
3 Concern with primary product	Including agriculture attractions, farms, dairies, farming museums, vineyards, fishing, mining, quarrying, water impounding reservoirs
4 Craft workshops and centres, (hand made product and processes)	Including water and windmills, sculptors, potters, woodcarvers, and worked metals, glass makers, silk working, lace making , handloom weaving, craft 'villages
5 Relates to manufacturing industry (concerned with mass production of goods)	Attractions, including pottery and porcelain factories, breweries, cider factories, distilleries, economic history museums
6 Transport	Including transport museums, tourist and preserved railways, canals, civil shipping, civil aviation, motor vehicles
7 Socio-cultural	Prehistoric and historic sites and displays, including domestic houses, social history museums, costumes museums, furnishings museums, museum of childhood, toy museums
8 Relate to historic persons	Including sites and areas associated with writers and painters
9 Performing arts attractions	Including theatres, street-based performing arts, performing arts workshops, circuses
10 Pleasure gardens	Including ornamental garden, arboreta, model villages
11 Theme parks	Including nostalgia parks, historic adventure park, fairytale parks for children (but excluding amusement parks, where the principle attraction are exciting rides and the like)
12 Galleries	Principally art galleries
13 Festivals and pageants	Including historic fairs, festivals 'recreating' past ages, countryside festivals of 'rural' activities
14 Field sports (traditional)	Including fishing, hunting, shooting, stalking
15 Stately and ancestral home	Including palaces, country houses, manor houses
16 Religious	Including cathedrals, churches abbeys, priories, mosques, shrines, wells, springs
17 Military	Including castles, battlefields, military airfields, naval dockyards, prisoner or war camps, military museums
18 Genocide monuments	Sites associated with the extermination of the races or other mass killings of populations
19 Town and townscape	Principally historic townscape, groups of buildings in an urban area
20 Villages and hamlets	Principally 'rural' settlements, usually of pre-twentieth century architecture
21 Countryside and treasured landscapes	Including national parks, other countryside amenity designations; 'rural' landscapes which may not be officially designated but are enjoyed by visitors
22 Seaside resorts	Principally seaside towns of pasts era and marine 'landscape'
23 Regions	Including pays, land, countries, or other historic or geographical areas identified as distinctive by their residents or visitors

Prentice (1993:39)

Orbasli (2000), who studied issues related to historic towns, suggests that the appeal of visiting heritage attractions lies in the qualities offered to the tourists. In fact, Orbasli (2000: 82) suggests that the development of any future attraction based on heritage resources should follow certain criteria as described below:

- It must be sustainable and appeal to the local community;
- It should be used to enhance heritage, not to copy already successful attractions;
- It should be of significant scale in order to make an impact on people's holiday experiences;
- It must be an integral part of a wider visitor management plan;
- It must provide all the facilities expected of it.

Millar (1989) notes that the unique selling point of a heritage attraction is the individuality and uniqueness of the attraction itself. Its traits, furthermore, may become added values to the site. However, if attempts to create uniqueness are not performed carefully, they may lead to detrimental results. Attractions, consequently, may lose their authenticity. In many instances, heritage attractions have been accused of sacrificing historically accurate presentations for the sake of tourist entertainment. This is because, in the pursuit of uniqueness, attractions are also trying to become appealing, entertaining, and at the same time competitive as a result of their highly market-oriented positions. This, consequently, will have worrying implications for the ways in which heritage attractions are perceived in future years, and will adversely impact the reputation of the heritage industry. On the other hand, Butler (1999) notes the difference between regarding heritage attractions as utilities to be exploited, and seeing them as resources to be managed in a sustainable manner. In order for sites to be woven into tourism, the approach to heritage management is crucial so that people will better understand and appreciate heritage.

It is evident that the related discussions regarding CH tourism link heritage with events or places from the past that are worthy of preservation, and designed for use by the public. In short, the definitions of CH tourism generally cover three factors, which include heritage as a contemporary product created to serve the perceived needs of the present user; the production process as market and not resource driven; and intervention as necessary to all phases of the process, from resource selection to market targeting. It is important to note that along with the growth of the heritage tourism industry, issues and problems may also occur. Among them include the relationship between CH tourism and

local communities, tourists' behaviours and expectations, as well as the management of CH attractions.

5.7 Heritage as a Process and Product

Previous discussions have outlined the concept of heritage as a complex and constantly evolving entity. Furthermore, heritage has been identified as a cultural process with human beings at its center. It is a process that has always been with people, who produce it according to their contemporary concerns, needs, and expressions (Graham, *et al*., 2000). The main controversy in defining heritage, however, seems to originate in its role as an economic subject, possessing economic value, and performing economic functions (Loulanski, 2006:209). In this respect, heritage is seen as the outcome of such processes, which can be viewed as a product. The idea of heritage as a product derives particularly from literary criticism, where tourism has been identified as a major force behind processes of heritage commoditisation. In this sense, heritage owes its contentious nature to two different factors: the role of nostalgia (Bendix, 2009; Boyd, 2002; Harvey, 2001) and its utilization by the tourism industry (Winter, 2008; Brown and Hall, 2008; Timothy and Prideaux, 2004). Originally, nostalgia referred to a state of homesickness (Lowenthal, 1985), but today the word has evolved tremendously in meaning, so that Lowenthal (1985:4) has come to refer to it as the 'universal catchword for looking back.'

Nostalgia generally relates to the past, is highly associated with 'the other,' and is usually associated with a special quality or positive feeling about someone's personal experience of the past (McCannell, 1976). In other words, attention is turned to the past where life is seen as without conflict. Nostalgia represents a response to changing circumstances, a coming to terms with change, a process of searching for and confirming the past. In this sense, it may be a positive and useful emotional process, particularly in cases of collective nostalgia, as it can offer a sense of cultural identity to members of a particular generation. In addition, the tangible and intangible remains of such positive moments constituting a form of 'national heritage' may offer people a sense of place. Tourism, on the other hand, which may help identify the elements for which people feel most nostalgic, and allows them to be seen as expressions of a search for familiarity in a rapidly changing world, develops its product accordingly. Since the late 1990s, there has been an interest in promoting the past as a tourist product and understanding and reliving the past as a key tourist experience.

The latter usage of the word 'heritage', currently referred to as a 'heritage product,' points to the development and commercialization of something from the past for the purpose of present day leisure activities. Ashworth and Tunbridge (1994) note that:

> Heritage can be considered as a specific aspect of tourism supply (resource) to be marketed to an identified tourist demand. The demand, furthermore, is created by tourists' intrinsic feelings of the past, and the need for an authentic experience. The drive to satisfy their motivation(s) trigger the demand for CH displays, which transform CH resources into a product.

In line with this idea, Tunbridge and Ashworth also comment that:

> The commodification of the past, in which various heritage products intended for consumption by already specified market(s), are being purposely created or assembled through interpretation and packaging of the heritage resources (Tunbridge and Ashworth, 1994:20).

Based on these two discussions, it can be deduced that heritage as a process may be transformed through tourism into heritage as a product. Central to any considerations of heritage as a product is the notion of the 'heritage industry.' This term was first introduced by Hewison (1987) in an ironic sense. Today, the term 'heritage industry' has validity in describing something that is very real and constantly expanding. It has been argued in the literature that as a result of becoming a product of tourism (the very object of tourist interest), heritage has been transformed, taking on further meanings than the ones it originally had in society. Heritage has become a process that is constantly changing and adapting to current situations and needs. On the other hand, Hewison (1987:139) claims that heritage as an industry is only able to produce 'commodities empty of meaning.' Contrary to this allegation, opponents of Hewison claim that the heritage industry represents the leisure industry's response to the high demand for more 'authentic' and knowledge-based tourism products (Viyayah, 2011; Bortolotto, 2007; Ho and McKercher, 2004; Poria, 2001). In other words, tourists consume products not for the products themselves, but for the satisfaction derived from partaking in a 'true' and 'authentic' experience associated with heritage resources. McCannell (1976) refers to this situation as heritage production. This term refers 'not only to the process but also to the product that result from the process' (ibid:25).

In line with the above discussion of heritage as both process and product, Moscardo (2001:15) explains that heritage tourism may be defined as 'an experience which is

produced by the interaction of the visitor with the resource'. Leimgruber (2010) takes this idea further by proposing that heritage is not simply a product like any other commercial product, because people performing heritage (particularly intangible heritage) are not only the object of the heritage product; they are also the fundamental condition for heritage production. Thus, the heritage product actually becomes an interactive process. As a process, CH tourists experience heritage as something that can benefit them, that appeals to their search for authenticity. In short, when consuming heritage products, tourists are actually consuming both heritage as process - in their quest for 'the other' and in their interactions with 'others', and heritage as product – in their visits to a particular locality or attraction. Thus, it can be summarised that in the field of tourism there is an element of integration of heritage as process and heritage as product.

5.8 Sustainable Cultural Heritage Tourism

Concerns for sustainability and for the management processes that contribute to it are of critical importance for CH tourism. Literature has recognised the need for careful management of resources so that heritage tourism development does not suffer damage from visitors. Heritage management is a relatively new concept, and on many occasions, it has been used to maximise the usage of heritage sites for tourism purposes (Long, 2000; Orbasli, 2000; Shackely, 2000; Herbert, 1995; Cleere, 1989). Hall and McArthur (1995:6) define heritage management as:

> …the conscious process by which decisions concerning heritage policy and practice are made and the manner in which heritage resources are developed.

Thus, the tasks of heritage managers include the analysis, management, and development of heritage sites. However, Hall and McArthur (1995:7) criticise heritage managers for ignoring the importance of the *human dimension*, defined as including *stakeholders*, *people* (Miller, 1989:12) and the *public* (Hayes and Patton, 2001:37). Orbasli (2000:162) defines the *human dimension* as:

> …the management of visitors in a historic place in the interest of the historic fabric and the enhancement of visitor appreciation and experience.

In other words, heritage management should also concern the management of visitors, in terms of developing necessary skills, and adopting appropriate techniques in order to ensure high levels of visitor satisfaction. Nevertheless, Miller (1989:8) still holds to the concept of conservation in defining heritage management, since heritage attractions

represent ‘irreplaceable resources’ in presenting sites to visitors. Miller further explains (1989:9):

> …on the one hand the idea of heritage is central to the critical decision-making process as to how irreplaceable resources are to be used by people of the present or conserved for future generations in a fast changing world. On the other hand heritage tourism is part of the switch in emphasis from manufacturing to service industry.

In short, heritage sites, if not managed carefully, can be the focus of potential conflicts between conservation and tourism. The situation discussed is mostly due to the fact that tourism activities do not take place without a cost. Hall and McArthur (1998:3) identify increased risks of fire, graffiti, traffic congestion, atmospheric pollution, and crowding as among the major problems threatening heritage sites globally. Further research by Herbert (1995:215) also brings similar evidence of the dilemma that current heritage managers are facing, in terms of balancing ‘the commitment to conserve and the pressure to make sites more accessible to a wider public’. Nonetheless, good heritage management ensures that conservation, as well as the satisfaction of local communities and tourists, complement each other.

Issues regarding the stakeholders’ (or the public’s) needs, as well as the best ways of meeting these needs, are often discussed in the literature (Worden, 2001; Henderson, 2000; Orbasli; 2000; Lee, 1996; Prentice, 1995). Orbasli (2000:163) describes the management of the public as having to be:

> …not only a matter of traffic or pedestrian flow management, but involve imaginative solutions to enhance visitor experience, maintain a favourable reputation for the destination, and ensure a high-quality environment for residents to live and work, and visitors to enjoy.

The need to satisfy the public is important in ensuring the sustainability of heritage sites. This is because many of today’s heritage sites are situated in residential areas, either in villages or cities. In fact, in many cases, the building(s) conserved for heritage purposes are also often used as residential units or work places (Ennen, 2002:330). Consequently, the result of such a relationship may have a significant impact upon a local community. Such impacts can be seen particularly when members of a local community have to share, or in some instances compete, with tourists in the usage of public facilities. This, consequently, may change the attitudes of local communities towards tourists, and perhaps even the development of CH tourism itself.

Therefore, in order for the authorities and managers to understand the ways in which CH might contribute to the functioning of an area, both today and in the future, some insights into the meanings that CH carries for its community are badly needed (Ennen, 2000:331). This need is crucial because of the direct and indirect effects that tourists may have on local community members' daily lives. Thus, it does not matter whether or not CH resources are located in cities or remote areas. What is more important is the understanding and sensitivity of the authorities and the managers to the requirements of the communities, as well as the demands from the tourists, and consequently, to fulfil both parties' expectations as much as possible (Orbasli, 2000:163).

According to Hall and McArthur (2000:9), quality management can be explained as:

> …the underlying reason why deviations from standards occur…it is important to reduce the likelihood of recurrence of failure to reach standards (errors) due to the same basic cause. Here quality management is concerned with reducing the potential for error.

A high quality performance is essential not only in CH tourism, but in all types of tourism. Like other types of tourist attractions, tourists who are dissatisfied with the presentation of a heritage site may choose not to visit that site again; at the same time, there is also a tendency to disclose their dissatisfaction to friends or relatives. However, unlike other types of tourism attractions, CH attractions also rely on tourists for their support and assurance for conservation purposes (Carter and Bramley, 2002; Garrod and Fyall, 2000). In many countries, conservation projects on heritage sites depend a great deal on tourist visitations since funding from public and private sectors may be difficult to obtain. Early literature in heritage studies includes Hewison's (1987) acknowledgement of such a dilemma, when he criticised that the museum's traditional role as an institution of education, curatorship, and conservation had been superseded by the current trend of 'heritage as market'. Nevertheless, he concluded that such a situation was inevitable, since today's museums are lacking in funds.

It is important to note that no management can be sustainable if it is not economically viable. However, this does not mean that each heritage item must have an economic use or a monetary value. In line with this discussion, Cleere (1989), referring to archaeology heritage managers in particular, argues that they should not be too dismissive about mass tourism activities, since such activities may improve public awareness and attitudes towards the importance of CH management. At the same time, mass tourism may also contribute financially to archaeological work. According to Cleere (1989:9):

> …it is vital, that the quality of presentation at monuments should be high and that it should be directed at more than one level of visitors, otherwise it may prove to be counter productive by sending visitors away with a sense of disgruntlement and dissatisfaction.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, tourists who visit and enjoy heritage attractions are non-homogeneous. Hence, their motives and levels of expectation are said to be significantly different from one another. For example, the amount of time needed by one group of mass tourists (pleasure seekers) for visiting a heritage attraction may be shorter in comparison to the time needed by a group of school parties doing a field trip on the same site, or a visiting expert (scholar) studying the site. Mass tourists may spend less time since they would be (Cleere, 1989:9):

> …arriving by bus en route between one visit and the next, spending half an hour in a hurried and unprepared tour before buying their souvenirs and boarding their buses for their next destination.

A scholar, on the other hand, might spend several hours or even days studying a site in detail. As Swarbrooke (1995:228) argues, interpretation, access, and marketing are now considered as important as conservation and preservation. Therefore, it is safe to conclude that the right amount of information provided at sites by the management for all its visitors is crucial, and that heritage interpretation and presentation are important elements of the management process. At the same time, a proper and systematic management of information regarding CH resources, both existing and previous ones, is needed. Thus, records and archives are important in managing sustainable CH tourism.

Hall and McArthur (1998:1) provide a good example of how a site's reputation can be damaged as a result of weak management. In this example, they illustrate how unsatisfied and confused visitors loosely described a site they visited as a *bunch of ruins*, simply because the interpretation process had been performed poorly by the tour guide on duty. The *bunch of ruins*, however, happened to be one of the most significant sites in Australia's colonial history. From their discussion, it can be deduced that if the quality of management is poor, it may eventually disappoint visitors, and in return may damage the reputation even of extremely important heritage sites.

5.9 Issues of Authenticity and Local Identity

Throughout this discussion, references have been made to the authenticity of the CH tourism product. The demand for authenticity in CH attractions, according to McCannell (1973:590), arises due to the fact that 'tourist consciousness is motivated by its desire for

authentic experience'. Authenticity can be defined as a desired experience or benefit. In other words, the urge to wish to understand the past and search for something that is real rather than something that is false manifests itself in the notion of authenticity. Authenticity is considered to be an important attribute of CH tourism, as it is capable of enhancing the quality of CH attractions (Swarbrooke, 1994). In fact, it has often been regarded as the most important criterion for the development of CH tourism (Bendix, 2009; Ivanovic, 2008; Smith, 2003). On the other hand, the nature of authenticity has become one of the major debates surrounding CH heritage tourism, as this term cannot be objectively defined (Apostolakis, 2003:801). As discussed in the previous section, the quest for the 'other' has become increasingly common in CH tourism, where getting back to basics forms an important element of travel. Richards (1996) reveals that people participate in CH tourism because they are motivated by intrinsic feelings of nostalgia. In many instances, this quest for nostalgia and traditional life has pushed societies to re-create the past or situations that provide aspects of the desired setting (Ogden, 2007; Lee, 2003; Harvey, 2001). The above discussion signifies that the issue of authenticity may be analysed from both demand and resource perspectives.

In terms of demand, tourists at CH attractions may be classified through the levels of experience sought (Kolar and Zabkar, 2011; Castro, *et al*., 2007; McKercher, 2002). In other words, within a given attraction site, there are distinct groups of participants (tourists) who will display unique styles of involvement. Simlarly, McKercher and du Cross (2003) explain that the consumption of CH products is essentially an experience that relates to each individual tourist. For example, one tourist may visit an ancient castle for its architectural detail, while another may visit such a place because they want to experience the aesthetic beauty of an artwork, or because of a desire to identify with particular places or people, or for spiritual or educational enrichment, or just because it is an entertaining use of their time. If this is the case, then the significance of each individual tourist's interpretation is what actually creates the product. In this sense, the level of authenticity is determined by the tourists' past experiences at a given attraction, as well as by the level of their involvement with and knowledge about the attraction itself (Kerstetter, *et al*., 2001: 268).

In terms of resources, the 'authenticity' of CH attractions is sometimes easy to identify. For example, traditional landscapes, buildings, or traditional events that have existed continuously for many years may all be considered 'authentic'. In many instances, however, the distinctions between 'authentic' and 'inauthentic' can be difficult to judge.

Examples include traditional events that have been forgotten but then revived again later by enthusiasts (Turgeon and Divers, 20010; Swarbrooke, 1999a); undesirable places such as post-war zones (Leimgruber, 2010; Munjeri, 2004; Smith, 2003; Tunbridge and Ashworth, 1996); and buildings that have been restored and are no longer used for their original purposes (Ligieza, 2011; Arthur and Mensah, 2006; Xie and Wall, 2002; Lee, 1996). In fact, some CH attractions are presented to tourists without any pretence of authenticity. Several authors identify CH theme parks as one example of this approach (Vecco, 2011; Lennon and Graham, 2009; Hoffstaedter, 2008; Orbasli, 2000; Prentice, 1993; Millar, 1989). From these discussions, it can be summarised that the authenticity of CH attractions may vary in terms of how they are presented to tourists, and in how judgements or values of the settings are established by the observers and/or tourists (MacCannell, 1973:593).

Despite the difficulties in defining authenticity, authors such as Boniface and Fowler (1996) propose that authentic CH products maintain high reputations as CH, which leads to long-term demands and non-price competition. Chhabra, *et al*. (2003) develop this idea further, arguing that the practice of authenticity in CH attractions is not only a means to distinguish one destination from another, but it may also function as a rediscovery of identity. In other words, it may revitalise a community's collective memory of its own cultural heritage. Bedjouve (2004) demonstrates that the promotion of local gastronomy as a CH attraction has revived local traditional cuisines in many parts of the world. Lees (2011) also indicates that in Bhutan, a distinct cultural identity has evolved as a result of maintaining authentic ways of practicing hand-weaving and other handicraft activities.

Although the above discussion may be valid, it has been counteracted by several authors' arguments about commoditisation. They suggest that when CH becomes commoditised it loses its meanings for the local population, and becomes inauthentic. Teo and Yeoh (1997) caution that authenticity will become increasingly questionable as more and more tourists are drawn to CH attractions. Similarly, CH attractions have been accused of sacrificing accurate presentations by providing information that is geared towards tourists' expectations, rather than what is necessarily the 'real' CH. In other words, the authenticity of events and attractions becomes staged and distorted to suit the needs of both the guests and the hosts (Chhabra, 2003:703). Tourists are only given a small glimpse of the various elements of a CH attraction in its presentation. In many instances, tourists lack the time and experience (or depth) to understand more complex aspects of a CH product, which seems to contribute to the reasons why such dilemmas occur

(Caundivaux, 2009; Chhabra, *et al*., 2003). Consequently, tourists might experience a less authentic or inauthentic attraction, but are ready to accept it as long as it satisfies their desires. In this sense, authenticity can be considered a negotiable concept. Nonetheless, the use of CH resources in the tourism industry, as well as the conflicts inherent in the concept of authenticity itself, do not simply lead to the loss of tradition, but can also serve as a source of inspiration and revitalization. Most importantly, the consumption of CH heritage resources by tourists can become part of a process in which traditions are kept alive.

5.10 Cultural Heritage Tourism and Local Community

The term 'community' can cover a wide range of meanings, bringing together a number of elements such as solidarity, commitment, and mutuality. Webster's New World Dictionary (1987:126) defines 'community' as all of the people living in a particular area or place. Other sources, however, describe community in ways that are non-specific to place. In this sense, 'community' can refer to people who share characteristics other than a common place or territory. These individuals may form a community based upon factors such as religion, beliefs, interests, and desires. In terms of space, Bell and Newby (1971) define community as a group of people often living in the same geographical area, who identify themselves as belonging to the same group. Cohen (1985) defines community as a territorial unit where social interaction emerges through common ties amongst its members. Similar to Cohen, Burns (1999) explains that a community is a collection of individuals who are strengthened by common values and a shared feeling of belongingness or fellowship. Ivanovic (2008) stresses that a community consists of a particular group of people or part of a society who are alike in some way. Its practical function is to bind people together for certain aims involving matters of custom, ideas, or thoughts (Ivanovic, 2008). From the above definitions, there appears to be a consensus that area, common ties, and social interactions form the basic elements of a community.

In terms of tourist destinations, community is seen as an important concept, and it plays a significant role in the industry. Communities in tourist destinations can offer the ideal person to talk to or ask (Timothy and Boyd, 2003; Scheyvens, 2002; de Kadt, 1979; Krippendorf, 1987); they can provide key information about local products or services (Arthur and Mensah, 2006; Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Aas, *et al*., 2005), as well as about tourist attractions (Jamal and Hill, 2004; Chhabra, et al., 2003; Moscardo, 1996). Tosun (1998: 600) defines a tourism destination community as:

> …a group of people who lives in a geographical local area in a country, whose lives are affected, directly and indirectly, by tourists and the tourism industry and who have to live with social, cultural, economic and environmental outcomes of tourism development.

Tourism has been claimed to benefit local communities, and to be socially and culturally sustainable. This is because tourism is seen as a factor that increases people's awareness of other cultures, practices, behaviours, values, and heritage. According to Mathieson and Wall (1982), whenever tourism becomes an important component of a local economy, there is an increase in interest in native arts and crafts. Consequently, such situations have sometimes made local communities more aware of their own historical and cultural continuity, which subsequently may enrich their culture and instil a desire to protect and restore their cultural landmarks. To some extent, growing interests in CH have reinforced a national sense of cultural identity and rediscovery. As pointed out by Weaver and Lawton (2002: 275):

> Ceremonies and traditions that might otherwise die out due to modernisation may be preserved or revitalised because of tourist demand.

On the other hand, economic benefits from tourism itself may be a core motivation for a local community to support such development. Literature has revealed that the interest shown by tourists in CH tourism is somehow able to change the beliefs and identities of host populations (Carter and Beeton, 2004; Ho and McKercher, 2004; Carter, 1996). This is because when CH is produced and promoted, very often for economic gain, CH is seen only as a product to be sold to the mass market. Changes and modifications are made to the resource as to make it presentable and attractive to the market. Consequently, CH loses its meanings and values for the local community.

Nonetheless, it is important to realise that local communities are an important part of the development of CH tourism. Understanding and assessing their perceptions towards tourism development is important in order to maintain sustainability and the long-term success of the industry (Sirakaya *et al*., 2002; Tosun, 2002; William and Lawson, 2001). The need to understand them is even more crucial when we realise the multiple roles they perform in the industry. They are hosts to the visitors, caretakers of the CH resources, and at the same time, part of the attraction. Thus, they should be treated with respect, and their concerns and ideas must be addressed (Timothy and Boyd, 2003:181). Literature has suggested that the way to address these issues is through participation. Local community participation may be seen in two ways: participation in planning and decision-making, and participation in the benefits of tourism (Tosun and Timothy, 2003; Tosun, 1998).

Before the 1980s, in the context of tourism development, local communities were frequently seen as fixed entities (Shaw and William, 1994; Sharpley, 1994). In many cases, particularly in developing countries, tourism development took place over the heads of the local population. Even though local communities were part of the destination resources, they were excluded from planning activities. This was due to the fact that decisions on planning and development, particularly in developing countries, were usually made at the federal level, with little attempts to include the host communities (Kayat *et al.*, 2004; Hamimi, 1996). As Din (1997:160) has noted in relation to tourism planning in Malaysia, '…the sentiment of the host community was always presumed to be positive'.

The end of 1980s saw some changes in tourism development in terms of the importance of community participation. Literature on tourism began to recognise the critical roles of host communities in the tourism development process. In line with the discussion above, several studies (Kayat, 2004; Dong-Wan and William, 2002; Font, 1999; Bourke and Luloff, 1996) have suggested that communities should understand and plan for both costs and benefits when they involve themselves in tourism development. This is because, in some cases, high expectations about development may frustrate the host communities if the desired benefits are not forthcoming. In this sense, a community is expected to become part of the tourism product, and to share its benefits as well as its costs. Because of the multiple roles involved in tourism development, there is a need to consider community participation as an approach to enhance local residents' involvement in securing their own well-being. In fact, for a good guest-host relationship to occur, a participatory approach to tourism planning is of the utmost importance.

Many studies addressed this issue in terms of the participation levels of local communities (Tosun and Timothy, 2003; Mason and Cheyne, 2000; Krippendorf, 1991). The concept of community participation or a participatory approach is about creating opportunities for members to be involved in decision-making and planning. It is a process where individuals take part in decisions affecting their lives (Aref, 2009; Landorf, 2007; Sirakaya, *et al*., 2002; Tosun, 1998). It also leads to a greater sense of empowerment in addressing problems, and an increased feeling of ownership over activities (Razzaq, *et al*., 2011, Okazaki, 2008; Tosun and Timothy, 2003). In line with this, Pizam *et al*. (1994:10) relates community participation as a function of their economic dependency on tourism. According to Pizam *et al*. (1994:10) a positive correlation has been found between local community participation and their economic involvement in tourism.

Cole (2006:635) states that community participation is an educational and empowering process in which people, in partnership with those who are able to assist them, identify their problems and needs. At the same time, they will increasingly assume responsibility in planning, managing, and controlling this development. This process, furthermore, indicates active community involvement, rather than a passive acceptance of information. In line with Cole, Landorf (2009:55) argues that community participation is a tool aiming to achieve the ultimate community goal of development. Development should benefit local residents, not just the outsiders (Pongponrat and Pongquan, 2007). In addition, these benefits are supposed to lead local residents to accept tourism development in a better manner and to actively support the protection of local resources (Choi and Murray, 2011). In this sense, a participatory approach may be considered to be the cornerstone of the sustainable development processes.

Many researchers, however, have doubts about the possibility of fully implementing community participation. Chhabra (2009), for example, claims that cases of community involvement in planning processes are rare. When they do occur, input is restricted to consultation rather than active participation, in relation to strategies developed by formal external planning bodies or authorities. In fact, participatory and community contributions to the development of sustainable tourism depends upon the ability of the communities to eradicate certain barriers (Razzaq, *et al*., 2011; Okazaki, 2008; Pongponrat and Pongquan, 2007). Such barriers include:

1. A lack of awareness or interest in CH tourism on the part of local residents.

   If a local community is seen as unable to organise a participatory tourism development strategy, as de Kadt (1979) has argued, community interests should be formulated and defended by representatives who have knowledge about local facts. However, there is a tendency for such representatives to manipulate the situation.

2. A lack of trained human resources to ensure maximum local economic benefits from CH tourism.

   The formulation and implementation of any kind of tourism development may require a certain level of expertise. This can be achieved through training. Without a trained local work force, the industry may have to rely on foreign labour. Thus, the goal of ensuring local benefits from tourism will not be met.

3. Cultural barriers between hosts and guests.

Tourist satisfaction is greatly affected by the quality of hospitality within a community, which is influenced by its members' willingness to support tourism. Therefore, locals need to understand why tourists wish to visit their place. The potential costs (increase in the prices of daily goods and increase in the number of people in the locality) and benefits of tourism development (the contribution of CH tourism to the local and national economy) should be conveyed to local residents in a comprehensive manner.

4. Barriers between local communities and authorities.
   Genuine community participation requires new attitudes and behaviours among agencies that deal with communities. It also introduces new patterns of distributing power and controlling resources involving a shift of power from those who have held major decision-making roles to those traditionally have not. Jenkins (1980:26) has warned that politicians and their appointees may be unwilling to accept the new approach, as they do not always view communities as equal partners.

In conclusion, it may be argued that a participatory approach towards tourism development could increase opportunities for local communities to take matters into their own hands, and to participate in their own development through managing their own resources, defining their own needs, and making their own decisions about how to achieve this development. However, increasing local participation in development may be determined by several factors. Such factors include the ability of communities to recognise and use opportunities, the structure of the industry itself, and finally the willingness of authorities to promote participatory tourism development strategies. In many instances, these barriers are difficult to overcome when the dominant socio-economic and political conditions are not appropriate. Despite these difficulties, community members and community participation remain important elements of a sustainable tourism development model.

5.11 Cultural Heritage Tourists

While the supply of heritage resources for tourism will probably continue to increase, and the associations between tourism and economic generation will likely remain popular, studying and predicting the demand for heritage attractions is more challenging. Considering heritage as a tourism product, one may say that a site will become known as a heritage site only when audiences desire it to be so. This phenomenon is likely connected with Urry's *Tourist Gaze* (1990), where tourists are described as being selective about what they would like to see, enjoy, and appreciate. Given the limited time that tourists generally have when visiting attractions, they tend to choose sites or heritage products to their liking. As Herbert states (1995:8):

> …relatively few people visit historical sites with unmodified ruins. Such places are only visited by those who had knowledge and understand the significance of the related past and sites. However, as heritage places have become part of the range of visitor attractions, much has changed.

The above discussion is supported by Timothy and Boyd (2000), who claim that people may be motivated to visit CH tourist sites for many reasons, including intrinsic feelings of nostalgia, social status, and their search for an authentic experience. Sustainable tourism development is also concerned with the sustainability of the tourism market (demand). However, market satisfaction also depends highly on the availability and quality of the destination resources (Burns and Holden, 1995:217). By providing high quality destination resources, authorities should be able to maintain high levels of tourist satisfaction and, at the same time, ensure that the tourists have meaningful experiences by raising their awareness about sustainability issues and promoting sustainable tourism practices amongst them (UNWTO, 2004). In other words, demand declines as the quality of the attractions degrades. Despite this notion, sustaining the tourism market has become a priority in many countries, since such a process would sustain profits. Nonetheless, it is safe to conclude that the need to understand the characteristics of people who visit and are interested in visiting CH-based attractions is essential in order to tap their full potential.

Literature often cites that tourists to heritage attractions tend to be drawn from a specific segment of the population. At the same time, earlier studies of CH tourism in the West (Richards, 2002; Cleere, 1989) have shown that CH tourists are non-homogenous. They have different preferences for CH products. The literature, furthermore, touches on various factors that influence these differences. In his study of tourists visiting Hong Kong, McKercher (2002) classifies tourists into possessing two factors; levels of motivation to travel to CH sites and attractions, and levels of experience sought.

Kerstetter *et al*. (2001) and Confer and Kerstetter (20002) point out that the majority of CH tourists claim an interest in culture and ethnicity as the major factors motivating them to visit CH attractions. In addition, Chen (1998) argues that motives to visit are strongly influenced by the pursuit of knowledge. Subsequently, this becomes the key factor that differentiates CH tourists from other types of tourists.

Prentice (1993:80) suggests that the pursuit of knowledge as a factor influencing visitors' motivations is based on visitors' educational levels. He explains that there is a positive correlation between knowledge and education level. The higher one's level of education, the more knowledge he or she will have. Several authors support his claim. A study by Confer and Kerstetter (2000) on the demographic background of tourists found that individuals who had a particular interest in visiting heritage sites tended to be better educated. In line with the previous authors, Kerstetter *et al*. (2001) state that many such tourists have college degrees, with higher average annual incomes. In addition, they often travel in large groups and are most likely to take group tours. Literature also identifies that on average, heritage tourists spend significantly more money than mass tourists (du Cross, 2002:136). Therefore, to generalise that CH tourists are homogeneous is unjustified (Prentice, 1993:16). Careful interpretations should be taken into consideration on this matter, due to the fact that different kinds of CH attractions may suit and attract different kinds of tourists after all.

5.12 The Development of Cultural Heritage Tourism in Malaysia

CH tourism has emerged as a potential form of alternative tourism for both foreign and domestic tourists in Malaysia. As mentioned, in each Malaysia Plan, the related ministry has identified potential tourism products to be developed and promoted, and CH tourism has been identified in the last two Malaysia Plans (8MP and 9MP). The identification of potential tourism products has mainly attempted to increase the number of available attractions, and in so doing, to ensure the continuity in tourism development through increasing tourist flows to the country (Tourism Malaysia, 2002).

Prior to 2004, the management of heritage in Malaysia had been under the Ministry of Culture, Arts, and Tourism (MOCAT). Agencies under the ministry that relates to the management of heritage in Malaysia include the National Archives, the National Art and Gallery, the Department of Museum and Antiquities, and Malaysian Handicrafts. However, as mentioned in Chapter 3, as a result of the 2004 General Election, the cabinet was reformed and several ministries were rearranged. MOCAT was later divided into two

ministries: the Ministry of Tourism (MOT), and the Ministry of Culture, Arts, and Heritage (MOCAH). The separation and establishment of MOT is an acknowledgement of tourism as a major contributor to the country's economy. At the same time, the establishment of MOCAH signifies the government's recognition and appreciation of the value of national heritage (Badarudin *et al.*, 2005). In 2005, the National Heritage Act was introduced. Prior to this Act, the laws regarding the protection of heritage were scattered and there was no specific statute dealing with conservation and preservation of heritage (see Appendix A). This act was introduced to allow for and assist in the conservation and preservation of heritage resources, including natural, tangible, and intangible heritage, underwater CH, treasure troves, and other related matters (MOCAH, 2005). The Act also defines CH as:

> …a tangible or intangible form of cultural property, structure or artefact, which may include a heritage matter, object, artefact, item, formation structure, dance, song, music that is pertinent to the historical or contemporary way of life of Malaysians, on or in land or underwater cultural heritage of tangible form excluding natural heritage.

Today, CH has become a significant factor in the development of national tourism. In fact, cultural-based attractions were amongst the earliest products to be promoted by the related authorities, but over time other kinds of attractions were given priority according to market preferences. The unique characteristics of a community based on multi-ethnic societies have led to an attractive collection of CH resources. These CH items and expressions include traditional arts and crafts, cuisines, community fairs and bazaars, cottage industries, buildings and monuments, traditional games, and religious and social ceremonies. Some of these resources include:

1. Traditional games and pastimes

Photo 5.1: *Wau* (a large, flying kite)

This is a traditional game popular on the eastern coast of the Peninsula, traditionally flown during harvesting season. The kite measures about 3.5 metres from head to tail, and is painted with vibrant colours and patterns based on local flora.

Photo 5.2: Shadow Puppet Performances

This is a popular form of traditional theatre developed through oral traditions. The stories are not based upon written history or theories but derived from myths and legends.

2. **Local festivals and religious events:**

Malaysia, with its ethnic diversity, is full of local and religious festivals that are celebrated throughout the year. Among the more important and famous festivities are:

Photo 5.3: *Thaipusam*

This is a festival observed by the Hindus, which is dedicated to the Hindu god Murugan. It is a celebration of the victory of good over evil, where ablutions are performed and trances and body piercing occur.

Photo 5.4: *Chingay*

In Mandarin, this means 'the art of masquerade.' It takes the form of a procession performed by the Chinese community, traditionally a neighbourhood parade stemming back to the 1960s. It involves the art of skilfully balancing a giant bamboo flag-pole. The pole ranges from 25 to 30 feet in length.

3. Handicrafts and cottage industries

The following are examples of some of the arts and handicrafts that are abundantly available throughout the country, and continue to survive as small cottage industries.

Photo 5.5: *Batik*

This is a traditional method of colourful fabric dying. Technically *batik* is the process of applying dyes onto a fabric that has had some areas covered in wax to keep dyes from penetrating the entire fabric.

Photo 5.6: *Songket*

This is a traditional Malay fabric woven with golden or silver-coloured threads. It is typically worn during festivities and weddings. At present, the weaving of *songket* continues as a small cottage industry in the eastern part of the Peninsula.

However, in many instances, based on personal observation, the promotion of CH tourism by the MOT has tended to focus largely on the traditional lifestyles of the country's social and architectural landscapes. The country's pluralistic society as a result of the colonial occupation (see chapter 2, p. 25) has become the core component in the *Malaysia, Truly Asia* slogan for the MOT's tourism promotional campaign. This campaign portrays Malaysia as a unique country with a population consisting of diverse ethnic groups. The highly promoted CH items and expressions of its society include lifestyles, community fairs and bazaars, traditional games and religious ceremonies, arts, music, dances,

costumes, and food. Malaysia's colonial past is also evident in the promotion of its historical buildings, with particular attention paid to their physical characteristics and architectural styles. In fact, in some cases, the promotion of colonial built heritage in Malaysia has been over-emphasised (Cartier, 1998; Cartier, 1996).

However, despite the emphasis given to the promotion of CH tourism, Ghaffar (2001) claims that the MOT has no clear definition concerning heritage attractions. In addition, neither the MOT nor MOCAH has come up with a complete and extensive official listing of CH sites available for public to refer to. Badaruddin (2004) echoes his concern, stating that there has been no specific attempt to study the value of CH attractions from the tourists' perspectives. In fact, tourism authorities simply assume that cultural elements of a plural society are attractive (Badaruddin, 2004:8).

5.13 Conclusions

In this chapter, heritage has been discussed and debated as a concept, an activity, and an industry. A distinction between heritage and history has been made in order to contribute to the understanding of heritage tourism as a social phenomenon. An understanding of the main debates concerning heritage is imperative in order to gain a thorough grasp of the development of the heritage industry, particularly in terms of the complex relationship existing between heritage and tourism. In this context, the development of CH tourism has been accompanied by the concept of sustainable heritage management. The first part of this chapter concludes that even though difficulties in the relationship may be reduced through the concept of sustainable tourism, efficiency in managing CH attractions is the key ingredient in achieving sustainability. It also conclude that it is expected that the community to be part of the tourism product, and to share the benefits as well as the costs. Because of their multiple roles in the development, there is a need to consider community participation as an approach to enhance local resident's involvement in securing their well being. In fact for a good guest-host relationship to occur, a participatory approach to tourism planning is of the utmost importance. Thus the needs to understand their perceptions on this matter are essential.

The second part of this chapter sets the scene for Malaysia as a CH tourism destination. It identifies the authorities responsible for the development of heritage and heritage tourism, and at the same time explores the development of CH tourism in Malaysia. It is apparent that there has been a considerable increase in the demand for CH tourism. However, although the promotion of CH resources as tourism attractions is gaining momentum, it

remains limited to a few resources. In short, it may be argued that in order for CH tourism to continue to grow, such growth must be firmly grounded within the principles of sustainability. In addition, for a CH attraction to be successful, all forces must work together. In so doing, all stakeholders (as mentioned in Chapter 1, p.8) should be encouraged to participate in development. Nevertheless, it should be cautioned that participation is not a simple or straightforward task (Timothy and Boyd, 2003:182). The methodological aspect of this study will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

Chapter 6. Methodology

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the research process. The chapter begins with a discussion of the types of research undertaken, the types of information required, and possible sources of data. It then discusses the types of methodologies used to gather the information required. It highlights the major differences between qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection. The chapter then moves on to discuss data collection techniques and sampling techniques used in this study. Finally, this chapter describes the locations of the fieldwork.

6.2 Research Framework

A conceptual framework is the plan of how a researcher wishes to undertake a study based on that study's particular objectives (Sekaran, 2000; Sapsford, 1999; Babbie, 1998; Punch, 1998). As stated in chapter 1, the research question for this thesis is whether cultural heritage tourism in Malaysia is sustainable in its current form and the aims and objectives of this study include:

Aim 1: To study the development of cultural heritage tourism in general.
Objectives:

a) To define heritage
b) To define cultural heritage
c) To define cultural heritage tourism
d) To understand the concept of sustainable tourism development
e) To understand the development of special interest tourism within the context of CH tourism

Aim 2: To understand the perceptions of the Malaysian authorities surrounding the use of cultural heritage resources as a tourism product.

Objectives:

a) To assess the development of tourism in Malaysia
b) To identify authorities responsible for tourism activities in Malaysia
c) To explore the range of CH attractions promoted in Malaysia
d) To understand the process of selecting CH resources for tourism purposes
e) To understand how a sustainable tourism development approach may be incorporated into the development of CH tourism in Malaysia

Aim 3: To examine the impact of cultural heritage tourism development on the community.
Objectives:

a) To understand how local communities perceive their CH
b) To analyse communities' socio-cultural responses to the development of CH tourism
c) To investigate local communities' involvements in the development of CH tourism in Malaysia
d) To investigate how CH tourism development might benefit local communities
e) To explore any potential negative implications of the development of CH tourism upon local communities

Aim 4: To examine the demand for cultural heritage tourism in Malaysia.
Objectives:

a) To study the demographic characteristics of foreign and domestic tourists who visit CH attractions in Malaysia
b) To understand the travel motivations of foreign and domestic tourists who visit CH attractions in Malaysia
c) To examine if the factors identified in (b) differ between foreign ASEAN, other foreign, and domestic tourists
d) To study the travel behaviour of tourists who visit CH attractions in Malaysia
e) To examine if the factors identified in (d) differ between foreign ASEAN, other foreign, and domestic tourists
f) To understand tourists' preferences of Malaysia's CH attractions
g) To identify whether potential niche market exists in CH tourism in Malaysia

Aim 5: To examine aspects that should be included in a Cultural Heritage Tourism Framework.
Objectives:

a) To review acts and legal statutes that are directly and indirectly concerned with CH
b) To recommend strategies that could improve the effectiveness of CH tourism development

According to Jennings (2001:17), there are three general approaches to research based on information requirements, as discussed below:

Exploratory research

This is conducted to clarify and define the nature of a problem. It is conducted when very little or no data exist about the phenomenon being investigated.

Descriptive research

This is designed in order to be able to describe the characteristics of the population under study. Descriptive research primarily covers 'who' and 'how' elements, and exploratory research covers the 'what' element (Neuman, 2000:21).

Causal research

This involves the use of variables and the construction of hypotheses to support or reject causal relationships between two or more variables.

Once an approach has been determined, an appropriate methodology must be selected, and suitable tools for data collection must be chosen. Prior to this, however, the researcher must also determine the type of data sources to be used in the research. Generally, a researcher is able to access two types of data sources: secondary and primary ones. Secondary data sources include existing public and personal data, or data that have been produced by someone else for primary usage, and then used by another researcher in ways unconnected with the first research (ibid, 2001:64). Examples include statistical reports, government documents, diaries and letters, and research data gathered by other researchers. Primary data sources, on the other hand, are data that are collected first-hand by the researcher for use in his or her research project (Jennings, 2001:63). Primary data include responses to questionnaires, interview texts, and observations. In addition, there are two distinct methods used for data gathering in any research project – quantitative and qualitative (Aldridge and Levine, 2001; Jennings, 2001; Sekaran, 2000; Sapsford, 1999; Punch, 1998). In this study, the data necessary for answering all of the research objectives required a combination of primary and secondary data. Table 6.1 summarises the data sources and methods used in accordance with the objectives of this study. As chapter 1 has concluded, CH tourism development in Malaysia could be better understood by studying it from a macro perspective. In doing so, this thesis focuses on entities that are directly involved in CH tourism development: namely authorities, communities, and tourists. Due to the scale of this topic and the time constraints involved, only the study of national authorities uses a qualitative approach, whilst the studies on communities and tourists employ quantitative methodologies. Detailed explanations of the qualitative and quantitative approaches used in the thesis are discussed in the following sections (6.3 and 6.4).

Table 6.1: Methodology Used for Each Objective

Aim	Method
Aim 1 **Objectives** A, B, C, D and E	To study the development of cultural heritage tourism in general • Secondary data through literature reviews
Aim 2 **Objectives** A, B and C D and E	To understand the perceptions of the Malaysian authorities surrounding the use of cultural heritage resources as tourism products • Secondary data through literature reviews • Primary data through qualitative methods using semi-structured in-depth interviews
Aim 3 **Objectives** A, B, C, D and E	To examine the impact of cultural heritage tourism development on the community • Primary data through quantitative methods using interview surveys
Aim 4 **Objectives** A, B, C, D, E, F and G	To examine the demand for cultural heritage tourism in Malaysia • Primary data through quantitative methods using interview surveys
Aim 5 **Objectives** A B	To examine aspects that should be included in a Cultural Heritage Tourism Framework • Secondary data from government documents and publications • Primary data through qualitative methods using semi-structured in-depth interviews • Analyses of and conclusions from primary and secondary data sources

6.3 Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is employed in a wide range of social research designs. According to Baker (1999), qualitative research aims to provide insights into people's perceptions, motivations, and attitudes. Furthermore, qualitative research is considered to involve methods that enable researchers to probe what underlies the subjects' reactions. Qualitative research may be divided into two procedures (Baker, 1999):

- *Direct qualitative research*, which can be done through focus groups or in-depth interviews, in which the purpose of the project is disclosed to the respondents, unless its purpose is obvious given the nature of the interviews.
- *Indirect qualitative research*, which involves other qualitative research methods. These include projective techniques, such as Expressive techniques, Sentence Completion techniques, and Word Association techniques, in which the main purpose of the project is not revealed to the respondent.

In this study, *direct qualitative research* methods using semi-structured, in-depth interviews were applied. The term "in-depth interview" means a relatively unstructured, one-to-one interview that probes and elicits detailed answers (Kotler, 1997). In addition, the objective of direct qualitative research is to ensure free responses so that respondents can discuss issues or add anything they consider to be important (ibid, 1997). By utilising a semi-structured interview, a researcher is able to cover a specific topic or sub-area. At the same time, the researcher is also able to manage the sample because the questions asked are in a consistent order. In short, the researcher is able to probe issues beyond the answers to prepared and standardised questions. For this research, qualitative methods were used to elicit primary data from various departments and agencies involved in the planning and management of cultural heritage in Malaysia. In addition, given that some of the data sought was treated with confidentiality by the authorities, direct qualitative research was believed to be the best method, since such a method allowed the researcher to probe issues and elicit data that may not have arisen from questionnaires.

6.4 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research is a methodology that seeks the quantification of data, and typically practices some functions of statistical analysis, which have to do with the measurement and categorisation of findings in the form of numbers, significant tests, intervals of confidence, and mathematical proofs of correlation and relations (Cronk, 2004:16). To be certain of its reliability, Sekaran (2000:297) stresses that quantitative research normally requires a particular number of samples, and works best when using computer-based statistical tools for analysing the results. Furthermore, as a result of large sample sizes and methods of analysis, the types of questions asked in quantitative research use limited probing, and one of the advantages of this type of research is that its ability to replicate results is high. Generally, in quantitative research, there are three main techniques that are commonly employed in order to elicit information from respondents: surveys, observations, and secondary sources (Sekaran, 2000). Surveys, however, comprise the most commonly used technique (Jennings, 2001:226). Surveys are methods of data collection in which information is gathered through oral or written questioning (ibid, 2001:230). Surveys, furthermore, may be categorised into three types, each with its respective strengths and weaknesses. The three types are: *self-administered questionnaire surveys* (in terms of household, street, on-site, and mail surveys), *telephone surveys*, and *interview surveys* (Sekaran, 2000; Babbie, 1998; Fowler, 1998; Punch, 1998; Malhotra, 1996).

The *self-administered questionnaire survey* is distributed either in person or by mail, and enables respondents to complete questionnaires at their own convenience, with no or limited interviewer bias (Sekaran, 2000:234; Punch, 1998:156). However, the problem with this is that the researcher has no control over who completes the questionnaires, and whether or not anyone helps with their completion. In addition to that, self-administered questionnaire surveys are also widely questioned due to their potentially low response rates, low data reliability, and non-response errors (Babbie, 1998:203; Punch, 1998:135). The second type of survey, the *telephone survey*, is considered a much faster and more convenient method. This is due to the fact that a number of different people can be reached in a relatively short period of time, regionally, nationally, and even internationally (Sekaran, 2000:230). Furthermore, *telephone surveys* also can lessen the impact that an interviewer may have on the respondents, and consequently, respondents tend to be more relaxed during such interviews (Fowler, 1998:70).

The last method is the *interview survey*, which is considered the most reliable in terms of accuracy and completeness of information that it generates (Sekaran, 2000:230; Punch, 1998:264). It is useful in the collection of accurate and complete data, since this method is capable of detecting problems during interviews. When such problems occur, the researcher is able to clarify doubts, and ensure that the respondents properly understand all of the questions, either by repeating or rephrasing the questions. Furthermore, the researcher will also be able to detect problems through non-verbal methods of communication. Examples of these are frowning, nervous tapping, and other body language unconsciously exhibited by the respondents (Sekaran, 2000:230).

Due to their nature, however, interview surveys take time to accomplish, particularly with large-scale surveys. Therefore, it is common in interview surveys to have more than one interviewer. When more interviewers are needed, it is very important that the researcher take careful consideration during the process of recruiting, training, coordination, and control of the additional interviewers. In fact, there is one particular aspect that should be taken into consideration when having multiple interviewers. Bias, particularly in terms of approaching the interviewers and conducting the interviews, is the main concern. The contact between the interviewer and the respondent may cause biases due to personal characteristics. Therefore, each of the interviewers should approach respondents in the same manner as the others, in standardised and professional ways, in order to establish rapport with the respondents and motivate them to give honest responses. Furthermore, sensitivity to many other sources of bias, such as introductory sentences, voice inflection, and being pleasant and non-evaluative, will enable interviewers to obtain the necessary information more easily. Most of all, each of the interviewers must know and be familiar with the nature of the study, and at the same time understand what the survey is aiming to accomplish.

In short, while decisions among the three surveys are often made based on grounds related to cost, the rates of return and completeness of the questionnaires also play important roles in selecting the best instrument for a survey. Table 6.2 summarises the strengths and weaknesses of the three survey research techniques. In order to achieve its research objectives, this study employed on-site *interview survey* techniques. More specifically, it applied *structured interviews* using standard questionnaires. The decision to use such a method was mainly due to the following reasons:

- Regarding the attributes of the research objectives and the nature of the data investigated, there was a need for primary data to be gathered using direct elicitation methods.

- Data needed in this research required interviews with respondents at specific locations, *in situ*.

- A large amount of data was needed in this research from various respondents; therefore, questions were standardised, and methods needed to be operational.

- This method is considered the most reliable in terms of accuracy and completeness of information generated.

Punch (1998:256) claims that survey research is probably the best method available to the social science researcher who intends to collect original data in order to describe a given population, but is unable to do so because the population *per se* is too large to observe directly. A population is defined as the complete set of units under investigation, while a sample is a subset of a population (Fowler, 1988:43). In regard to survey research, Punch (1998:256) further explains:

> …careful probability sampling provides a group of respondents whose characteristics may be taken to reflect those of the larger population, and carefully constructed standardized questionnaires provide data in the same form from all respondents.

Table 6.2: Types of Questionnaire Survey Method

Type	Strengths	Weaknesses
1) Self-administered • Household • Street • On-site	- completed at respondents' own convenience - less interview bias	- must work-out how to collect the completed questionnaire (either by mail or person) - no control of who completes the survey - low response rate - low data reliability - non-response error
• Mail	- cheap - completed at respondents' own convenience - no interview bias	- no control of who completes the survey - low response rate/data reliability - non-response error
2) Telephone	- need not be near sample - no interview bias - respondents more relaxed, willing to discuss - cheaper and faster when compared with the other two types	- limited to people with telephones - can't reach people with unlisted numbers - answering machines - cost depends upon the length and area covered - questionnaire or measurement constraints
3) Interview • Household • Street • On-site	- high response rates - fewer incomplete questionnaires - effective on a complex set of questionnaires - able to detect and clarify problems	- costly/time consuming - additional interviewers may be necessary - additional costs - need training, coordination, and control over interviewers

Therefore, the type of quantitative research used for this study was a non-experimental, cross-sectional survey. In general, research may be categorised as having either experimental or non-experimental designs (Sekaran, 2000:172). In an experimental design, the researcher is able to exercise some control over the independent variables. However, in the non-experimental type, the researcher has no control over the chosen variables (Babbie, 1998:56). In addition, the study is conducted *in situ*, at the attraction site itself, and with minimal interference to the normal flow of activity. Meanwhile, a cross-sectional survey, also known as a one-shot survey, is normally used when data is gathered just once over the study period (Sekaran, 2000:139). Furthermore, a cross-sectional survey usually involves large numbers of respondents, who may come from one

or more groups, at a particular time period. In this study, the cross-sectional survey lasted for a period of three months.

6.5 Structure of Questionnaire Survey

This survey was intended to secure feedback from respondents of all ages. Hence, a long and complex questionnaire format might have distracted people and prolonged the interview process. Furthermore, due to the large number of respondents needed for this survey, and in order to make the interview process more manageable, the structure of the questionnaire was intended to be simple and straightforward. The questionnaire also contained clear instructions and introductory comments where appropriate. In order to answer the aims and objectives of this research, two sets of questionnaires were developed: those for local communities and those for tourists.

6.6 Survey of Local Community

This questionnaire was developed within the context of the literature review on the perceptions of local communities on tourists and tourism development, particularly by looking at various categories within the communities that were associated with the attraction sites.

6.6.1 *Background Study*

The Oxford Dictionary (1987:622) defines perception as:

> …a process by which one becomes aware of changes through the senses of sight, hearing, etc.
>
> …the knowledge acquired by perceiving

Generally, a perception is a view or awareness of a thing or an event, which is established over time, and could be established through many kinds of encounters. In the tourism industry, the most common encounter is between local communities and tourists, known as the host and guest relationship. According to Burns and Holdern (1995:117), by assuming the *hosts* as the people who entertain, and the *guests* as the people who receive the hospitality, we could expect that both parties might have different perceptions of one another. The authors further explain that the differences in such perceptions could be greater if both parties were far apart in status, relative wealth, education, and socio-cultural background. Meanwhile, understanding community perceptions can help access community support for or opposition to continued tourism development. Gursoy and Rutherford (2004) suggest that tourism developers need to consider the perceptions of

residents before they begin investing scarce resources. Understanding community perceptions of the impacts of tourism has the potential for building community capacity.

Early literature on the perceptions of local communities can be found in the book *Passport to Development* (de Kadt, 1979). De Kadt (1979:50) claims that perception may be studied by classifying the host community itself. This is due to the fact that different classifications perceive tourists and tourism development in different ways. Moreover, perceptions may be developed or even influenced by the ways in which they are known to each other. Regarding tourism destination areas, de Kadt explains that perceptions of local communities towards tourists and tourism development occur as a result of the interactions between host and tourists. Thus, de Kadt proposes that there are three stages of interaction that eventually determine the types of perceptions. The stages occur when:

- tourists purchase goods or services from the hosts;
- tourists share goods and services together with the hosts, for example, side by side on a beach;
- tourists and hosts meet face to face, exchanging information and ideas.

Even though de Kadt restricts himself to three classifications, he alerts readers that certain factors could influence the interactions in each category. He further explains that for each of the three categories, the encounters between tourists and local people should be looked at accordingly with the stage of tourism development within the particular area, and the type of tourists that visit the area (de Kadt, 1979:52). Consequently, de Kadt's work has become a framework for studies of tourist and local community relationships. Krippendorf (1987), on the other hand, formulates a more thorough classification of host communities. According to Krippendorf, perceptions that may include opinions, judgements, and expectations may come at different levels (1987:79). These levels, furthermore, are determined by the types of groups in contact with the tourists in a given community. Basically there are five major groups, as described by Krippendorf. The five groups are:

1. People who are in continuous and direct contact with tourists, and who depend upon tourism as a source of income.

2. Proprietors of tourists' businesses, except for those owned by people outside of the region.

3. People who are in direct contact with tourists but who derive only half of their income from the tourism industry. In other words, people who are benefitting from the linkage factor.

4. Locals who have no direct contact with tourists, and only see them in passing.

5. Politicians and political lobbyists.

Based on these classifications, Krippendorf claims that the people from group 1, 2, and 3 would respond positively towards tourists and the tourism industry, since they depend entirely or partially on the industry. Category 3, however, may also demonstrate some negative perceptions, depending on the level of linkage in which they are involved. Meanwhile, mixed perceptions within the same group can mostly be found in category 4. In fact, Krippendorf stresses that within this particular group, perceptions may be quite unpredictable. They may include approval, rejection, and indifference towards tourists, depending on what the hosts think of tourism in general. Finally, Krippendorf suggests that those in category 5 would very likely have positive perceptions of the industry, mainly for economic and political reasons.

As stated earlier, one of the aims of this study was to understand community members' perceptions of the development of their CH attractions. In order to answer this aim, this study applied the concept introduced by Krippendorf, but focused on communities that are in the first, second, third, and fourth groups.

6.6.2 *Questionnaire Setting*

Questions regarding community perceptions were formulated and arranged accordingly into four sections of the questionnaire set (see appendix B). Figure 6.1 illustrates the arrangements in the host community questionnaire.

Section A

Section A was designed in order to obtain respondents' socio-demographic and socio-economic information. Respondents were also asked to state their household income, either monthly or annual, using the income grid provided in this section.

Section B

In this section, respondents were asked about the meanings of heritage in general. They were also asked about their knowledge of the CH associated with their community, and

how they perceived the importance of that particular CH. Finally, they were also asked about the issues of conservation and the development of their CH as tourism attractions.

Section C

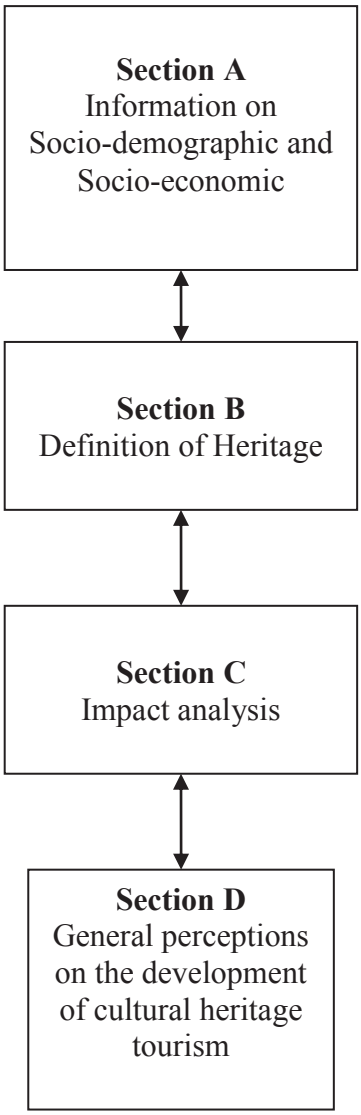
Section C was designed to understand how respondents perceived the impacts created by the development of CH tourism in their community. Emphasis was given to the number of tourists in the destination area, their activities within the destination area, and how these two issues might affect the community.

Section D

Section D required respondents to indicate the extent of their agreement/disagreement with a series of ten independent statements on a five-point Likert's scale type questionnaire. The Likert's scale is one of the most common rating scales used in questionnaire design (Mueller, 1986:17). It is designed to examine how strongly respondents agree or disagree with a given statement. In this section, questions were developed in order to understand general community perceptions of issues concerning the participation, planning, and development of CH tourism. The rating choices included:

1 = strongly agree; 2 = agree; 3 = not sure, 4 = disagree, and 5 = strongly disagree.

Figure 6.1: Questionnaire Set - Local Community



6.7 Survey of Tourists

Generally, the study of tourists was divided into two main categories: (1) their travel characteristics and (2) factors that influenced the tourists to travel.

6.7.1 *Background study - Travel Characteristics*

In terms of travel characteristics and socio-demographic variables, several differences exist between the different types of tourists. Studies by Confer and Kerstetter (2002); Kerstetter *et al.* (2001); Prentice (1993); Shomaker (1994); Locker (1992); Gladwell (1990) and Sakai (1988) among others, have confirmed these relationships. Based on the above literature, five socio-demographic characteristics and eight travel characteristics were developed for the questionnaire. The socio-demographic characteristics included:

- country of residence
- gender
- age group
- education level
- occupation

Whereas the travel characteristics included:

- type of travel
- purpose of visit
- sources of information
- number of people travelling
- length of stay at destination
- interest in CH
- number of CH attractions visited
- overall feelings

6.7.2 *Background Study - Factors that Influence Tourists' Decisions to Visit*

Tourist motivation plays a key role in influencing tourists to travel. Nevertheless, there are a number of external and internal factors motivating tourists to visit certain CH attractions. The internal and external factors, furthermore, are known as *push* and *pull* factors (Dann; 1981; Dann, 1977). Push motives are socio-psychological factors that motivate individuals to choose a particular type of travel (Chen, 1998:215). Examples are education, lifestyle and preferences, social interaction, availability of time, and money (McIntosh and Goeldner, 2001; Hall and Page, 2000; Pearce, 1989; Crompton, 1979).

Hence, it was concluded that it was necessary for this study to seek the importance tourists place on each attribute.

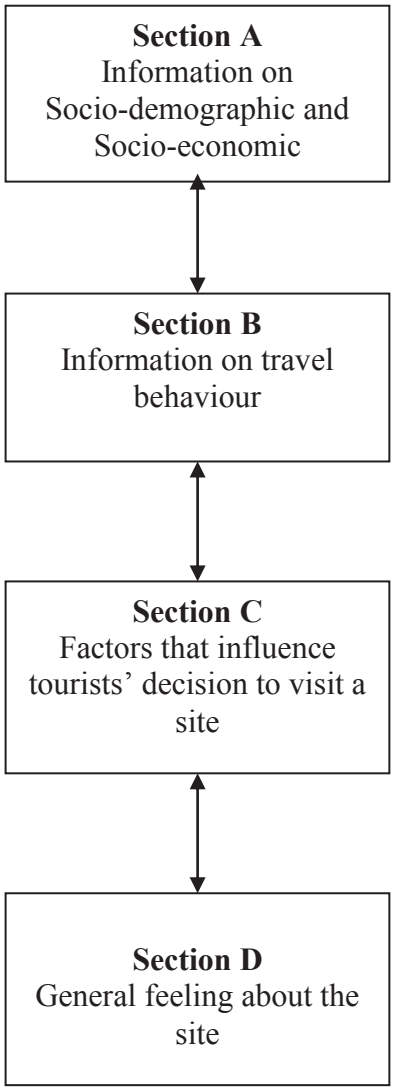
Pull motives relate to the desirable features of the attraction site (Hudson, 1999:28). Similar to Hudson, Goodrich (1978:10) in his study on destination choices, states that the individual's decision to visit a particular site is a function of attributes that the attraction may have, as well as how important those attributes are to that individual. On the other hand, in their study on the motivations for overseas travel by residents of four countries, Yuan and McDonald (1990:43) found that the level of importance that the respondents gave to the various pull factors differed among the countries. Pull motives, furthermore, can comprise the physical and cultural attributes of a site (Burns and Holden, 1995), and at the same time include factors such as aggressive on-site promotions, or attractive entrance fees (Hall and Page, 2000).

Thus, the third part of the questionnaire was developed in order to understand factors that influenced tourists' decisions to visit certain CH attractions. The factors then were tested against the socio-demographic characteristics of tourists from different regions. Finally, in the last part, tourists were asked to describe their visiting experiences. Tourists were able to choose three options from the available alternatives that best described their feelings. The tourists, furthermore, were asked about repeat visits and whether or not they would recommend the sites to other people.

6.7.3 *Questionnaire Setting*

As in the previous set, questionnaires for tourists were formulated and arranged accordingly in four sections of the questionnaire set (see appendix C). Figure 6.2 summarises the flow in the questionnaire set for tourists.

Figure 6.2: Questionnaire Set - Tourist



Section A

The first section was designed to gather general information from respondents, particularly regarding socio-demographic and economic backgrounds. Respondents were also asked to state their household incomes, either monthly or annual, using the income grid provided in this section. Furthermore, the household incomes that were provided by the foreign tourists were converted into Malaysia's currency, Ringgit Malaysia (RM), for purposes of analysis.

Section B

This section, on the other hand, was designed to secure information concerning respondents' travel behaviours. They were asked about their main purposes for travelling to Malaysia, as well as the number of people travelling with them. Furthermore, they were also asked questions regarding their travel arrangements, both in Malaysia in general and while staying at particular sites. Lastly, some specific questions about their interests in CH were also acquired.

Section C

This section asked respondents to indicate the extent of their agreement/disagreement with a series of ten independent statements on a five-point Likert's scale questionnaire. The instrument was generated in order to investigate possible factors that may have influenced respondents' decisions to visit a site in the first place. The rating choices included: 1 = not important at all; 2 = not important; 3 = somewhat important, 4 = important, and 5 = very important

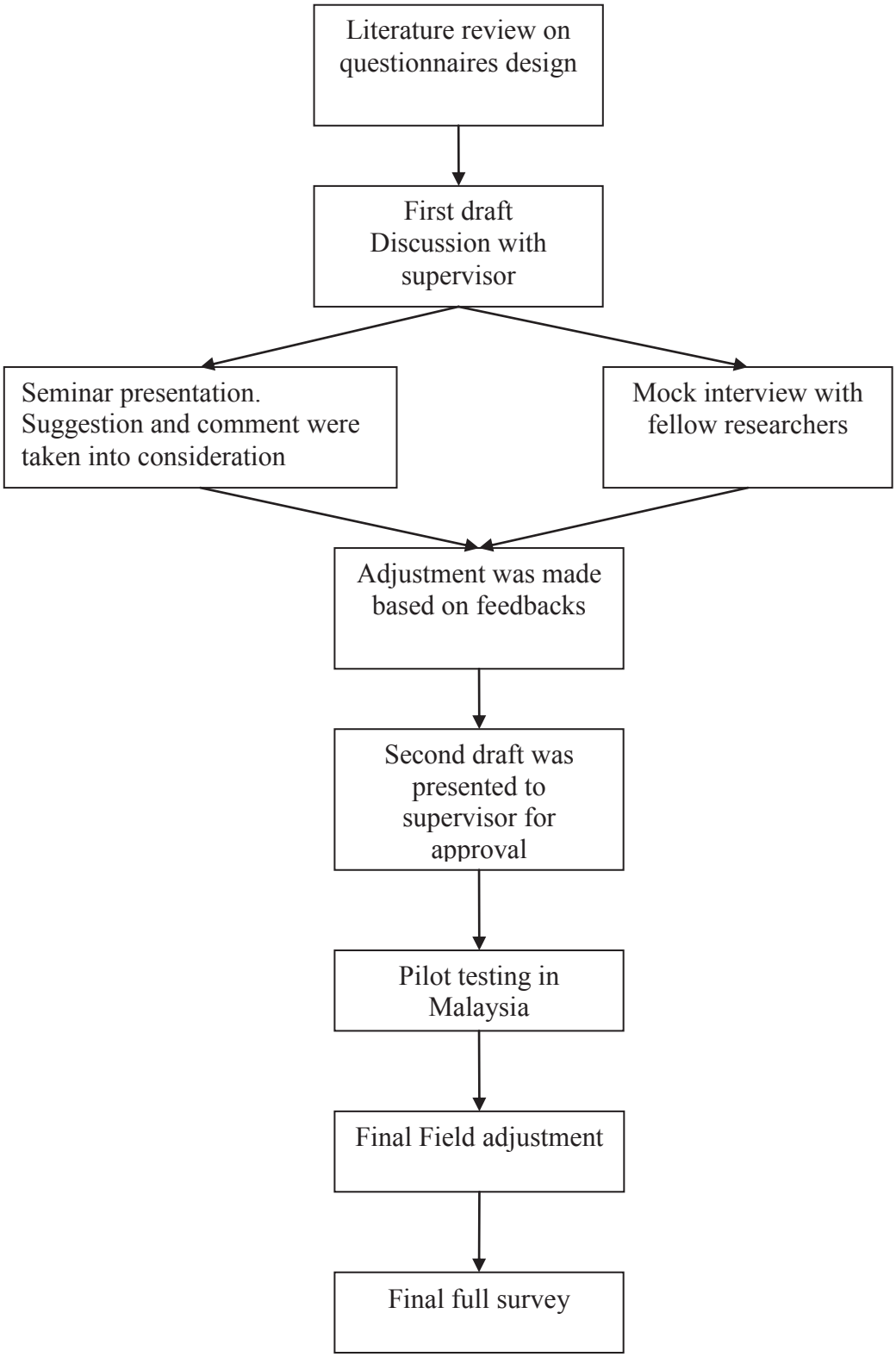
Section D

In this last section, respondents were asked to describe their feelings about the sites they visited. Due to the large sample size, a number of descriptions were given, and respondents were asked to choose the best three from the available list to describe their feelings.

6.8 Stages in the Development of Questionnaire Sets

Generally, the questionnaires were developed in several stages. The stages involved are described in figure 6.3. The first draft of the questionnaire sets were presented during a weekly Postgraduate Seminar organised by the International Centre for Cultural and Heritage Studies (ICCHS). Comments and suggestions made by fellow PhD research students and academic staff regarding the questionnaire were taken into consideration. Further discussions and mock interviews were also made with the other Social Science PhD students from various fields, in order to get as much feedback as possible. All of their comments and suggestions, including those about wording and presentation, were noted and used in developing a more constructive and well presented version of the questionnaire sets. The sets were then submitted to the supervisor for final comments and approval.

Figure 6.3: Stages in Questionnaire Design



6.9 Sampling Process

The objective of sampling is to make assumptions about a population based upon the information obtained from the sample (Sekaran, 2000:267). Fowler (1988:154) explains that there are five steps that need to be taken into consideration when developing a sampling process, including:

1. identifying the population that relates to the research problem
2. selecting a sampling frame
3. developing a sample design
4. identifying the size of the sample
5. selecting the sample

Given the nature of this research, two separate discussions have been presented for each of the forthcoming topics: the local community and tourists at the heritage attraction sites.

6.9.1 *Population*

A population is defined as the complete set of units under investigation (Sekaran, 2000: 266). Due to the limitation of time and resources, it was decided to focus on the population as follows:

- Local community - consisting of the community local to a given attraction site.
- Tourists - Visitors, including domestic and foreign tourists, who visit Peninsular Malaysia.

6.9.2 *Sampling Frame*

A sample is a subset of a population chosen for research. By studying a sample, a researcher may draw general conclusions about the population studied. A sampling frame is a set of people from the population that is selected (Fowler, 1988:156). Having a sampling frame ensures that each sample population has an equal chance of being selected for a study. Hence, reliable inferences about a population, based on information obtained from the sample, depend upon a correct sampling frame. It is also important to note that if the chosen sampling frame does not adequately represent the population, then the results of the research will be questionable. For this study, sampling frames for the two groups were as follows:

6.9.3 *Local communities*

In this study, local communities consisted of individuals aged 18 years and over, who resided or worked within a 3km-radius of any of the heritage-based attractions.

6.9.4 *Tourists*

To interview tourists at their places of accommodation, or even to interview tourists at all of the country's entry points, simply would not be feasible. While this study required information from all types of tourists from various backgrounds, at the same time it needed to focus on its main objective: to understand tourists visiting CH attractions in Malaysia. Therefore, only tourists who were at the selected CH attraction sites were interviewed. The selection of these particular sites was based on discussions with several officials (state and federal) from the Ministry of Tourism. Furthermore, all of the sites chosen were widely promoted as CH attractions by public and private sectors throughout the tourism industry in Malaysia, through brochures and advertisements.

6.9.5 *Sample Design*

A sample design is the method a researcher uses to select a sample for study; it is a subset of the population chosen for research (Sekaran, 2000:269). By studying the sample, the researcher is able to draw general conclusions about the population studied. There are two types of sampling designs: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, the elements in the population have a fixed (equal) probability of being selected as sample subjects. Probability sampling may be either unrestricted (simple random sampling), or restricted (complex probability sampling). A basic principle of probability sampling is that *a sample should be representative of the population* (Babbie, 1998:200). On the other hand, in non-probability sampling, the elements of a population have an unknown probability or predetermined chance of being selected as subjects (Punch, 1998:136).

For this study, *systematic sampling* was used as the mode of selecting the sample. This design is often used in field surveys, since it enables researchers to avoid biases in identifying the samples (Sekaran, 2000:272). This is due to the fact that systematic sampling involves drawing every *n*th person in the population for an interview session, starting with a randomly chosen element between 1 and *n*.

6.9.6 *Sample Size (Identifying and Determining Sample Size)*

In terms of sample size, many authors agree that the minimum size should be not less than 30 (Sekaran, 2000; Denscombe, 1998; Adams and Schvaneveldt, 1991). In terms of the maximum number, opinions vary. Denscombe (1991:24) implies that 250 as sufficient, while Sekaran (2000:297) suggests that samples less than 500 are acceptable. In determining the appropriate sample size, three aspects need to be taken into consideration:

1. If statistical analysis is used, then sample size should be greater than 50 (Aldrige and Levine, 2001; Fowler, 1988; Denscombe, 1998). Otherwise, the observation when exploring the relationships of two or more variables would be small. Hence, a smaller sample is more appropriate for simple analysis.

2. Emphasis should also be given to the number of subgroups within the total population for which separate estimates and analyses are required. According to Fowler (1988:42):

   > …most sample size decisions do not focus on estimates for the total population. Rather they are concentrated on the minimum sample sizes that can be tolerated for the smallest subgroups of importance.

3. All considerations concerning sample sizes should lie within the general limits of time and money (Sekaran, 2000:297).

From the above discussion, it can be argued that it is the dispersion in the characteristics in the population that need to be taken into consideration in determining the sample size, rather than trying to represent a specific population. Hence, no matter how large a population is, if its members are similar in certain characteristics, then the sample size needed for the study would be much smaller, as compared to a population with more diverse characteristics. In line with this discussion, suggestions have been made in the literature as to the appropriate number of each subgroup, varying between 20 (Sapsford, 1999:213) and 50 (David and Sutton, 2000:154). Hence, the approach used in this research was to sample more than 300 individuals for each of the questionnaire sets: (1) local communities and (2) tourists. This decision was made to meet the objectives of this study, as well as to increase the statistical power and diversity of the sample population (Denscombe, 1998; Loehlin, 1998).

6.10 Data Collection

6.10.1 *Pilot Study*

A pilot study is a *pre-test* of the survey questionnaire that is performed in order to ensure that the respondents understand the questions, particularly in terms of wording and measurement (Sekaran, 2000:248). Consequently, a pilot study provides useful information for researchers, often leading them to rephrase some of their questions and further refine their questionnaires. All of the activities in this pilot study and the final phase were completed in Malaysia. Before the pilot study had taken place, the questionnaire was translated into Malay with the help of a qualified bi-lingual expert fluent in both English and Malay. This translation process was essential for the interviewers in order to secure samples from the local community.

The pilot study was conducted for five days between 6 and 10 May 2004. For the purpose of this thesis, the pilot study was performed in order to ensure:

- that the questionnaire was understood, and that the questions were not misleading;
- that the words and terminology used in the questionnaire were consistent;
- that the length of time taken to complete a questionnaire would not exceed ten minutes.

Two sites were selected for this purpose: a Chinese temple known as the *Goddess of Mercy Temple*, and a colonial British fort, *Fort Cornwallis*.

The sample size requested in the literature for pilot testing of a questionnaire was not clear, but the expression *small* is common in the literature (Sekaran, 2000:250; Punch, 1998:185; Fowler, 1998:41). However, taking into consideration that the minimum number of sampling size recommended by Dixon *et al*. (1987:149) is 30, even for the simple kinds of analyses in probability sampling, this study used 30 samples in its pilot tests. The pilot study, furthermore, provided some additional information for this study, indicating some errors which the researcher may not previously have noticed. Consequently, several adjustments were made, including:

- Respondents were quite reluctant to reveal their income, particularly when asked this directly by the interviewer. Hence, respondents were assured of the confidentiality of the data.

- The most suitable time to survey was found to be between 10:00 and 15:00. This was the time when local people were engaged in their daily routines, and tourists would normally visit the attraction sites.

- It was discovered that the general types of occupations listed in the community questionnaire were not exhaustive. More occupations were added to the final list.

A few of the questions in the questionnaires were rephrased, in order to ensure that respondents clearly understood the questionnaire. Some suggestions and plans were also made for the actual administration of the survey.

In addition to the problems described above, another difficulty was detected during the pilot study. It was discovered that many of the locals were unsupportive and reluctant to cooperate, thinking that interviewers were approaching the locals in order to sell them goods. This problem was the result of a growing marketing strategy in Malaysia, where sellers approach people in the streets, and try to persuade them to buy their products. Consequently, this distasteful strategy has made locals annoyed with whoever approaches them, for whatever reason.

Based on the problems that occurred during the pilot study, and in order to prevent the problems from occurring in the full survey, it was determined that all of the interviewers involved in the actual full survey were to go through extensive training. First and foremost, the training would ensure that the interviewers thoroughly understood the research purposes. The training would also inform the interviewers of the objectives and importance of each section of the questionnaires, which eventually would make the interviewers familiar with the questionnaires, and able to read the questionnaire items to respondents without errors. Furthermore, extensive training would also focus on the correct ways to approach respondents – including how to identify, contact, and greet people, and record expenses. In line with this subject matter, it was decided that interviewers would be given an identification card (ID card) confirming them as interviewers. The ID card had a photo attached, stated the interviewer's name, national identification number, title of the research, and the name of the institution where the researcher was studying. Thus, when introducing themselves to the respondents, the interviewer would simultaneously show their ID card.

After a brief introduction, the interviewers would then inform the respondents, briefly but clearly, about the purposes of the research, and how their participation would contribute

to the development of CH tourism in Malaysia. At this stage, respondents would be asked if they were willing to take part in the study. The respondents would also be requested to complete the questionnaire *in situ*. Assistance in completing the questionnaire would be provided by the interviewers if and when it was needed. However, care would be taken to not guide or be too suggestive to the respondents during the process. Finally, the training also emphasised issues of confidentiality and anonymity. Interviewers were told to assure respondents that all of the information provided by them would be treated confidentially, and that it would be used strictly for research purposes only.

6.10.2 *Actual Fieldwork*

The actual data collection process took place during a three-month period, from May to July 2004. The researcher herself performed the interviews with the help of three colleagues. These extra interviewers were selected because of their academic backgrounds in tourism and fieldwork. It was believed that their experiences in both subjects would accelerate the survey process. Prior to the survey activity, the interviewers were carefully briefed and trained. The briefing and training procedures were taken seriously in order for this study to eliminate any biases that might have occurred during the process. Training was based on the issues raised after the pilot study. In short, the issues, as mentioned above, included:

- reasons for the survey
- methods in identifying samples
- manners in approaching and greeting interviewees
- manners in conducting interviews
- assurances of the respondents' anonymity

In fact, in order to give a clear picture of the kind of interview they would embark upon, all of them were present at some point during the pilot study. Altogether, there were 453 questionnaires collected in the tourist surveys, and 447 questionnaires collected in the community surveys.

6.10.3 *Survey Location*

A total of six CH attractions on the Malaysian Peninsula were chosen as survey sites. These six sites were situated in three different states. In order to ensure that the planning and development of tourism would be effectively implemented, the Ministry of Tourism categorised 'Peninsular Malaysia' into three sections: the northern zone, the southern zone, and the eastern zone. This study has selected three states that represent the three zones: Penang in the northern zone, Melaka in the southern zone, and Kelantan in the eastern zone. Each of these three states features an array of CH-based attractions. Prominent historical factors, notable architectural styles, and unique living and material cultures seem to be the core characteristics of the CH attractions in the three different zones. All of the survey sites in this study were selected because the sites represented the core CH attractions within each state as well as within each zone.

Photo 6.1: Site 1 - *A Famosa*

Almost immediately after Melaka fell to the Portuguese on 24 August 1511, a fortress was built. It is a hilltop fortress, overlooking the Straits of Melaka. The fortress was a five-storey tower, but only part of the *A Famosa* still stands today, after the rest of the tower was destroyed by the Dutch and English some centuries later.

Photo 6.2: Site 2 - Maritime Museum

The ship is a replica of a Portuguese ship *Flor De La Mar* (Flower of the Sea). It was said that the Portuguese ship, filled with looted treasure from Melaka, sank off the Coast of Sumatera (Indonesia), on its way back to Portugal. The maritime museum provides information concerning maritime activities in Melaka and the Straits of Melaka between the 14th century and the present.

Photo 6.3: Site 3 - Fort Cornwallis

The fort is located at the tip of the Cape of Penang Island, and is situated at the location where Captain Francis Light was supposed to have landed in 1786. It was named after Charles Marquis Cornwallis, a Governor General of India at the time. The fort was intended to protect Penang harbour (a strategic location for trading spices with India), from pirates and Kedah (the former owner of Penang).

Photo 6.4: Site 4 - Goddess of Mercy Temple

The temple is located along Jalan Masjid Kapitan Keling (formerly known as Pitt Street) and the road is also called the 'Street of Harmony' as it was reserved for places of worship by the colonial power. It is decorated with intricately crafted dragons and a pair of stone sculptured lions which are said to be its guardian. Today the temple and other places of worship of other religions are visited by the worshippers as well as by the tourists.

Photo 6.5: Site 5 - Melaka's Sultanate Palace

This palace is a wooden replica of the Melaka Sultanate's Palace. It was built according to descriptions in the Malay Annals. Currently it serves as the cultural museum of Melaka, and deals with life in Melaka since the 15th century.

Photo 6.6: Site 6 - Pasar Besar Siti Khadijah (an old historical market)

This is an old market with many unique attributes. It serves as a centre for selling local and traditional products, from food to clothing and handicrafts. Unlike the other old market towns, the majority of the vendors are female, which is said to be the reflection of a lifestyle during the reign of *Cik Siti Wan Kembang*, a princess who ruled the state in the early 17th century.

6.11 Conclusions

This chapter describes the overall approach to the study, presenting a discussion of the research design, questionnaire development, and sampling process. The study is exploratory in nature, mainly utilising a descriptive research design in data collection and analysis. In the tourist surveys, 453 usable questionnaires were collected. In order to meet the research objectives and to understand the characteristics of tourists in greater detail, respondents were divided into two categories: domestic and foreign tourists. In the community survey, there were 447 usable questionnaires. Communities included inhabitants residing or working within a 3km-radius from any of the heritage-based attractions chosen for this study. The following three chapters (chapter 7, 8 and 9) discuss the findings of the surveys.

Chapter 7. Community Survey - Analysis

7.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a descriptive report of community profile. The first part of the chapter looks at how community members understand their CH. Next, the chapter analyses the development of CH tourism within the community environment and how community members perceive such developments. Finally, it discusses community perceptions of the positive and negative impacts of CH tourism.

7.2 Community Profile

In total, 447 respondents were interviewed for this survey. Table 7.1 provides details of the socio-economic characteristics derived from the study, and describes the respondents in terms of (1) gender, (2) age, and (3) education level.

Table 7.1: Community - Demographic Background

Demographic Background N = 447(%)				
Gender:	Male	232 (51.9%)	Education:	
	Female	215 (48.1%)	No Formal Education	3 (0.7%)
Age:	Under 20	45 (10.1%)	Primary	39 (8.7%)
	20 to 30 yrs	174 (38.9%)	Secondary	227 (50.8%)
	31 to 40 yrs	125 (28.0%)	Diploma	93 (20.8%)
	41 to 50 yrs	63 (14.1%)	Degree	73 (16.3%)
	Over 50	40 (8.9%)	Post-graduate degree	12 (2.7%)

Respondents were 51.9% male and 48.1% female, signifying nearly equal representation. In terms of age, the majority of respondents were between 20 and 40 years old (66.9%). In terms of the education level, 0.7% of the respondents did not possess any formal education, and 8.7% had completed only a primary education. Nonetheless, the majority of respondents (50.8%) had completed up to secondary levels, and 39.8% had achieved at least diploma levels.

In terms of employment, many respondents were either general workers (16.6%), involved in sales/clerical jobs (21.7%) or held administrative/managerial positions (14.0%). Professionals and teachers constituted about 2.9% and 2.7% of respondents respectively, while 11.9% of the respondents were self-employed. In addition, 15.9%

were students, and the other 14.4% were retired, housewives, or unemployed. Table 7.2 shows the results.

Table 7.2: Community – Employment

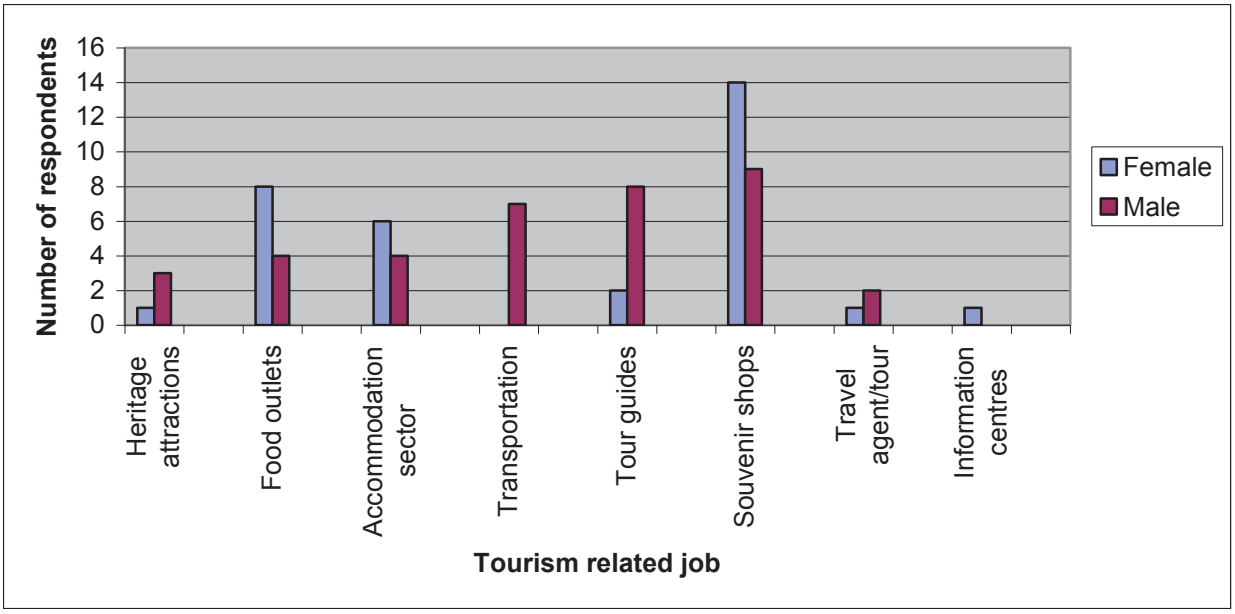
Employment N= 447 (%)			
General workers	74 (16.6%)	Retired	15 (3.4%)
Sales/clerical	97 (21.7%)	Housewives	32 (7.2%)
Admin/managerial	63 (14.0%)	Unemployed	17 (3.8%)
Professionals	13 (2.9%)	Students	71 (15.9%)
Teachers	12 (2.7%)		
Self-employed	53 (11.9%)		

Results also reveal that of the total number of 312 respondents (69.8%) who were employed, 70 stated that their jobs were related to the tourism industry. As shown in Table 7.3, out of these 70 persons, 32.9% worked in souvenir shops, followed by 17.1% working in food outlets. Many also worked in the accommodation sector (14.3%) or as tour guides (14.3%). When comparing the results between genders, the majority of female respondents worked within three main sub-sectors: souvenir shops (42.4%), food outlets (24.2%), and the accommodation sector (18.2%). On the other hand, many of the male respondents worked in souvenir shops (24.3%), transportation (18.9%), and as tour guides (21.6%). Figure 7.1 illustrates the results in a bar chart.

Table 7.3: Tourism-related Jobs

Sectors	Gender		Total
	Female	Male	% within sector
Heritage attractions	1 (3.0%)	3 (8.1%)	4 (5.71%)
Food outlets	8 (24.2%)	4 (10.8%)	12 (17.1%)
Accommodation sector	6 (18.2%)	4 (10.8%)	10 (14.3%)
Transportation	0 (0.00)	7 (18.9%)	7 (10.0%)
Tour guides	2 (6.1%)	8 (21.6%)	10 (14.3%)
Souvenir shops	14 (42.4%)	9 (24.3%)	23 (32.9%)
Travel agent/tour operators	1 (3.0%)	2 (5.4%)	3 (4.3%)
Information centres	1 (3.0%)	0 (0)	1 (1.3%)
Total % within gender	33 (100.0%)	37 (100.0%)	70 (100.0%)

Figure 7.1: Tourism Related Jobs by Gender



7.3 Community and Cultural Heritage

Respondents were asked to define the term CH in their own words. Quite a number of respondents refused to answer this particular question. Although, for those who answered the question, defined heritage in a simplistic manner, where majority of those who did relate heritage with words like 'past', 'inheritance' and 'identity'. Table 7.4 displays the answers given by majority of the respondents.

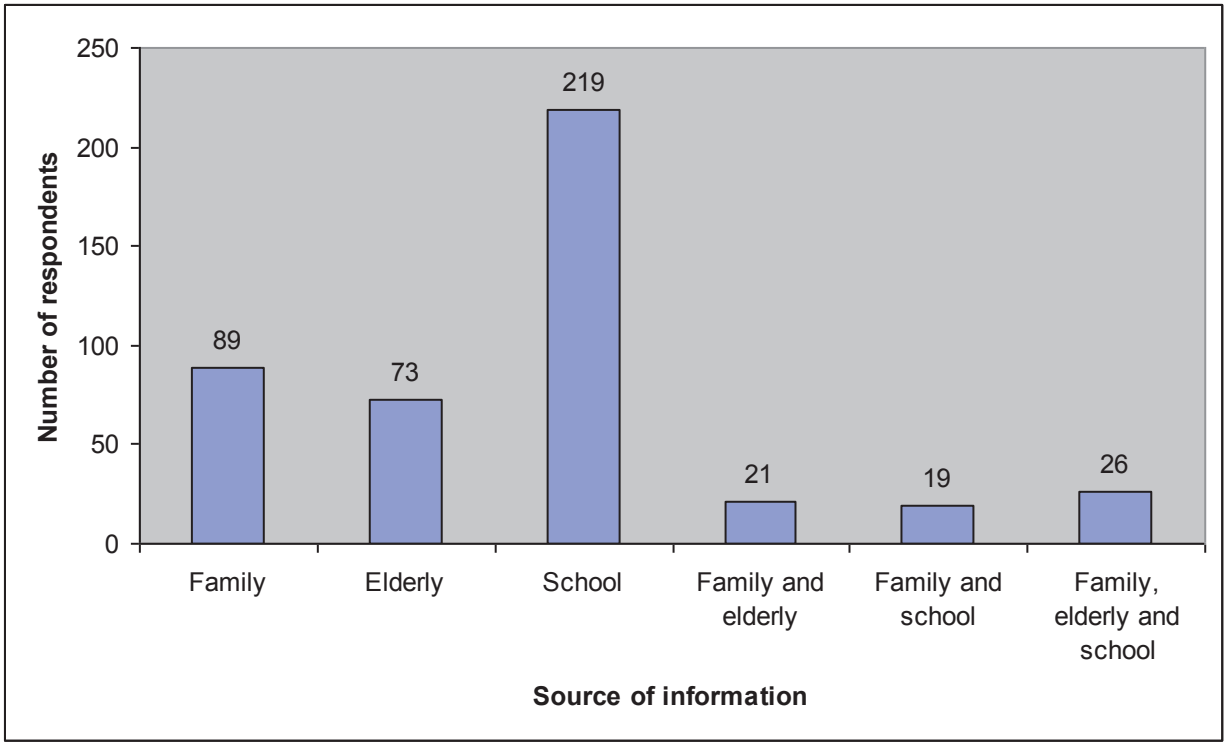
Table 7.4: Definition of the Term Cultural Heritage by Local Communities

1.	Something to keep for future generation		
2.	Practice, behaviour and instruments that belong to a certain community that needs to be preserved and cared for		
3.	Inclusive of ethnic, religion, places, building and historical artifacts		
4.	Object, story and practice left by older generation		
5.	Our lifestyle inherit from the older generation		
6.	Culture passed from one generation to another, still being practiced until today		
7.	Old things that are valuable to us, left by our ancestors		
8.	Cultural practice that we inherit from older generation		
9.	Old culture and lifestyle that are practiced until today		
10.	Tradition and culture of a community		
11.	Meaningful legacy	25.	Our personality
12.	Valuable legacy	26.	Our life
13.	Symbols of national identity	27.	Lifestyle of traditional people
14.	Symbols of community identity	28.	Practice
15.	Arts and culture	29.	Ancient objects
16.	Priceless	30.	History
17.	Old things	31.	History and old objects
18.	Things left by older people	32.	Historical objects
19.	Clothes and food	33.	History and tradition
20.	Old culture	34.	History of the nation
21.	Tradition	35.	History and community identity
22.	Tradition and history	36.	Do not really understand
23.	Our tradition	37.	Uncertain
24.	Do not understand the question	38.	Do not know the answer

In this survey, respondents were also asked about the significance of their local CH, as well as how they learned about it. Figure 7.2 summarises the findings. A majority of

respondents stated that schools were the primary sources of knowledge about their heritage, with family and the elderly as the second and third sources respectively.

Figure 7.2: Knowledge about Cultural Heritage



Results in figure 7.2 are further analysed by comparing the actual results and results within each age group. As shown in table 7.5, nearly 50% of the total number of respondents stated that they learned about the significance of CH sites in schools, while another 19.9% stated family as their main source of information, followed by the elderly with 16.3%. Findings also revealed that schools were the main source of information for nearly 78% of respondents under 20 years old. The same scenario may be observed in the age group between 20 and 30, where 58% of respondents claimed that they learned about their CH in schools. In contrast, many in the groups 31 - 40 years and 41 - 50 years stated that family and the elderly played an important role in disseminating information, although, at the same time, they considered schools important elements as well. Results may be explained by changes in socio-demography and processes of urbanisation within the communities over time.

Table 7.5: Knowledge about Cultural Heritage amongst Age Group

N = 447	Age Group (%)					
	Under 20	**20 – 30**	**31 – 40**	**41 - 50**	**Over 50**	**Total (%)**
Family	4 (8.9%)	30 (17.2%)	28 (22.4%)	20 (31.7%)	7 (17.5%)	89 (19.9%)
Elderly	1 (2.2%)	24 (13.8%)	26 (20.8%)	10 (15.9%)	12 (30.0%)	73 (16.3%)
School	35 (77.9%)	101 (58.0%)	46 (36.8%)	25 (39.6%)	12 (30.0%)	219 (49.0%)
Family & elderly	2 (4.4%)	8 (4.6%)	5 (4.0%)	2 (3.2%)	4 (10.0%)	21 (4.7%)
Family & school	2 (4.4%)	4 (2.3%)	8 (6.4%)	3 (4.8%)	2 (5.0%)	19 (4.3%)
Family, elderly & school	1 (2.2%)	7 (4.1%)	12 (9.6%)	3 (4.8%)	3 (7.5%)	26 (5.8%)
Total % within age group	45 (100%)	174 (100%)	125 (100%)	63 (100%)	40 (100%)	447 (100%)

7.4 Perceptions about the Importance of Cultural Heritage

In this section, respondents were asked to identify the importance of their CH to them. As revealed in figure 7.3, the statement *for future generations* was rated most by the respondents, followed by *community identity*. To further understand these relationships, answers given by the respondents were tested against age factor. Table 7.6 summarises the results, which shows that respondents from all age groups believed that their CH was important, especially for the benefit of future generations. However, respondents under the age of 20 also believed that CH was an important agenda for the development of community identity. It is also significant to note that the category *others* in table 7.5 is a combination of eight answers given by respondents. However, the percentages of all of these answers were low.

Figure 7.3: The Importance of Cultural Heritage to Community

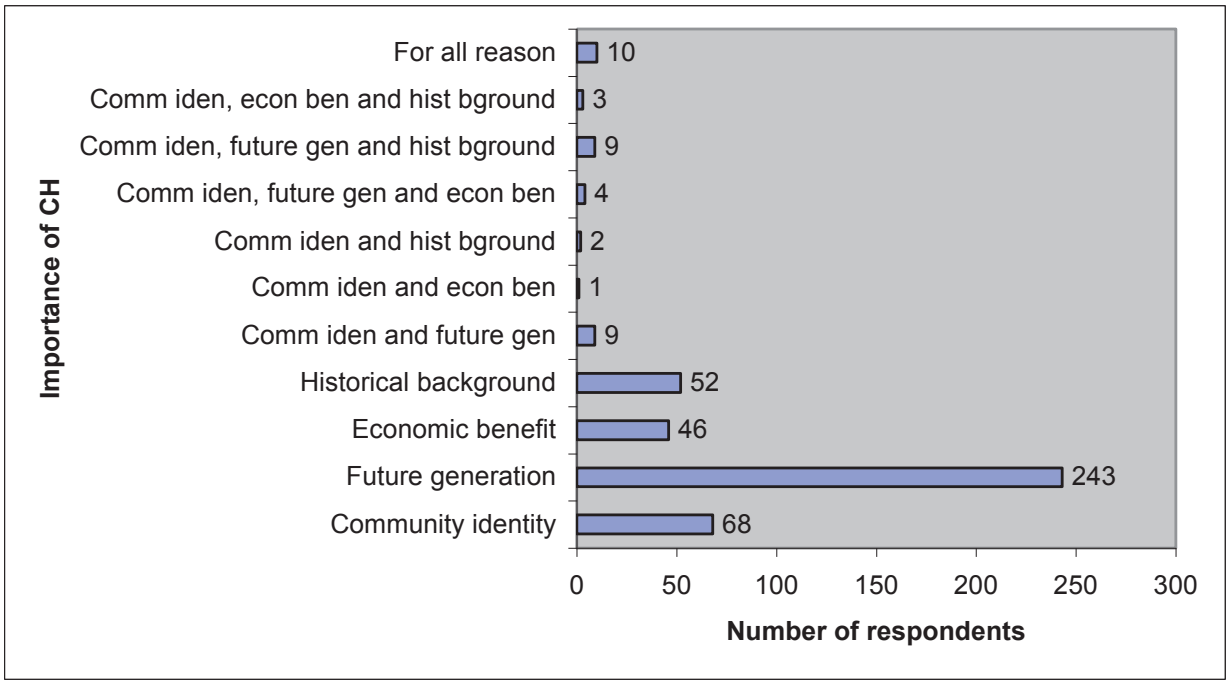


Table 7.6: The Importance of Cultural Heritage to Community amongst Age Group

	Community identity	Future generations	Economic benefits	Historical background	Others	Total % within age
Under 20	14 (31.1%)	20 (44.4%)	5 (11.1%)	6 (13.3%)	0 (0.00)	45 (100%)
20 – 30	28 (16.1%)	97 (55.7%)	18 (10.3%)	16 (9.2%)	15 (8.7%)	174 (100%)
31 – 40	13 (10.4%)	70 (56.0%)	12 (9.6%)	14 (11.2%)	16 (13.0%)	125 (100%)
41 - 50	8 (12.7%)	39 (61.9%)	6 (9.5%)	6 (9.5%)	4 (6.4%)	63 (100%)
51 and above	4 (10.0%)	15 (37.5%)	5 (12.5%)	10 (25.0%)	6 (15.0%)	40 (100%)
Total	67 (100%)	241 (100%)	46 (100%)	52 (100%)	41 (100%)	N = 447

7.5 Cultural Heritage and Tourism

In this section, the 447 respondents were asked about their perceptions of the relationship between their CH and tourism. Results indicate that the majority of respondents (91.1%) agreed with the statement *Heritage warrants the interest of Malaysian tourists*, while about 86% agreed with the statement *Heritage warrants the interest of foreign tourists*. Table 7.7 highlights the scenarios preferred by the community members in terms of the number of tourists visiting a cultural attraction at any given time.

Table 7.7: Scenarios Preferred by Community

	Frequency	Percent
Number of tourists to site rising steadily	295	66.0%
Number of tourists to site diminishing	44	9.8%
No change in number of tourists to the site	99	22.1%
No tourists at all	9	2.0%
Total	N=447	100.00%

Based on table 7.7, it is known that many members of the community claimed that they would like to see more tourists (66%). In contrast, 22.1% preferred the number of tourists at the attraction site to remain as it was. It is also interesting to note that a number of respondents preferred no tourists at all. Although this number was just a small fraction of the total respondents (9%), it is still significant that there were individuals who did not wish to see their CH developed into tourist attractions.

Further tests were conducted in order to understand the impact of the growing number of tourists on the daily lives of community members. As shown in table 7.8, a majority of respondents (43%) perceived the growing number of tourists as positive. Two explanations may be derived from these findings. First, CH tourism may still be a new phenomenon in Malaysia, so that its existence or impact is not yet noticed or felt by the communities. Second, the community may be accepting and supporting the development entirely. However, it is also interesting to note that 26.2% of the respondents claimed that the growing number of tourists had no impact on them at all. Based on this, it is probable that these respondents were not involved or associated with the tourist industry. In other words, respondents in this category may have been working in non tourism-related jobs, and their homes may have been far from the 3-km radius of the heritage-based attractions studied. On the contrary, 25.5% of respondents believed that the situation led to both positive and negative impacts. From the researcher's point of view, this specific result is an indication that some members of the community were starting to feel the pressure of

development. The positive and negative remarks in terms of the impacts of tourism as perceived by respondents are listed in tables 9 and 10.

Table 7.8: Impacts Perceived by Community

Impacts	Frequency	Percent
None	117	26.2%
Positive	192	43.0%
Negative	24	5.4%
Both positive and negative	114	25.5%
Total	N=447	100.0%

Table 7.9: Positive Impacts Perceived by Local Communities Regarding Cultural Heritage as Tourism Attraction

1.	As local authority put more interest on my CH through tourism development, the development itself can protect my CH		
2.	For the development of community identity		
3.	Preserve our CH for our future generations		
4.	Could make younger generation understand the importance of their CH		
5.	Expose and educate the local public about their culture		
6.	Expose and educate the tourists about local culture		
7.	More tourism attractions can be developed		
8.	Revitalise the forgotten CH	18.	Offer economic benefits
9.	Support traditional crafts	19.	Support local businesses
10.	Learn about my community	20.	Increase our economic status
11.	Restore old buildings	21.	Reduce poverty rate
12.	Introduce my CH to the world	22.	Increase in foreign exchange
13.	Proud when people know my CH	23.	Increase in the standard of services
14.	Attract more tourists to my home town	24.	I get a cleaner city
15.	Increase demand for cottage industry	25.	Increase my sales commission
16.	Improve infrastructure	26.	Increase my sales
17.	Opportunity to interact with tourists	27.	I am able to visit the attractions as well

Table 7.10: Negative Impacts Perceived by Local Communities Regarding Cultural Heritage as Tourism Attraction

1.	New culture (foreign culture) can influence the community
2.	Destroy the true value of my CH
3.	Contribute to social problems
4.	Bad social influence
5.	Western culture is not good for local teenagers
6.	Improper dressing by foreign tourists
7.	Increase in the price of goods
8.	Increase in crime rate
9.	Increase alcohol-related activities
10.	Increase in traffic and noise pollution
11.	Hard to interact with tourists, particularly with foreign ones
12.	Too much money spent by government for the benefits of tourists
13.	Much infrastructure built by government meant for tourists rather than locals
14.	Infrastructure and basic services in the CH attractions are still inadequate
15.	The development does not benefit younger community
16.	Outsiders will know our weaknesses
17.	Heard of the planning, but until now do not see any action taken to actively develop my CH into tourism attraction

Nonetheless, at this time, it may be argued that members of the community generally have accepted that some of their CH has become part of the country's attractions. Furthermore, they appear to be comfortable with this situation. However, such a comment is only a general assumption. Further analysis must be performed in order to understand the situation. Therefore, with this thought in mind, respondents were asked about their perceptions regarding the impact of tourist activities based on four specific scenarios: (1) tourists in public areas, (2) tourists taking pictures, (3) tourists entering houses, and (4) tourists entering religious buildings. As displayed in table 7.11, respondents approved of the idea of tourists being in public areas and taking pictures, although at the same time, many were reluctant to allow tourists to enter houses and religious buildings.

Table 7.11: Community's Opinions on Tourists' Activities

	Tourists in public areas	Tourists taking pictures	Tourists entering houses	Tourists entering religious buildings
Like	342 (76.5%)	328 (73.4%)	61 (13.6%)	65 (14.5%)
Don't Mind	103 (23.0%)	114 (25.5%)	176 (39.4%)	149 (33.3%)
Don't like	2 (.5%)	5 (1.1%)	210 (47.0%)	233 (2.2%)
Total	447 100.0%	447 100.0%	447 100.0%	447 100.0%

To further investigate the findings in table 7.11, several Independent-Sample t-tests were conducted to determine the mean difference between several groups of interest. The differences in mean were tested for four variables, namely (1) gender, (2) age group, (3) education level, and (4) employment. In order to perform the analysis, the mean score was grouped into three sets of points so as to indicate the three categories of:

Scale 1, *like it*, carries the mean score from 0 to 1.50
Scale 2, *don't mind it*, carries the mean score from 1.51 to 2.50
Scale 3, *don't like it*, carries the mean score from 2.51 and above.

The Independent-Sample t-test procedure compares means for two groups of cases. For illustration purposes, an example of the mean differences between each gender's perceptions of *tourists in public areas* is displayed in table 7.12.

As explained in Cronk (2004:56), in order to interpret the Independent-Sample t-test results the value of Levene test becomes the indicator. If the significance value for the Levene test is high (typically greater than 0.05), the results in the row that assume equal variances for both groups are referred to. On the other hand, if the significance value for the Levene test is low, the results in the row that do not assume equal variances for both groups are referred to. A low significance value for the t-test (typically less than 0.05) indicates that there is a significant difference between the two group means. Apart from this, if the confidence interval for the mean difference does not contain zero, this also indicates that the difference is significant. However, if the significance value is high and the confidence interval for the mean difference contains zero, this study cannot conclude that there is a significant difference between the two group means.

Table 7.12: Independent Sample t-test for *what you think of tourists in public areas*

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
What you think: tourists in public areas	Male	232	1.1810	.40770	.02677
	Female	215	1.3023	.46034	.03139

Independent Sample Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	30.080	.000	-2.954	445	.003	-.12129	.04107	-.20200	-.04058
Equal variances not assumed			-2.940	428.459	.003	-.12129	.04126	-.20238	-.04020

Source: SPSS version 12.0

Table 7.12 explains that since the Lavene's Test value was significant (p = 0.00), then the results that do not assume equal variances for both groups were used. The results also indicate that there was a significant difference in mean between male and female respondents towards the variable (*t =-2.940, df=428.459, p=0.003*). In fact, the mean of the female group was significantly higher (*m=1.3023, sd=0.46034*) than the mean of the male group (*m=1.1810, sd=0.40770*). This study, therefore, adopts the same procedure throughout the analysis on the other three variables.

Results reveal that significant differences only occur in two variables: gender and employment. In terms of gender, the test indicates that there were significant differences between male and female respondents in the mean score on two of the four items. Differences occurred in items *tourists in public areas* and *tourists entering houses*. For the first significant variable, the mean of the female group was significantly higher (*m=1.3023, sd=0.46034*) than the mean of the male group (*m=1.1810, sd=0.40770*), as stated in the example. In other words, when compared to female respondents, male respondents were more likely to like the idea of tourists being in public areas, since the mean for male group was much closer to 1, which represents the *Like it* category. In the second significant item, the mean for the female group was significantly higher (*m=2.5884, sd=0.63*) than the mean for the male group (*m=2.1897, sd=0.74*).

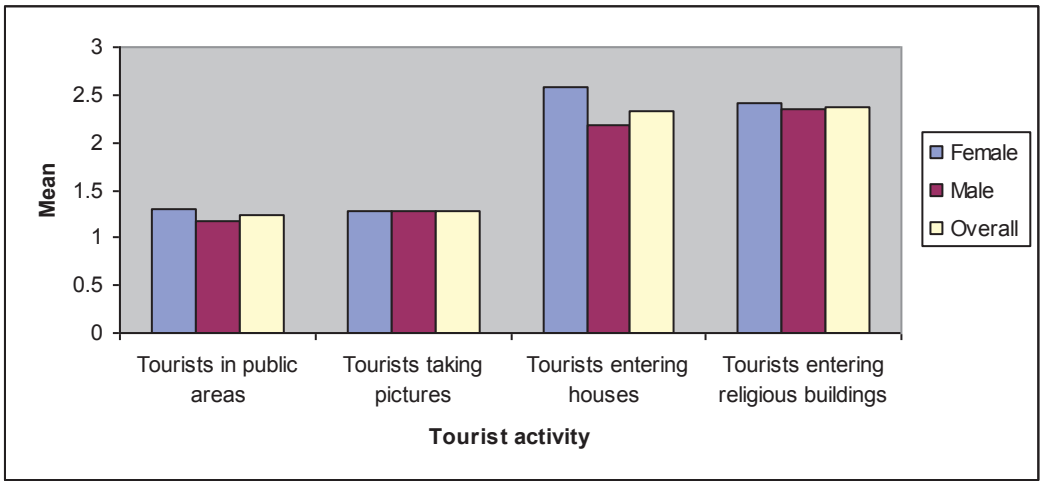
Therefore, the results indicate that between the two groups, female respondents were more likely to object to the idea of tourists entering houses, as compared to the male group. This was due to the fact that the mean for female group is higher and exceeds 2.5, representing the *don't like it* category. Thus, it may be argued that female respondents were more wary of the tourists' presence, as compared to the male respondents. Table 7.13 and figure 7.4 display the complete results of the Independent-Sample t-tests, which compare means for males and females on the community's perceptions of the four given items of tourist activities.

Table 7.13: Mean Comparison between Genders on Tourist Activities

Items	Mean (sd)			t-value (df)
	Female	Male	Overall (N-447)	
Tourists in public areas	1.3023 (0.46%)	1.1810 (0.41%)	1.2394 (0.44%)	-2.94* (428.45)
Tourists taking pictures	1.2791 (0.45%)	1.2759 (0.49%)	1.2774 (0.47%)	-.072 (445)
Tourists entering houses	2.5884 (0.63%)	2.1897 (0.74%)	2.3333 (0.70%)	-4.578* (445)
Tourists entering religious buildings	2.4140 (0.71%)	2.3405 (0.74%)	2.3758 (0.73%)	-1.069 (445)

Note: * = significant at 5%

Figure 7.4: Mean Comparison between Genders



The second significant variable (respondents working in tourism-related jobs as compared to those who did not work in tourism-related jobs) results indicate that there were significant differences in the mean scores of two of the four items. Table 7.14 and figure 7.5 display the results. Differences occurred in items: *tourists in public areas* and *tourists taking pictures*. For the first significant item, the mean of the tourism group was

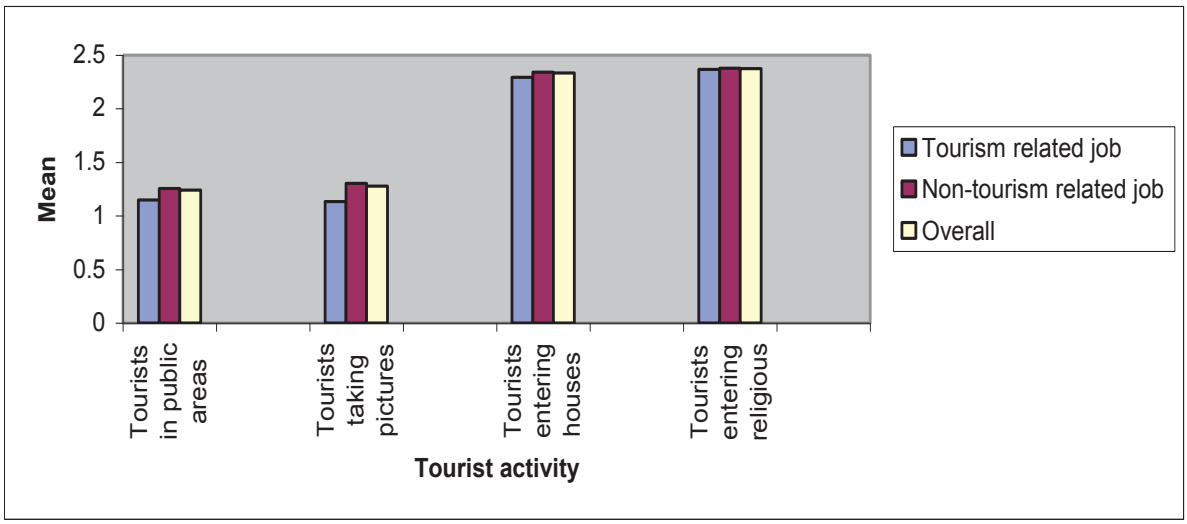
significantly lower (*m=1.1471, sd=0.36*) than the mean of the non-tourism group (*m=1.2559, sd=0.45*). Results indicate that although both groups liked the idea of tourists being in public areas, respondents working in tourism-related jobs liked the idea better than respondents from the non-tourism group. In fact, the mean for the tourism group is very close to 1 (1.1471), which signifies the first category of *like it*. As for the second item, again the mean of the tourism group was significantly lower (*m=1.1324, sd=0.04*) than the mean of the non-tourism group (*m=1.3034, sd=0.03*). It may be argued that respondents working in tourism-related jobs were more at ease and happy to accept the idea of tourists being in public areas and taking pictures.

Table 7.14: Mean Comparison between Tourism and Non-tourism Related Jobs

Items	Mean (sd)			t-value (df)
	Tourism related job	Non-tourism related job	Overall N=447	
Tourists in public areas	1.1471 (0.36%)	1.2559 (0.45%)	1.2394 (0.44%)	-2.22* (108.90)
Tourists taking pictures	1.1324 (0.04%)	1.3034 (0.03%)	1.2774 (0.47%)	-3.53* (122.28)
Tourists entering houses	2.2941 (0.09%)	2.3404 (0.04%)	2.3333 (0.70%)	-.50 (445)
Tourists entering religious buildings	2.3676 (0.75%)	2.3773 (0.72%)	2.3758 (0.73%)	-.10 (445)

Note: * = significant at 5%

Figure 7.5: Mean Comparison between Tourism and Non-tourism Related Jobs on Tourist Activity



7.6 Attitudes towards the Development of Cultural Heritage Tourism

Questions in section D were formulated in order to understand respondents' attitudes towards the development of CH tourism in their communities. In this section, respondents were asked to rank their preferences for nine statements. Each statement was then ranked on a scale of 1 to 5, where:

1 = *Strongly Disagree*; 2 = *Disagree*; 3 = *Undecided*; 4 = *Agree*; 5 = *Strongly Agree*.
The rank also represented a score for each statement. The scores ranged from 9 (1 ×9) to 45 (5 × 9)[5]. In this study, the attitude scores ranged from 20 to 43, with a mean value of 32.74 and a standard deviation of 3.51. To gauge the reliability of the attitude instrument discussed above, a simple reliability test procedure was conducted. The results indicate that all of the 447 respondents were valid for the measurement of attitude scale, *i.e*. they responded to all of the nine statements. The test also showed that the entire attitude instrument was quite reliable, with the value of alpha equal to 0.6. All of the items, furthermore, were positively correlated with the total attitude score, although one item 'tourists do not understand my CH' indicated a weak item-to-total correlation (0.032). However, as the potential improvement in alpha value would be small if this item were to be deleted, all of the 9 items were retained to compute the attitude scores. Results of the reliability test are displayed in appendix E.

Table 7.15 summarises the mean score for each of the positive items in the attitude instrument. Generally, respondents held positive attitudes towards the development of CH tourism in their communities. Most of them strongly supported the idea of people visiting their CH attractions and, at the same time, agreed that tourism would help keep their CH alive. Thus, it could be argued that, in general, respondents were supportive of developing their CH as a tourism attraction. However, despite all the support shown towards their CH as tourism attractions, results also indicate that the members of the community were undecided on three statements. Such indecisive attitudes were mainly related to their levels of involvement and participation in the development of CH tourism, as well as to how CH tourism contributed to them economically.

Meanwhile, table 7.16 illustrates the mean score for each of the negative items in the attitude instrument. Respondents in general were undecided when asked about tourists' understandings of the communities' CH, and how tourists valued it. Nevertheless, it is

[5] 9 (1 ×9) to 45 (5 × 9): 1 is the minimum score for each instrument; 9 refers to the number of instruments tested, and 5 is the maximum score for each instrument.

interesting to highlight that respondents also disagreed with the suggestion that tourism as a whole could destroy the value of their CH.

Table 7.15: Positive Statements in the Attitude Instrument

Positive Statements	Mean	Std. Dev.
Tourism keeps our CH alive	4.0828	.74560
CH attractions provide jobs for local people	3.3445	.65088
Our opinions are asked during the development of CH	3.5928	.99988
I like it when people visit our CH	4.4004	.58248
We are given the chance to participate in the development of CH tourism	3.4004	.1.02362
We are happy with the development of our CH as a tourism attraction	4.1745	.63244

Table 7.16: Negative Statements in the Attitude Instrument

Negative Statements	Mean	Std. Dev.
Tourists do not understand our CH	2.9978	.86148
Tourists do not value our CH	3.2215	.86148
Tourism destroys the value of our CH	3.5235	.80009

In order to understand more about the relationships, several Independent-Sample t-tests were conducted. The nine statements were tested statically against four variables. Those variables were (1) gender, (2) age group, (3) education level, and (4) employment. For the purposes of this analysis, the two age groups were recorded as the *younger group* and the *older group*. In so doing, respondents who were 40 or under were labelled the *younger group*, while those over 40 years of age were labelled the *older group*. For education level, respondents who had completed secondary school education or less were labelled as having a *basic education*. In contrast, respondents who had completed at least a college education were labelled as having a *higher education*. Meanwhile, as for the employment variable, respondents were compared between those employed in tourism-related jobs and those who were not.

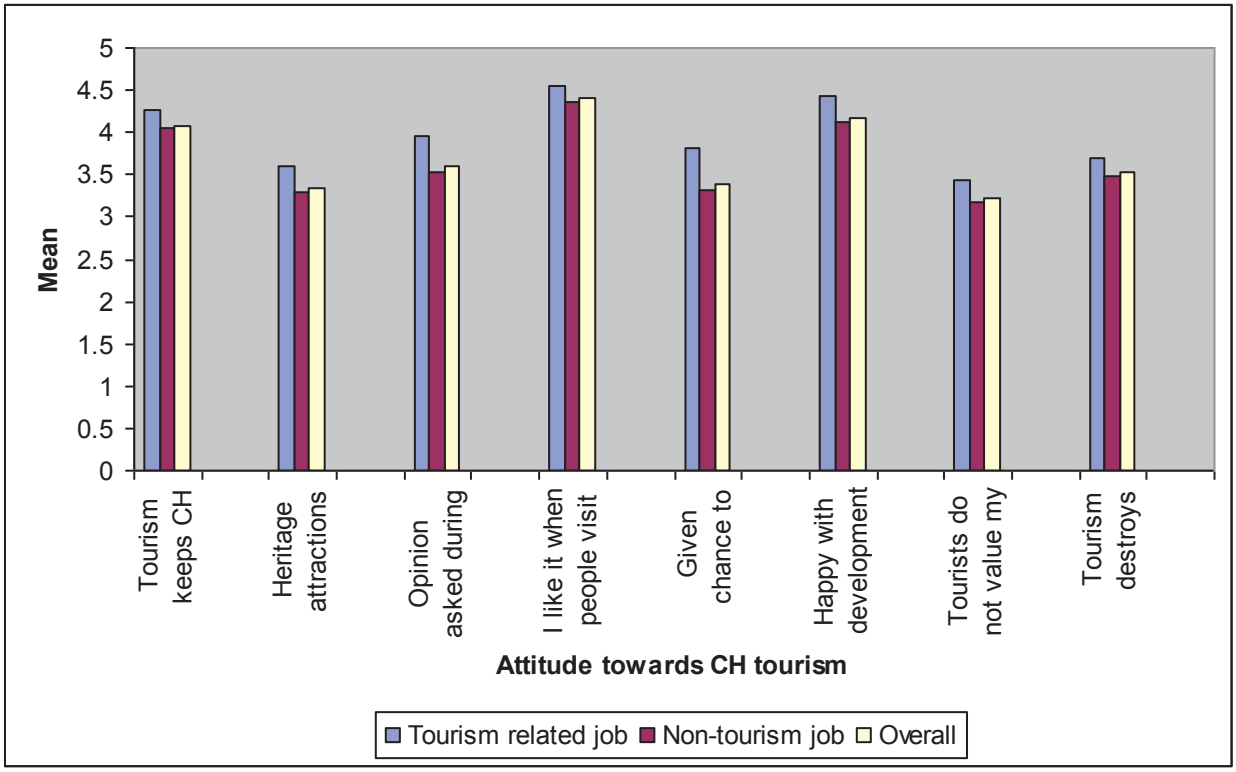
In order to conduct a means differences analysis, the mean score of each item, for both positive and negative items, was divided into three categories. For the **positive items**, the mean scores of 1 to 2.75 were placed under the *disagree* category, while the mean scores of 2.76 to 3.25 were under the *undecided* category, and the mean scores of 3.26 and above were under the *agree* category. For the **negative items**, the mean scores of 1 to 2.75 were placed under the *agree* category, those from 2.76 to 3.25 were in the *undecided* category,

and those of 3.26 and above were in the *disagree* category. Results of the t-tests revealed that the significant differences in mean were only found in two factors: gender and employment (refer to appendix F).

Findings from the above analyses reveal some interesting outcomes. In terms of the mean comparison between genders, only one significant difference was identified. The statistical results reveal that in the statement *tourists do not value my heritage*, there were significant differences between the female group (*m=3.3023, sd=0.84*) and the male group (*m=3.1466, sd=0.83*). In other words, even though both groups disagreed with the statement, female respondents seemed to disagree more strongly than the male respondents did. However, in terms of the mean test between respondents who worked in tourism-related jobs and those who did not, eight of the nine statements tested show significant differences in the mean score. In fact, there was a highly significant difference in the mean of four out of the eight statements, even when tested at 1%. Statements that were highly significant include: *heritage attractions provide jobs for local people*, *our opinions are asked during the development of CH into tourism attractions*, *we are given the chance to participate in development*, and *we are happy with development of CH tourism*. Figure 7.6 displays the results in bar chart.

Certain assumptions may be made based on the findings. Although the general mean for *heritage attractions provide jobs for local people* signifies that respondents mainly agreed with this item, there was no strong agreement between the two groups with the suggestion of employment opportunity. This is particularly true with the non-tourism group, which was mostly 'undecided' regarding this issue. Perhaps, from the researcher's point of view, the non-tourism group saw that the tourism sector offered fewer employment opportunities as compared to the other sectors, particularly in the private sector. Both groups agreed that their opinions were asked, and that they participated in the development, but respondents from the tourism group were the only ones who strongly agreed with these two statements. One explanation may be derived here. Respondents in the tourism group would have heard of any development, or changes in the development, much earlier than the second group, since they would be in direct contact with the authorities. Consequently, the tourism group strongly agreed that they were happy with the development. As noted earlier in this chapter, another two factors were also tested: age group and education level. However, findings indicate no statistically significant differences in the mean tests for either of these factors.

Figure 7.6: Mean Comparison between Tourism and Non-tourism Related Jobs on Attitude towards Cultural Heritage Tourism



7.7 Conclusions

Data from 447 samples within local community were analysed, including individuals from various social, economic, and educational backgrounds. In general, respondents agreed that CH was an important aspect of their lives, particularly in portraying elements of community identity. They also believed that knowledge about CH should be passed on to future generations, so that the new generations could understand and be proud of their heritage. Others foresaw the economic potential of CH. Findings also revealed that half the respondents learned about their CH in schools, while fewer than a quarter said that such knowledge was conveyed to them by family members and the elderly. In terms of the development of CH tourism, it may be deduced that community members accepted and supported the development, as well as the arrival of tourists to their area. Although many wanted to see an increase in the number of tourists, there were people who wished to see the numbers remain as they were. This reaction may be related to the findings revealing that even though almost half of the respondents believed that CH tourism brought positive impacts, many also believed it brought both positive and negative impacts. Furthermore, respondents working in tourism-related jobs strongly supported the development of CH tourism, as compared to those respondents whose jobs were not related to tourism. Findings also revealed that age factor did not seem to be a significant influence in determining respondents' attitudes and perceptions, while gender, on the

other hand, did exercise a certain influence. Women were found to be more cautious of the tourists' existence and their behaviours, and were particularly uneasy with the idea of tourists visiting and entering their houses. Nevertheless, it may be argued that in general, community members supported the development of CH tourism in their areas, but at the same time, concerns and questions arose from their own direct and indirect involvement in CH tourism. Certainly, these findings raise a number of issues, which will be discussed in chapter 9.

Chapter 8. Tourist Survey - Analysis

8.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a descriptive report of tourists who visit CH attractions in Malaysia. The descriptive report thoroughly investigates tourists' demographic and economic characteristics. Next, the chapter discusses tourists' travel patterns. Discussions include the results of the tourists' travel behaviours, their reasons for travelling to Malaysia, and the factors influencing their decisions to travel. Each result in this analysis is then compared between the Malaysian and foreign tourists. For further clarification and explanation, the foreign tourists' profiles are further divided into two groups, ASEAN and non-ASEAN.

8.2 General Profile of the Tourists

The first section of this analysis details the characteristics of respondents using descriptive statistics. In this study, 453 respondents were interviewed, fulfilling the conditions suggested by Sekaran (2000:293). Ideally, data gathered from all six sites should be analysed independently to produce a comprehensive result. However, this would require a large amount of data from each site. According to Sekaran (ibid:296), samples are to be broken into sub-samples (for example, on the basis of gender, education level, and age), with a minimum of 30 samples necessary for each category. In this analysis, the sample was further divided into local and foreign subgroups, and each of these subgroups was analysed according to several categories of interest. Thus, the number of samples from each site was not sufficient to permit separate analysis. Due to this situation, data from the six sites were pooled and analysed together in order to take scale and time constraints into consideration. The results of this thesis should be interpreted with these conditions in mind.

Out of a total of 453 respondents, 213 (47.0%) were Malaysian tourists, while 240 (53.0%) were foreign tourists. Figure 8.1 illustrates the number of Malaysian and foreign tourists in general. Furthermore, amongst the foreign tourists who were surveyed, 52 of them (21.7%) were from ASEAN countries, mainly Singapore and Indonesia, while the majority of the tourists who were from non-ASEAN countries were from Australia, America, and the United Kingdom (27.9%). The origins of all the foreign tourists are listed in table 8.1.

Figure 8.1: Total Number of Malaysian and Foreign Tourists

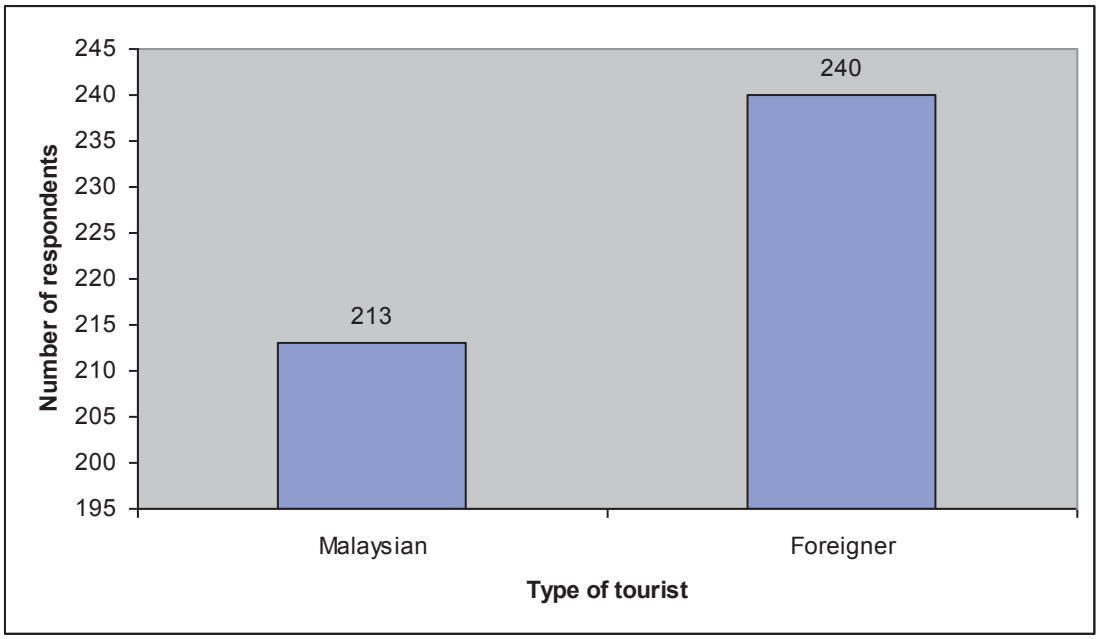


Figure 8.2: Total Number of Foreign Tourists: ASEAN and non-ASEAN

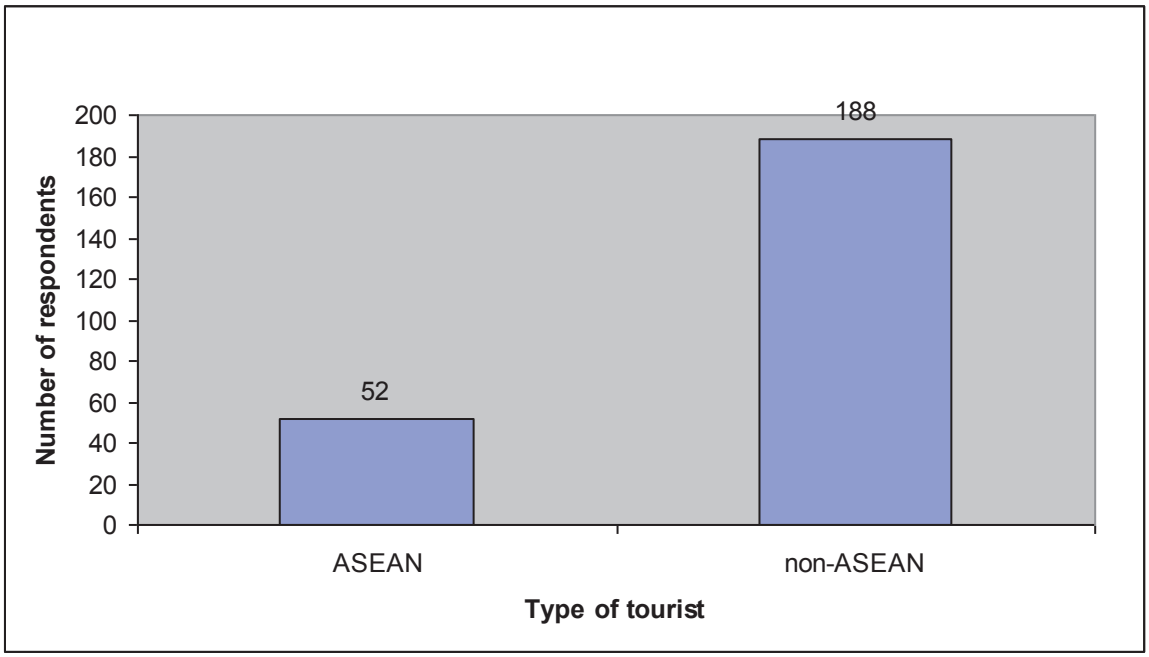


Table 8.1: Country of Origin

Country	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Australia	26	10.8%	10.8%
Bahrain	1	.4%	11.3%
Belgium	3	1.3%	12.5%
Brunei	10	4.2%	16.7%
Canada	16	6.7%	23.3%
China	1	.4%	23.8%
Croatia	1	.4%	24.2%
France	8	3.3%	27.5%
Germany	14	5.8%	33.3%
India	1	.4%	33.8%
Indonesia	18	7.5%	41.3%
Republic of Ireland	6	5.%	41.7%
Italy	11	4.6%	46.3%
Japan	15	6.3%	52.5%
Lebanon	3	1.3%	53.8%
Nepal	1	.4%	54.2%
The Netherlands	12	5.0%	59.2%
New Zealand	12	5.0%	64.2%
Philippines	2	.8%	65.0%
Poland	2	.8%	65.8%
Portugal	1	.4%	66.3%
Singapore	18	7.5%	75.8%
Spain	1	.4%	76.3%
Sweden	8	3.3%	79.6%
Switzerand	1	.4%	80.0%
Taiwan	2	.8%	80.8%
Thailand	4	1.7%	82.5%
Turkey	1	.4%	82.9%
UK	22	9.2%	92.1%
USA	19	7.9%	100.0
Total	**240**	**100.0**	

In order to understand the characteristics of tourists who visit CH attractions in Malaysia, the chi-square test was applied. This test was applied in order to determine the presence of associations or relationships amongst the two groups of tourists with the identified socio-demographic characteristics. Table 8.2 presents the socio-demographic characteristics in percentages for Malaysian and foreign tourists, the calculated chi-square value for each characteristic, and its probability values for Malaysian and foreign tourists. Findings show the presence of association in one out of five characteristics. There is a significant ($p \leq 0.000$) difference amongst local and foreign tourists in the level of education.

In general, results indicate that half of the respondents in both groups were female, with majority aged between 20 and 40. 64% of foreign tourists held university degrees, as compared to approximately 26% of Malaysian tourists. However, the secondary level has the highest number of Malaysian respondents (42.3%). With regard to the occupations of the two groups of tourists, a high proportion of Malaysian tourists were employed in sales/clerical and administration/managerial categories (27.2% and 23.0% respectively), while a high proportion of foreign tourists were either self-employed or worked in administration/managerial-level jobs (21.7% and 24.6% respectively).

In order to understand further the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, further analyses were performed by looking at age group and education level. The respondents were further divided into three groups: Malaysian, foreign ASEAN, and non-ASEAN. Table 8.3 and figure 8.3 summarise the findings specifically in terms of those holding university qualifications (within the age group). In terms of Malaysian respondents, almost 65% of the tourists in group 20-30 and half of the respondents in group 31-40 held university qualifications. In contrast, at least 70% of foreign respondents held university qualifications in each age group. However, the relationship between education level and age group was more significant in the non-ASEAN group, where all of the age groups (except those in 31-40) had at least 65% of the respondents holding university qualifications.

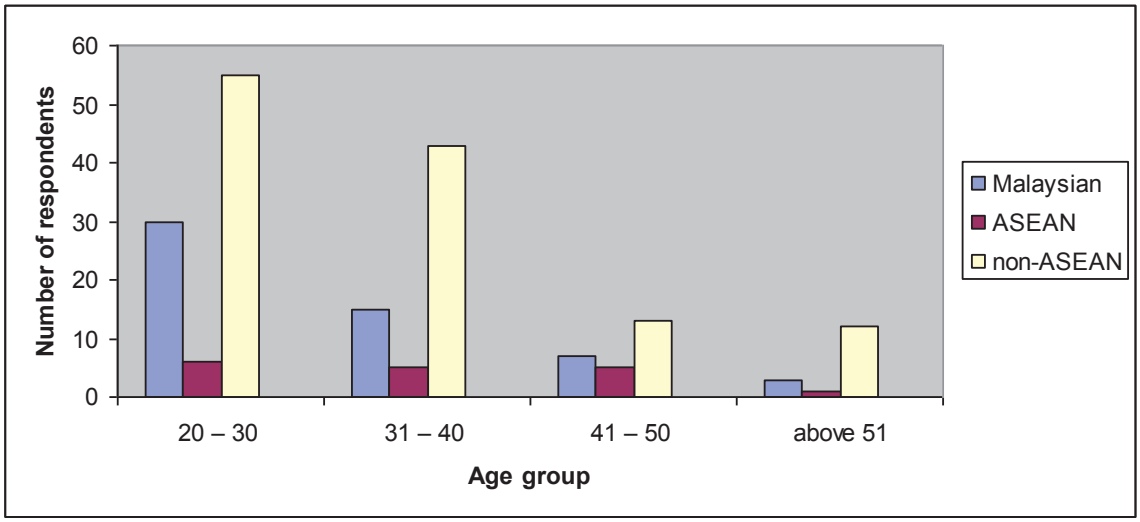
Table 8.2: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents (N = 453)

Descriptions	**Malaysian**	**Foreign**	**Total**	**χ^2-value (p-value)**
Respondents	213	240	453	
Gender				
male	101 (47.4%)	118 (49.2%)	219 (48.3%)	
female	112 (52.6%)	122 (50.8%)	234 (51.7%)	
Age group				
below 20	8 (3.8%)	5 (2.1%)	13 (2.9%)	
20 - 30	97 (45.5%)	100 (41.7%)	197 (43.5%)	
31 - 40	62 (29.1%)	80 (33.3%)	142 (31.3%)	
41 - 50	32 (15.0%)	33 (13.8%)	65 (14.3%)	
50 and above	14 (6.6%)	22 (9.2%)	36 (7.9%)	
Educational level				
primary education	12 (5.6%)	6 (2.5%)	18 (4.0%)	77.98
secondary	90 (42.3%)	30 (12.5%)	120 (26.5%)	(0.000)
diploma	56 (26.3%)	60 (25.0%)	116 (25.6%)	
first degree	53 (24.9%)	113 (47.1%)	166 (36.6%)	
post-graduate degree	2 (.9%)	31 (12.9%)	33 (7.3%)	
Occupation				
student	14 (6.6%)	33 (13.6%)	47 (10.4%)	
unemployed	16 (7.5%)	11 (4.6%)	27 (6.0)	
retired	4 (1.9%)	14 (5.8%)	18 (4.0%)	
self-employed	24 (11.3%)	52 (21.7%)	76 (16.8%)	
general worker	23 (10.8%)	17 (7.1%)	40 (8.8)	
sales/clerical	58 (27.2%)	11 (4.6%)	69 (15.2%)	
admin/managerial	49 (23.0%)	59 (24.6%)	108 (23.8%)	
teacher	13 (6.1%)	15 (6.3%)	28 (6.2%)	
professional	12 (5.6%)	28 (13.5%)	40 (8.8%)	
Gross annual income	n =195	n = 236	N = 431	
Below 10,000	35 (18%)	20 (8.5%)	55 (12.8%)	
10,000 – 29,000	97 (49.7%)	67 (28.4%)	164 (38.1%)	
30,000 – 49,000	46 (23.6%)	101 (42.8%)	147 (34.1%)	
50,000 – 89,000	17 (8.7%)	35 (14.8%)	52 (12%)	
90,000 and above	0.00	13 (5.5%)	13 (3%)	

Table 8.3: Level of Education within Age Group (University Qualification)

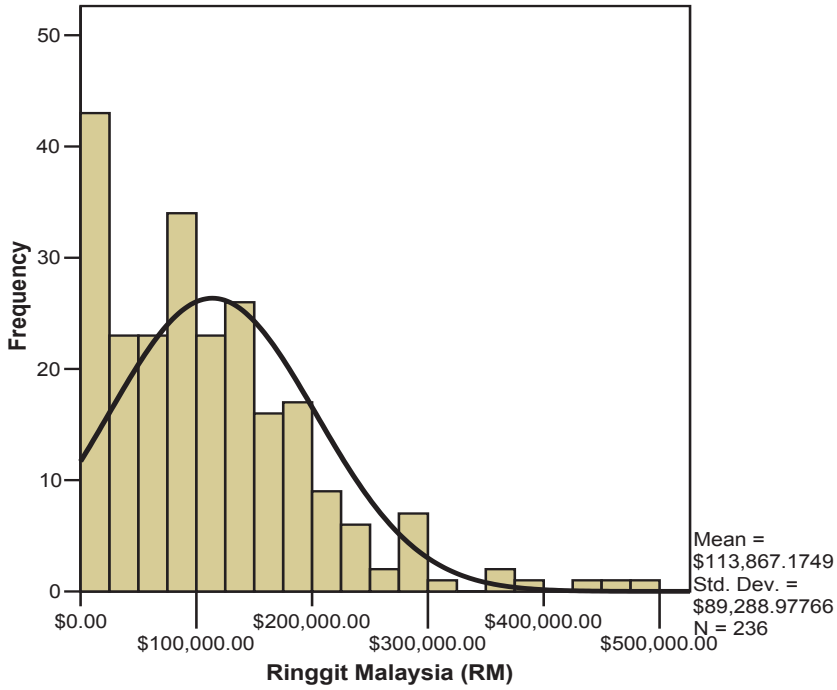
Age group	Malaysian	Foreign ASEAN	Foreign non-ASEAN	Total N = 195
20 – 30	30 (33%)	6 (7%)	55 (60%)	91 (47%)
31 – 40	15 (24%)	5 (8%)	43 (68%)	63 (32%)
41 – 50	7 (28%)	5 (20%)	13 (52%)	25 (13%)
51 and above	3 (19%)	1 (6%)	12 (75%)	16 (8%)

Figure 8.3: Level of Education within Age Group (University Qualification)



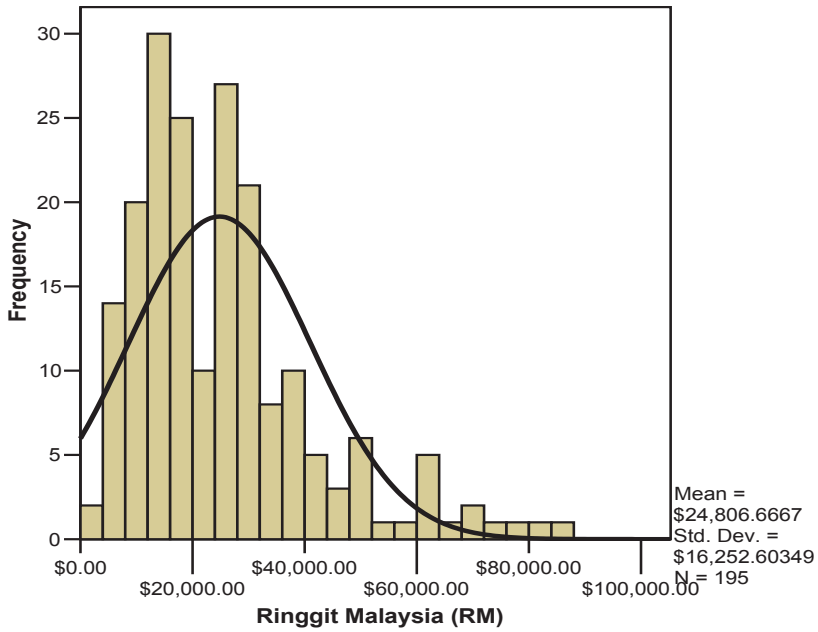
In terms of income, a significant difference existed between the incomes of Malaysian and foreign tourists (as described in table 8.2), although these differences were largely due to the higher currency values in many of the foreign countries. Figures 8.4 and 8.5 describe the income distribution of Malaysian and foreign tourists respectively. For Malaysian tourists, the mean was calculated from only 195 Malaysian respondents who stated their incomes in the questionnaire. As shown in figure 8.4, the income distribution for Malaysian tourists was close to normal with a skewness of +, a distribution which was slightly skewed to the right. The average annual income of local tourists was RM24,807 (equivalent to £3,702.54). The minimum annual household income recorded for Malaysian tourists was RM1,800 (£268.66), and the maximum was RM87,000 (£12,985.07).

Figure 8.4: Annual Household Income of Malaysian Tourists in Ringgit Malaysia (RM)



Meanwhile, a similar distribution pattern may also be seen in terms of the annual household incomes of foreign tourists. As shown in figure 8.5, the distribution of income was skewed to the right. This result also indicates that the average annual household income of foreign tourists was RM113,867 (£16,995.07). Within this group, four respondents did not state their annual income. Hence the calculation was based on the remaining 236 foreign tourists. The minimum annual income for this group was RM738.00 (£110.15), while the maximum annual income was RM495,847 (£74,007.01).

Figure 8.5: Annual Household Income of Foreign Tourists in Ringgit Malaysia (RM)



8.3 Travel Patterns

Table 8.4 and figures 8.6 and 8.7 summarise the trip characteristics in percentages for Malaysian and foreign tourists, the calculated chi-square values for each characteristic and their probability values amongst Malaysian and foreign tourists. The results indicate that there was a difference in all five of the trip characteristics. A very significant ($p \leq 0.001$) relationship was present in the *purpose of visit, travel arrangements, travelling style*, and *number of children.* There were more foreign tourists on vacation (73.8%) than Malaysian tourists (64.3%). There was also a difference between Malaysian and foreign tourists regarding the duration of their stay at the destination area, where foreign tourists tended to stay longer than Malaysian tourists. In addition, there were certain Malaysian tourists who stated visits to friends or relatives (22.6%) as their main reason for travelling. Table 8.4 also explains that more than half the total respondents arranged their visit themselves. Apart from that, there were more foreign tourists on tour packages (19.2%) than Malaysians (6.1%). This situation may have been due to the fact that visits made by Malaysian tourists were mostly arranged by friends or relatives (36.6%). Furthermore, the majority of respondents travelled in small groups ranging from two to four people, while more Malaysian than foreign tourists travelled with children.

From the description in table 8.4 it may be argued that certain trip characteristics can be associated with Malaysian and foreign tourists. Generally, Malaysian tourists are more

likely to travel with children for the purposes of visiting friends and relatives, who eventually arrange their visit to the site. Meanwhile, foreign tourists are more likely to go on a vacation using a tour package, and to travel without children.

Table 8.4: Trip Characteristics of Respondents (N = 453)

Descriptions	Malaysian	Foreign	Total	χ^2-value (p-value)
	n = 213	n = 240	N = 453	
Purpose of visit				
vacation	137 (64.3%)	177 (73.8%)	314 (69.3%)	24.41
visiting friends	19 (8.9%)	5 (2.1%)	24 (5.3%)	(0.000)
visiting relatives	30 (14.1%)	12 (5.0%)	42 (9.3%)	
working	18 (8.5%)	30 (12.5%)	48 (10.6%)	
academic	9 (4.2%)	16 (6.7%)	25 (5.5%)	
Days in town				
day trip	72 (33.8%)	34 (14.2%)	106 (23.4%)	29.91
overnight	69 (32.4%)	75 (31.3%)	144 (31.8%)	(0.000)
less than one week	43 (20.2%)	72 (30.0%)	115 (25.4%)	
over one week	29 (13.6%)	59 (24.6%)	88 (19.4%)	
Arrangement				
self	122 (57.3%)	148 (61.7%)	270 (59.6%)	27.89
tour package	13 (6.1%)	46 (19.2%)	59 (13.0%)	(0.000)
friend	53 (24.9%)	33 (13.8%)	86 (19.0%)	
relative	25 (11.7%)	13 (5.4%)	38 (8.4%)	
Travelling				
with friend/partner	46 (21.6%)	41 (17.1%)	87 (19.2%)	52.34
in a group	166 (77.9%)	189 (78.7%)	355 (78.4%)	(0.000)
alone	1 (0.5%)	10 (4.2%)	11 (2.4%)	
Children				
yes	75 (35.2%)	47 (19.6%)	122 (26.9%)	14.00
no	138 (64.8%)	193 (80.4%)	331 (73.1%)	(0.000)

Figure 8.6: Purpose of Visit to Malaysia

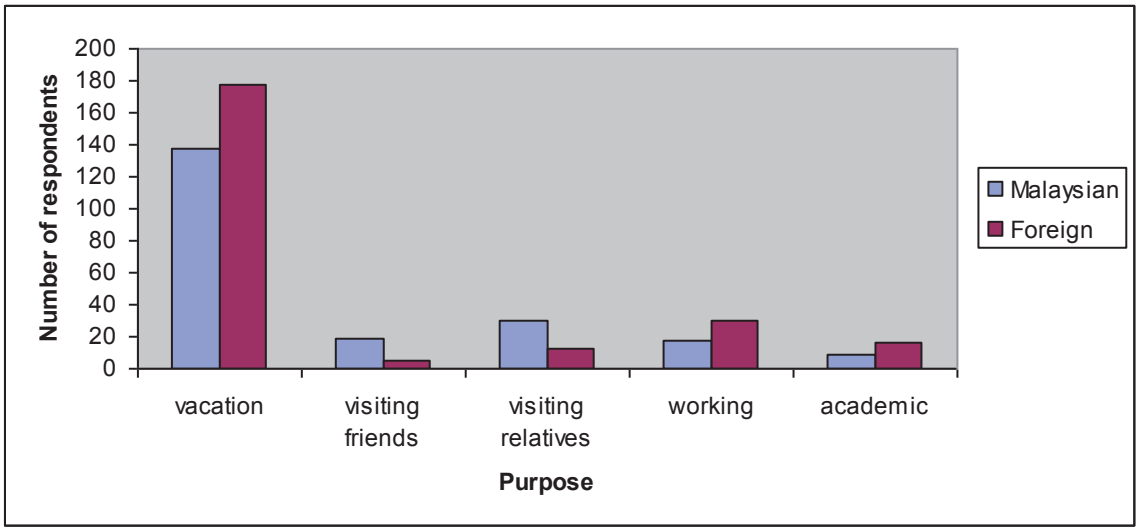
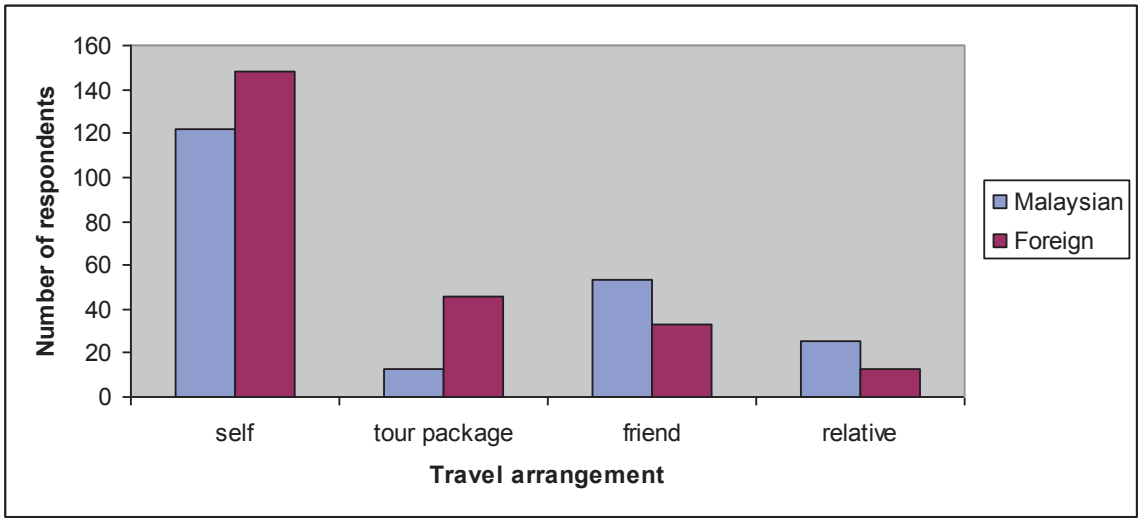


Figure 8.7: Travel Arrangement



In order to further understand tourists' travel behaviours, tourists were also asked about the sources of their knowledge of the sites they visited. Table 8.5 summarises the respondents' answers. Almost half the Malaysian respondents (41.8%) claimed that their interests in CH (CH) had drawn them to visit a site. Others stated that they either knew about a site through literature (27.2%) or via recommendations by friends or relatives (10.3%). The four most common answers given by foreign tourists were: interests in CH (23.8%), literature (20.0%), recommendations (18.3%), and travel guide books (14.6%).

Table 8.5: How Tourists Learned about Cultural Heritage Sites

Descriptions	Malaysian	Foreign	Total
	n = 113	n = 134	N = 247
Interest in CH	47 (41.8%)	32 (23.8%)	79 (32.0%)
Literature	32 (27.2%)	27 (20.0%)	59 (23.7%)
Family history	2 (1.4%)	4 (2.9%)	6 (2.3%)
Word of mouth	12 (10.3%)	25 (18.3%)	37 (14.8%)
Travel guide books	0.0	20 (14.6%)	20 (7.9%)
Internet	6 (4.7%)	11 (8.6%)	17 (6.8%)
School	8 (6.6%)	5 (3.8%)	13 (5.1%)
Advertisements	4 (3.7%)	8 (6.3%)	12 (4.7%)
Tour guide itineraries	1 (0.9%)	0.0	1 (0.4%)
Happened to find it while walking around town	1 (0.9%)	2 (1.7%)	3 (1.3%)

8.4 Interest in Cultural Heritage amongst Tourists

During the interviews, respondents were also asked about their general interests in CH. Table 8.6 summarises the results in percentages for Malaysian and foreign tourists, the calculated chi-square values for each characteristic, and their probability values between Malaysian and foreign tourists. The results demonstrate that there is a relationship in only one of the four characteristics. Although the majority of respondents from both groups claimed that they had some interest in CH, many of those with specific intentions of going to the site they visited could be found amongst the Malaysian tourists (26.3%). Table 8.7 describes other main motivations as stated by the respondents. Nonetheless, many (76.1% of Malaysian and 76.7% of foreign tourists) had the intention of visiting other cultural attractions in the country while on vacation. The analysis also reveals that despite the large number of respondents who claimed to have some interest in CH, only twelve respondents (2.6%) stated that they actually belonged to a heritage group, where four out of the twelve respondents were Malaysian, and another eight were foreign. Amongst the associations listed by the tourists were: The National Historical Study (Malaysia), the Urban Architecture Group (Malaysia), the Maori Cultural Study (New Zealand), and the National Trust (UK).

Table 8.6: Interest in Cultural Heritage (N = 453)

Descriptions	Malaysian	Foreign	Total	χ^2-value (p-value)
Respondents	213	240	453	
Interest in CH				
yes	113 (53.1%)	134 (55.8%)	247 (54.5%)	
no	100 (46.9%)	106 (44.2%)	206 (45.5%)	
Membership				
yes	4 (1.9%)	8 (3.3%)	12 (2.6%)	
no	209 (98.1%)	232 (96.7%)	441 (97.4%)	
Specific intentions to visit site				
yes	56 (26.3%)	23 (9.6%)	79 (17.4%)	21.88
no	157 (73.7%)	217 (90.4%)	374 (82.6%)	(0.000)
Plans to visit other sites				
yes	162 (76.1%)	184 (76.7%)	346 (76.4%)	
no	51 (23.9%)	56 (23.3%)	107 (23.6%)	

Table 8.7: Motivation to Travel and Visit to Destination

Type of Travel	Activities
Island	• Tourists would visit CH attractions available around town on the mainland, while making arrangement for their transportation to the island.
Highland	• Visit CH attractions while making a stopover at the nearest town or city before continuing their journey to the highland.
Beaches	• Visiting CH attractions are considered as a secondary activity since *sun, sand and sea* in resorts are the primary activity. • Tourists normally visit CH attractions near to their resort or in the city centre.
City tours	• Visiting CH attractions are included in the tourists' travel itinerary apart from shopping and eating out.
Visiting Southeast Asia countries	• Touring three countries – Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand. Visiting CH attractions as part of the city tours.
Stopover	• Tourists whose main motivation is to visit East Malaysia but stop over in Kuala Lumpur as it is the hub for travelling in Malaysia. Visit CH attractions as part of city tours.

To further analyse the findings, 54.5% (247) of the respondents who claimed to have an interest in CH were then asked to name their specific subject-of-interest in CH. Results indicate that only 48 of them managed to do so. The types of CH specified by these 48 respondents are displayed in table 8.8.

Table 8.8: Tourist Specific Subject-of-Interest

Living Culture • Traditional costumes • Old market town • Traditional bazaar
Craft • woodcraft • silverwork • kite making • *batik* making (traditional hand printed cloth) • *songket* weaving (traditional clothing made of gold and silver threads)
Martial Arts • silat
Gastronomy • traditional cuisines
Entertainment • *wayang kulit* (shadow puppet) • *dikir barat* (traditional folk songs originating from the State of Kelantan in the East Coast of Peninsular Malaysia) • traditional dance show • topspin (traditional game)
Buildings • pre 2nd World War houses • religious buildings (mosque, Hindu and Buddhist temples) • 2nd World War remains • castles • traditional houses
Colonial history • Portuguese • Dutch • British
Museums • National/State museums • Archaeological sites

In order to understand more about the characteristics of this group, further analyses were applied. This particular group was tested against three socio-demographic variables: (1) gender, (2) age, and (3) education level. Results of these tests are listed in tables 8.9, 8.10 and 8.11 respectively, while figures 8.8 and 8.9 illustrate the results in bar form. As noted earlier in this chapter, of the 247 respondents who claimed to have an interest in CH, 113 (45.7%) respondents were Malaysian, while the other 134 (54.3%) were foreign. In terms of gender, female respondents constituted 52.2% of the total number of respondents. Amongst the Malaysian tourists, 54% of the female respondents claimed to be interested in CH, while in terms of foreign tourists, the proportion between genders was about the same. In terms of age group, results in table 8.9 and figure 8.8 show that both the Malaysian and foreign tourists who were interested in CH were young. The majority of them were between 20 and 40 years old (78.1%). It is also interesting to note that there was a significant difference between the two groups of tourists in the "over 50" age group. Within this age group, foreign tourists showed a greater interest in CH than Malaysian tourists.

Table 8.9: Interest in Cultural Heritage between Gender

Tourist Type	Gender	Interest in CH
Malaysian n = 113	Male Female	52 (46.0%) 61 (54.0%)
Foreign n = 134	Male Female	66 (49.3%) 68 (50.7%)

Table 8.10: Interest in Cultural Heritage amongst Age Groups

Descriptions	Malaysian	Foreign	Total
	n = 113	n = 134	N = 247
Under 20	3 (2.7%)	1 (0.7%)	4 (1.6%)
20 – 30	53 (46.9%)	60 (44.8%)	113 (45.7%)
31 – 40	35 (31.0%)	45 (33.6%)	80 (32.4%)
41 – 50	16 (14.2%)	13 (9.7%)	29 (11.7%)
Over 50	6 (5.3%)	15 (11.2%)	21 (8.5%)

Figure 8.8: Interest in Cultural Heritage amongst Age Groups

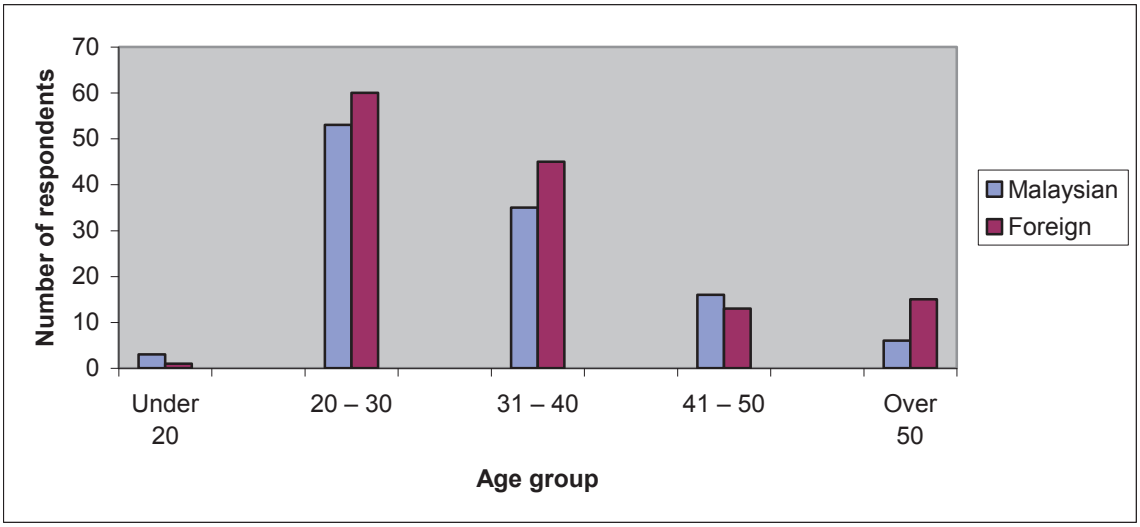
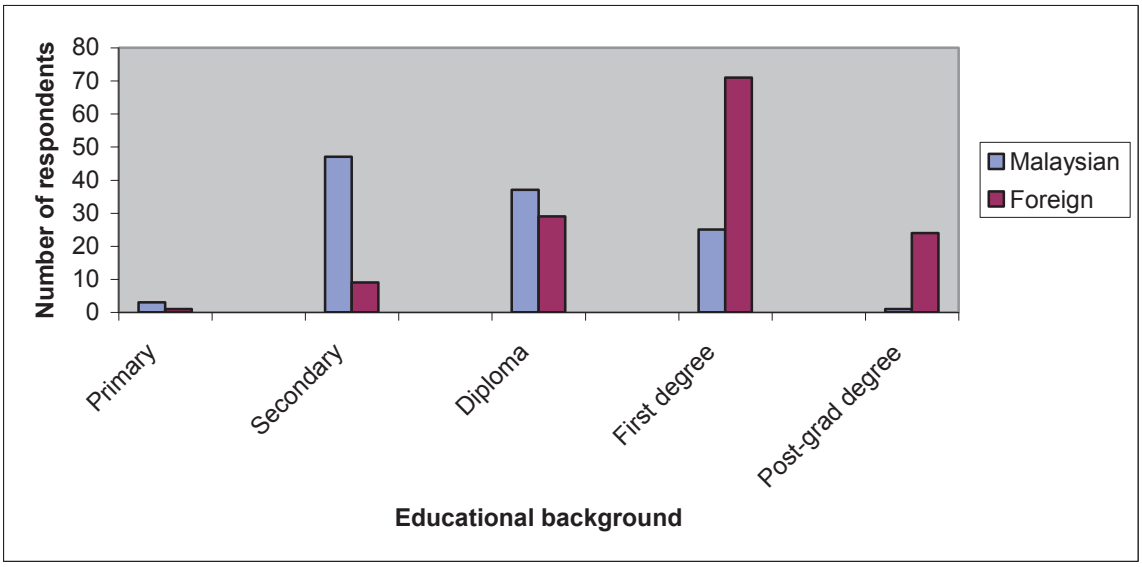


Table 8.11 describes the education levels of the respondents. Results reveal that nearly 42% of Malaysian tourists only completed educations up to secondary school, while nearly 55% held either college diplomas or university degrees. In contrast, a majority of the foreign respondents were highly educated, with more than 90% holding at least a college diploma.

Table 8.11: Interest in Cultural Heritage amongst Tourists with Different Educational Background

Descriptions	Malaysian	Foreign	Total
	n = 113	n = 134	N = 247
Primary	3 (2.7%)	1 (0.7%)	4 (1.6%)
Secondary	47 (41.6%)	9 (6.8%)	56 (22.7%)
Diploma	37 (32.7%)	29 (21.6%)	66 (26.7%)
First degree	25 (22.1%)	71 (53.0%)	96 (38.9%)
Post-grad degree	1 (0.9%)	24 (17.9%)	25 (10.1%)

Figure 8.9: Interest in Cultural Heritage amongst Tourists with Different Educational Background



8.5 Heritage Presentation

The fifth section of the analysis details tourists' perceptions regarding heritage presentation. Table 8.12 displays the results. More than half the total respondents agreed that the sites they visited were well cared for, although 17% of the Malaysian tourists did not hold the same opinion. More than 70% of the total number of respondents agreed that the sites they visited lacked information. The shortage of information refers to the interpretation of the site, and information about other similar attractions nearby. Table 8.12 also reveals that nearly 70% of foreign tourists owned maps, as opposed to 23% of Malaysian tourists. Meanwhile, only about 26% of the total respondents used tour guide services while visiting an attraction site. However, of this 26%, 13 respondents claimed that they were not satisfied with the services. As explained in table 8.13, unprofessional service was the main reason for people's dissatisfaction. Meanwhile, table 8.14 indicates the unavailability of tour guides as the main reason for the respondents' decision not to hire one (74.8%). Finally, respondents were asked if they were willing to pay an entrance fee, in order to contribute directly to the conservation of the specific site. As shown in table 8.12, more than half the respondents agreed to do so, although the majority of those who agreed were foreign tourists (63.8%).

Table 8.12: Heritage Presentation (N = 453)

Descriptions	Malaysian	Foreign	Total
Respondents	213	240	453
Well cared for			
yes	115 (54.0%)	123 (51.3%)	238 (52.5%)
reasonably	61 (28.6%)	115 (47.9%)	176 (38.9%)
no	37 (17.4%)	2 (0.8%)	39 (8.6%)
More information			
yes	159 (74.6%)	160 (66.7%)	319 (70.4%)
fine as it is	48 (22.5%)	68 (28.3%)	116 (25.6%)
indifferent	6 (2.8%)	12 (5.0%)	18 (4.0%)
More signage			
yes	164 (77.0%)	161 (67.1%)	325 (71.7%)
fine as it is	45 (21.1%)	69 (28.8%)	114 (25.2%)
indifferent	4 (1.9%)	10 (4.2%)	14 (3.1%)
Own a map			
yes	49 (23.0%)	166 (69.2%)	215 (47.5%)
no	164 (77.0%)	74 (30.8%)	238 (52.5%)
Hire guides			
yes	28 (13.1%)	89 (37.1%)	117 (25.8%)
no	185 (86.9%)	151 (62.9%)	336 (74.2%)
Pay fee for conservation			
yes	98 (46.0%)	153 (63.8%)	251 (55.4%)
no	115 (54.0%)	87 (36.3%)	202 (44.6%)

Table 8.13: Reasons for Dissatisfaction with Tour Guide

Descriptions	Malaysian	Foreign	Total
	n = 8	n = 15	N = 23
Not professional	4 (50.0%)	7 (46.7%)	11 (47.8%)
Not interesting	1 (12.5%)	3 (20.0%)	4 (17.4%)
Too academic	2 (25.0%)	5 (33.3%)	7 (30.4%)
Other reasons	1 (12.5%)	0.0	1 (4.3%)

Table 8.14: Reasons for Not Engaging a Tour Guide

Descriptions	Malaysian	Foreign	Total
	n = 165	n = 149	N = 314
Not available	129 (78.2%)	106 (71.1%)	235 (74.8%)
Too expensive	30 (18.2%)	16 (10.7%)	46 (14.6%)
Included in package tour	6 (3.6%)	27 (18.1%)	33 (10.5%)

8.6 Factors Influencing Tourists' Decisions

Having carried out the analysis specifically about the tourists who claimed to have specific interests in CH, this study then focuses on the tourists in general. In this section, an instrument was developed in order to understand factors that could influence the tourists' decisions to visit a certain site. The instrument consisted of ten independent statements (items), and respondents were asked to rate these ten items. The numbers from 1 to 5 were the exact scores that respondents would have gained when answering all of the ten items (as explained in page 153). The rating choices were:

1 = not important at all; 2 = not important; 3 = somehow important; 4 = important;
5 = very important.

However, prior to the analysis, the 10 independent items were put through a reliability test. This test was conducted in order to confirm the reliability of each statement in the instrument. The first step in the test was to check how many respondents responded to all of the items. Results indicate that all 453 responded accordingly, signifying that all of the respondents were valid for the measurement. The next step was to conduct the reliability test itself. The outcome of this test shows that all of the 10 statements were quite reliable, with the value of alpha equal to 0.65, as shown in table 8.15. Furthermore, the 10 items were also positively correlated with the total motivation score (see appendix G). As a result, all of the items were retained to compute the score.

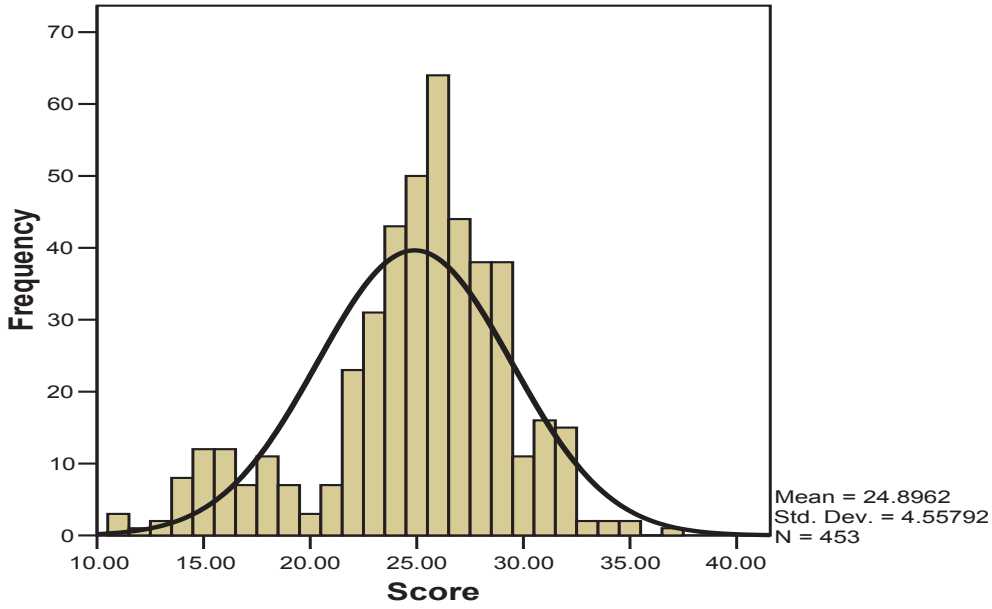
Table 8.15: Reliability of Motivation Instrument

Cronbach's Alpha	Conbach's Alpha based on Standardised items	N of items
.652	.648	10

As mentioned in the paragraph above, respondents gained scores between 1 and 5 when they answered each of the ten items. However, the total score of 10 items that each respondent could actually collect varied from 10 (1 ×10) to 50 (5 × 10)[6]. Figure 8.10 represents the distribution of scores for the total 453 respondents. The results reveal that the score distribution ranged from 11 to 37, with a mean value of 24.896 and standard deviation of 4.558.

[6] 10 (1 ×10) to 50 (5 × 10): 1 is the minimum score for each statement; 10 refers to the number of statements tested, and 5 is the maximum score for each statement

Figure 8.10: Distribution of the Total Score of Each Respondent on the 10 Statements



Next, the discussion will proceed to how each of the respondents rated each of the 10 statements (refer to appendix H). The majority of tourists (74%) believed that if a site was free of charge, this could have been important but not important enough to influence or even alter their decision-making process. On the contrary, 25% of the respondents believed that free entrance to the site was an important factor, while another 55% did not agree with this statement. Meanwhile, nearly half the tourists (43%) stated that the number of people visiting the site could influence their decision-making process. In contrast, *distance* and *children's interests* were considered not important, with percentages of 70% and 91.8% respectively. *Family history* was also considered an unimportant factor (99%), as well as *host's suggestions* (61%).

Findings reveal other important results. The majority of the respondents were more inclined toward the following four statements: *my interest in CH, enrichment of knowledge, my specific interest in this site, and to experience the community's CH*. Many believed that these four statements had an influence on their decision to visit an attraction site. Tourists who were in favour of the four statements had an interest, generally if not specifically, in CH. At the same time, they considered knowledge about a new culture important to acquire while visiting new places. They also believed that the expansion of knowledge would make their visit a more pleasant one. Their characteristics, furthermore, resembled those who were known as "special interest tourists," in the jargon put forward by the literature (Timothy and Boyd, 2003; McKercher and du Cross, 2002; Kerstetter *et*

al., 2001; Moscardo, 1996; Zeppel and Hall, 1991). Nevertheless, at this point of time, it is too early to make any assumptions.

8.7 Independent Sample t-test

In this section, the overall mean for each of the statements was calculated (refer to appendix I). The overall mean scores ranged from 1.24, calculated for statement 4 (*my children's interests*), to 3.06 calculated for statement 9 (*specific interest in this site*). Furthermore, 5 statements recorded a mean score of nearly or more than 3.00, indicating that the statements are somehow able to influence respondents' decisions to visit a CH attraction site. An independent sample t-test was also conducted in order to statistically compare the differences in means between the two groups. Results show that there was a highly significant difference in the mean score of five out of the eight significant items when tested at 5%. Significant differences occurred in statements such as: *the site is free, distance, my children's interests, family history*, and *my host's suggestions*. Mean scores of Malaysian tourists were found to be statistically higher in all five items than those of foreign tourists. However, in order to gauge the results of the 10 items in greater detail, two separate analyses were conducted. The first part focused on Malaysian tourists, and the other part on foreign tourists. In so doing, the differences in the mean scores for each group were tested against several factors.

8.7.1 Independent Sample t-test on Malaysian Tourists

As mentioned above, the mean for the Malaysian tourists was tested statically against five factors. Those factors included (1) gender, (2) age group, (3) education level, (4) children, and (5) interest in CH. For the purpose of the t-test, age groups were divided into a *younger group* and an *older group*. Hence, respondents who were aged 40 or lower were labelled the *younger group*, while those who were aged more than 40 were labelled the *older group*. At the same time, the same procedure was applied to factor number 3, *education level*. For this factor, those who had completed no more than secondary school educations were labelled as having *basic education*. In contrast, respondents who had completed at least a college-level education were labelled as having a *higher education*. Results of the t-test reveal that the significant differences in mean could only be found in three factors. Those factors include gender, children, and educational level (refer to appendix J).

The independent sample t-test reveals that there were two means with statistically different gender factors. Those items include: *number of people visiting the site and host's suggestions*. Means ratings by male respondents were found to be statistically higher for both items, as compared to the female respondents' ratings. Meanwhile, four items were found to be statistically different for the children's factor. The mean ratings were statistically higher on items such as: *site is free, distance, my children's interests*, and *my specific interest in this site*. On the other hand, there was only one item showing a higher mean rating from respondents without children, as illustrated in figure 8.11. The third and last item was education. Significant differences in the mean rating were found to be in the items *my specific interest in this site and to experience community's CH*. Results reveal that respondents with higher education levels rated the two items higher than those with only basic educations. Figure 8.12 displays the mean differences between the two groups.

Figure 8.11: Mean Comparison between Malaysian Tourists with Children and Malaysian Tourists without Children

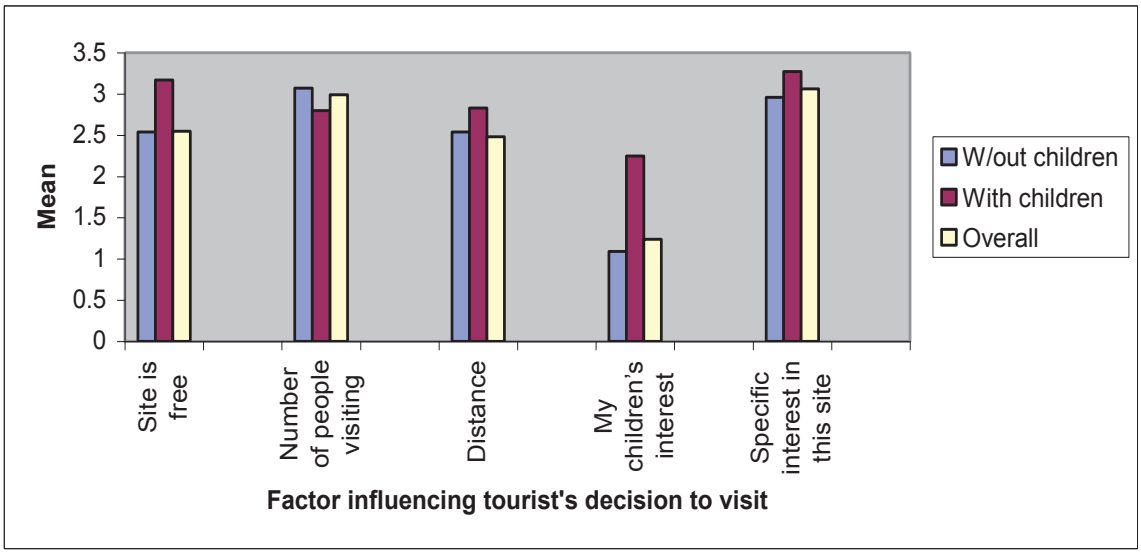
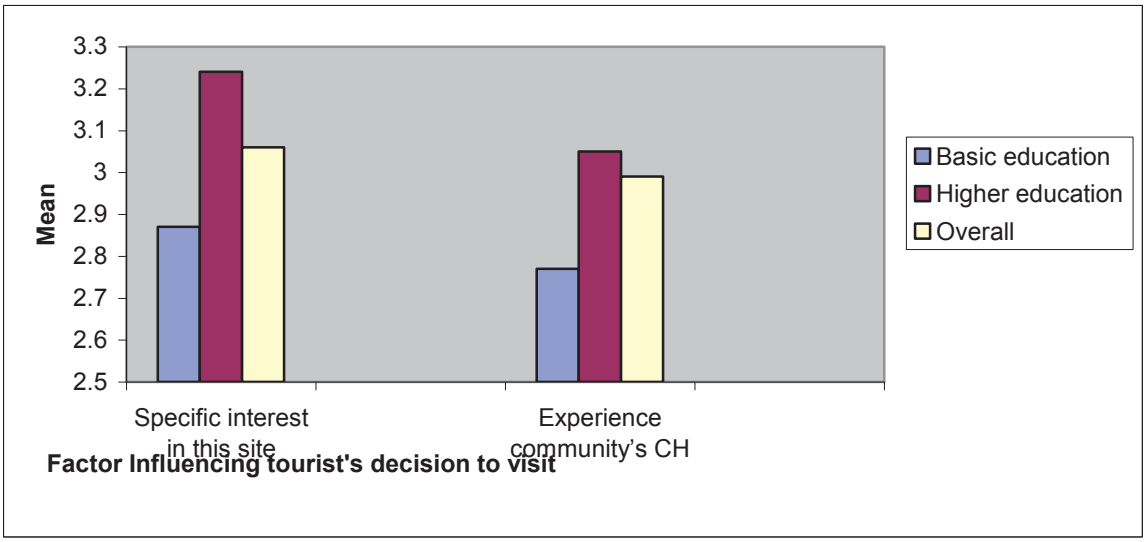


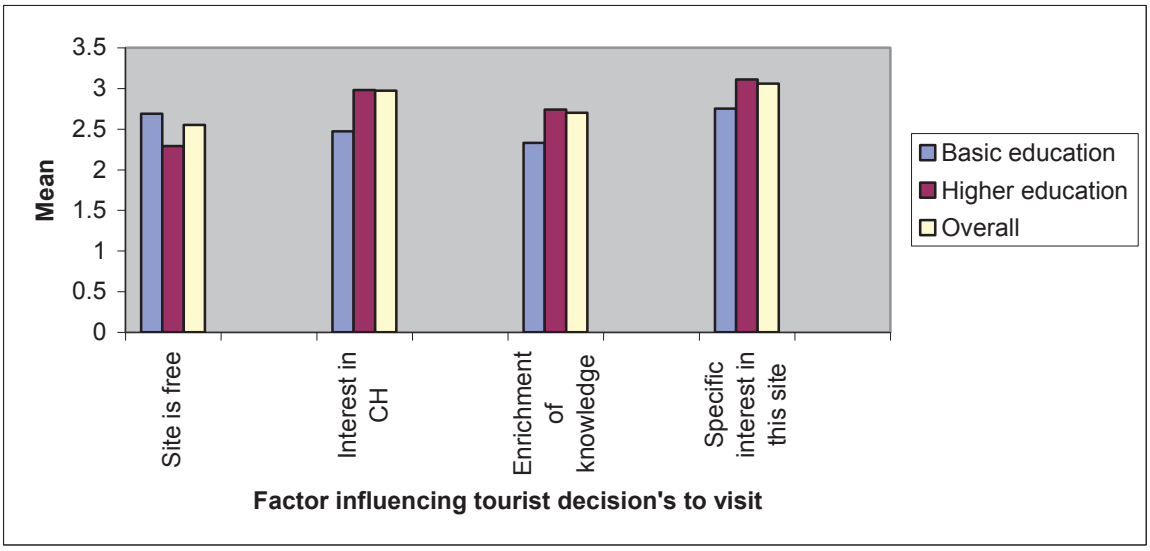
Figure 8.12: Mean Comparison between Malaysian Tourists with Basic Education and Malaysian Tourists with Higher Education



8.7.2 Independent Sample t-test on Foreign Tourists

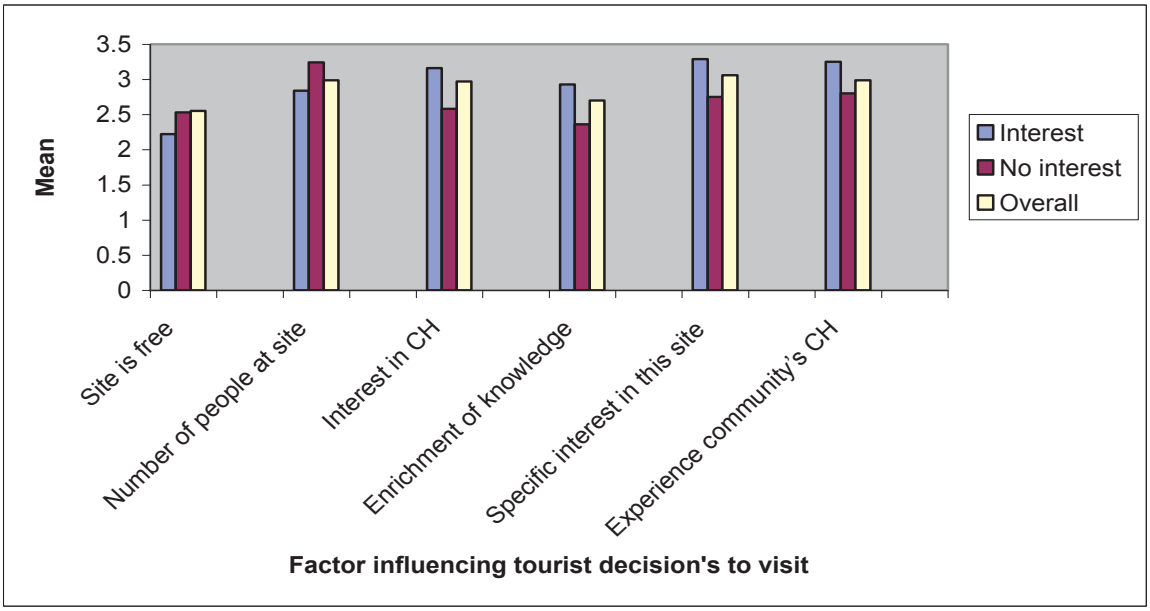
The same test was applied in order to compare means between the two groups of foreign tourists. Again, the same five factors were used to compare means against the ten items. Those factors included gender, age, education level, children, and interests in CH. In terms of groups with children and those without children, the results show that there was only one item with a significant difference in mean (refer to appendix K). Mean ratings by respondents who were travelling with children were found to be statistically higher for the item *distance*. The second factor was education. Means ratings by respondents with basic education levels were found to be statistically higher on the item *site is free*. In contrast, three items were found to be statistically significant from respondents with higher education levels. Those items were *interest in CH, enrichment of knowledge*, and *specific interest in this site*. Figure 8.13 illustrates the results.

Figure 8.13: Mean Comparison between Foreign Tourists with Basic Education and Foreign Tourists with Higher Education



Finally, six items were significantly different in the mean ratings for the factor *interest in CH*. Respondents who were not interested in CH rated higher for the factors *site is free* and *number of people at the site*. However, those who were interested in CH rated higher in four other factors. Results also demonstrate that there was no item statistically different in mean for gender and age group within foreign tourists. Figure 8.14 illustrates the results.

Figure 8.14: Mean Comparison between Foreign Tourists with Interest and Foreign Tourists without Interest in Cultural Heritage



8.8 General Description and Comments Regarding Sites Visited

In the final part of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to describe the sites they visited. Several descriptions were listed in the questionnaire, and respondents were asked to answer according to the list provided. Table 8.16 illustrates the five factors most described by the respondents. Results indicate that more than half the total respondents described sites as educational. However, a comparison between the two groups reveals that foreign tourists were in greater agreement than Malaysian tourists regarding this issue (70% and 59.2% respectively). In contrast, many Malaysian tourists agreed that sites were suitable for family outings (32.4%).

Finally, respondents were asked whether they had the intention of revisiting sites in the future and whether they would recommend those sites to others. As listed in table 8.17, the majority of the respondents agreed with the questions (93.6% and 92.95% respectively).

Table 8.16: General Descriptions of Cultural Heritage Sites

Descriptions	Malaysian	Foreign	Total
	n = 213	n = 240	N = 453
Educational	126 (59.2%)	168 (70.0%)	294 (64.9%)
Suitable for families	69 (32.4%)	37 (15.4%)	106 (23.4%)
Boring	2 (0.9%)	5 (2.1%)	7 (1.5%)
Enjoyable	12 (5.6%)	29 (12.1%)	41 (9.1%)
Entertaining	4 (1.9%)	1 (0.4%)	5 (1.1%)

Table 8.17: Recommendations

Descriptions	Malaysian	Foreign	Total
	n = 213	n = 240	N = 453
Revisit site			
yes	195 (92.0%)	228 (95.0%)	424 (93.6%)
no	17 (8.0%)	12 (5.0%)	29 (6.4)
Recommend site			
yes	191 (89.7%)	230 (95.8%)	421 (92.9%)
no	22 (10.3%)	10 (4.2%)	32 (7.1%)

8.9 Conclusions

The main aim of this chapter has been to understand the nature of tourists visiting CH attractions in Malaysia. This has been addressed through the identification of two different types of tourists. In line with the objectives of the study, tourists were divided into Malaysian and foreign groups. Data were analysed from a total of 213 Malaysians and 240 foreign tourists. Results indicated that tourists came from a variety of social and economic backgrounds, though nearly all of them were on vacation. Results also revealed that a number of tourists who visited CH attractions had specific interests in CH. Meanwhile, the mean analysis and the independent sample t-test for both Malaysian and foreign tourists revealed many important results. Tourists' decisions to visit a particular site are influenced by several factors which varied from general (site is free; number of people at site; distance) to specific (interest in cultural heritage; family history; specific interest on the site). Although some of the decisions were driven by either internal or external factors, many were also influenced by both situations. Examples of external factors included family, other tourists' behaviours, and finance. In terms of internal factors, one example was the tourists' own interest levels, either generally or specifically, in CH. Finally, nearly all of the respondents enjoyed their visits, and said they would like to revisit these places in the future. The following chapter will focus on the discussions of the findings.

Chapter 9. Discussion of Findings

9.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a discussion about the results of the community surveys. The results suggest that different community groups have different perceptions towards the development of CH tourism. Nevertheless, their goals are the same: to preserve their CH and improve their quality of life through economic benefits. The second part of the chapter discusses the results of the tourist surveys. It discusses the general tourist profiles. The results are then compared with existing literature on the characteristics of CH tourists. The analysis identifies several significant issues. Finally this chapter discusses points extracted from interviews with the authorities.

9.2 Local Communities

The results of this study suggest that any authorities thinking of developing CH tourism need to consider local communities' perceptions before developing any CH tourism projects. In general, the survey respondents represented various social and economic backgrounds within the local communities. It is interesting to note that a majority stated that they learned about their own CH mostly in schools (see table 7.5, p. 151). Only respondents over 30 years old stated that they learned about CH from the elderly as well as in schools. The fact that the majority of the community members learned about their heritage in schools can be explained by the fact that younger respondents tended to live in the city or suburbs with their parents, without extended family such as grandparents. Contact with extended family, particularly elderly members, would have been limited to school and religious holidays. By the time they reached their 20s, many would have been either enrolled in higher education systems, or have started working. Hence, time spent with family would have been greatly reduced. Therefore, changes in socio-demography and lifestyles, as well as processes of urbanisation, may be seen as direct causes of this situation.

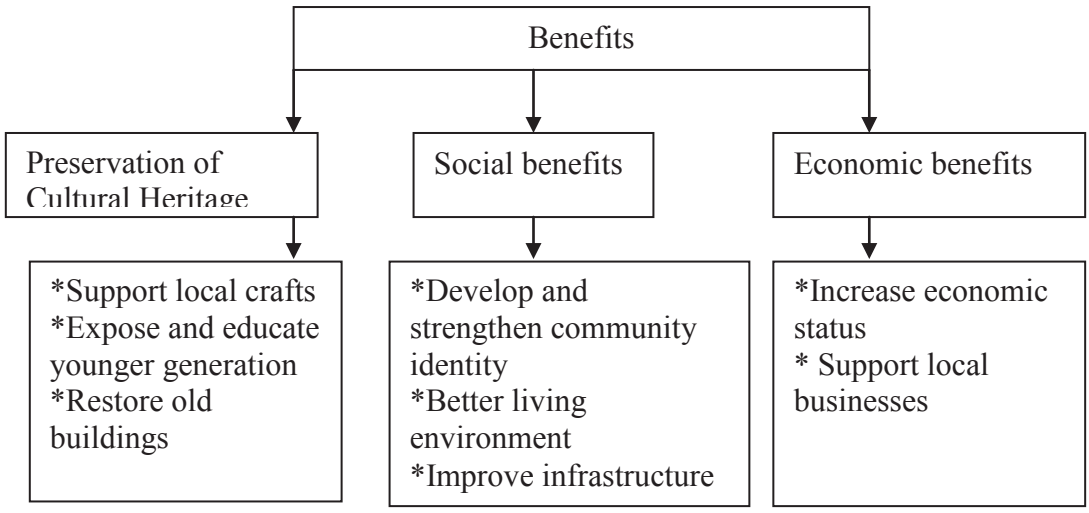
It is also interesting to note that when asked about how they perceived the importance of CH, many community members indicated that preserving the CH for future generations was their main concern (55%) as compared to economic benefits (10%) (see table 7.6, p.152). One conclusion can be derived from this discussion. As noted above, the majority of the respondents from all age groups believed that their CH was an important part of their lives, particularly for the benefit of future generations. At the same time, the

majority of community members also claimed that most of their knowledge about CH was taught to them by teachers at school. In this sense, the current communities most likely would have expected the school system to be the provider or source of knowledge and information for future generations as well. Therefore, it is safe to conclude that schools have been playing an important role for some time, and certainly will be even more important in the future, in terms of educating community members about their own CH.

In general, local community members supported the possibility of developing their CH sites into tourist attractions. Nonetheless, tourism authorities seeking to develop CH tourism in Malaysia should realise that issues relating to local communities are complex. As much as community members may serve as hosts to the tourists, they are also part of the attraction. Results indicate that three factors were likely to influence the perceptions of local community members regarding CH development and their support for such development: (a) gender, (b) occupation (tourism vs. non-tourism related jobs), and (c) the use of CH tourism resources. In general, males were more supportive towards the development of CH tourism, while female members of the community were quite sceptical. Meanwhile, those working in tourism-related jobs were more likely to support CH tourism development. In general, support from the communities greatly depends on the types of CH resources used in the tourism industry.

As noted earlier, the authorities should understand that support from local communities towards any type of CH tourism development is essential. Thus, this study also demonstrates that both positive and negative impacts perceived by local community members should be considered. It has been found that the tourist industry does appear to have a major influence in promoting the arts and crafts industries (see figure 9.1). For example, in Kota Bharu, traditional silver-based jewellery and kites are in high demand, and are currently being extensively produced for tourists and for local markets. In fact, this high demand has led some locals to establish shops selling local crafts. On the other hand, while some of the community members were concerned with economic factors, others were more concerned with non-economic benefits and cost factors. Regarding the benefits, a large number of respondents felt that the development of CH tourism attractions in the area were satisfactory. This was because, due to the development, the present environment and their living conditions had improved, with better infrastructure and facilities. The activities also made them aware of the importance of protecting their heritage and at the same time educating the younger generations about heritage.

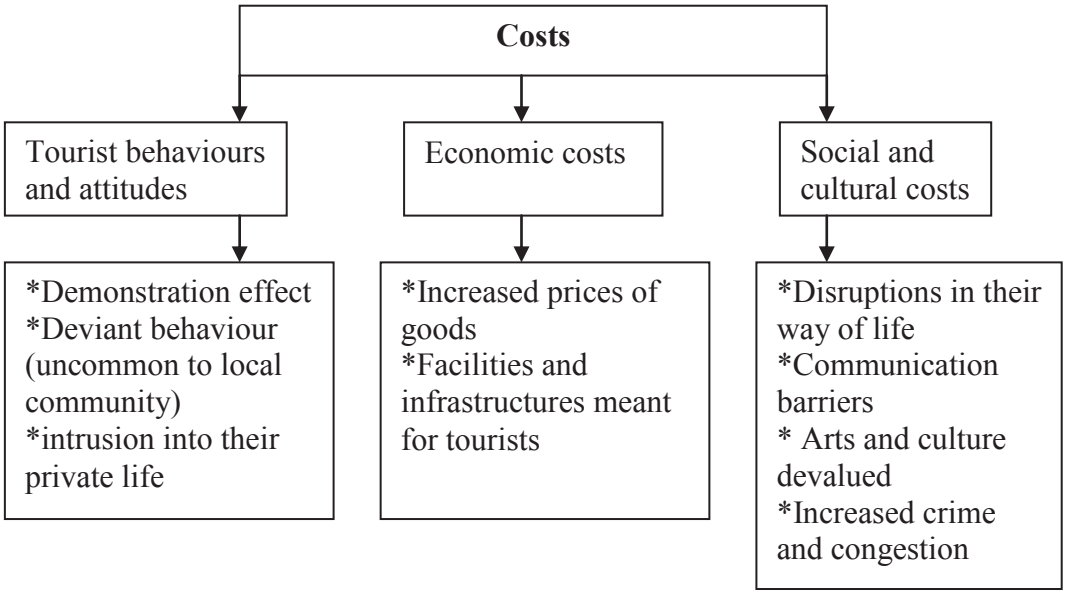
Figure 9.1: Perceived Benefits by Local Communities



It is also interesting to note that despite the positive benefits perceived by the community members, they were still uncertain about whether or not visiting tourists understood and valued the meaning of the CH presented to them. This may be explained by the fact that there are not many opportunities for locals to interact with tourists. A large number of communities have no direct contact with tourists, particularly foreign tourists, and only see them in passing. In this case, as illustrated in table 7.3 (p. 148), only 70 respondents (15.7%) were employed in the tourism industry. The fact that they worked in tourism-related jobs does not necessarily mean that they had direct contact with tourists. Even if they did, as discussed in chapter 6 (p. 127), the types of tourists visiting the area also may have influenced the extent of the interactions between the hosts and guests.

Figure 9.2 highlights concerns expressed by local community members about the types of activities performed by CH tourists, and the impacts of CH tourism on their community as a whole. Certain tourist activities related to their personal lives were seen as unacceptable. Female Muslim respondents were opposed to tourists entering local houses and religious buildings. Therefore, concerns about certain tourist activities must be seen as real, and cannot be taken lightly.

Figure 9.2: Perceived Costs by Local Communities



It is generally acknowledged in this analysis that CH tourism may have positive effects on the locals. Even though many considered that an increase in the number of tourists at attraction sites had not seriously affected their lives, social relationships, and cultural dispositions, this study also reveals that 40% of local community members would like to see the number of tourists at the attraction sites either remain as it is, diminish, or be non-existent (see table 7.7, p. 153). In addition, almost 50% of the respondents, especially women, did not like the idea of tourists entering their homes (table 7.13, p. 158). These results highlight an important indication about the community members. Clearly, their willingness to accept the fact that their CH has become part of the tourist attractions does have certain limits. Therefore, should growth persist, it is likely that the pressures of tourism on CH destinations will become excessive, and consequently damage local perceptions. In addition to the number of tourist arrivals, figure 9.2 shows that the communities were concerned with socio-cultural and economic costs as well.

9.2.1 *Social and Cultural Costs*

For many of the survey sites studied, other types of tourism had long been established, with many developed for the mass market. Therefore, concerns over social and cultural costs may have resulted from community members' experiences of previous tourism activities. Such concerns should still be taken seriously by the authorities. For example, in Penang, in addition to CH, beach, business, and shopping tourism are also rigorously promoted. However, for decades, beach tourism in Penang, which is also referred to as 'the sun and sea attraction,' has been perceived negatively by community members

(Kadir, 1982). Over the years 'hippy culture' has commonly been synonymous with the development of beach tourism in Penang. As described by Hitchock *et al*. (1999:7), the term 'hippy' is 'constantly applied to any White European deemed to have a disreputable appearance'. Despite a total make-over in terms of development and the promotion of Penang as a travel destination, many are still concerned, which has led them to associate present-day beach tourism with past social costs. Therefore, it may be contended that their prior experiences with the tourist industry have made them unconsciously generalise their perceptions about all tourism activities.

9.2.2 *Economic Costs*

For many respondents, tourism was seen as a reason for the increase in standards of living, since it was able to provide employment opportunities. Having said this, to generalise such a notion to apply to all of the sites studied would be quite misleading. This is because some of the cultural attractions were also consumed by the communities on a daily basis, such as clothing, local arts and crafts, and silverware. Therefore, competition existed between the locals and tourists, which led to an increase in the price of many items. One good example is the Historical Market in Pasar Siti Khadijah. Despite the ever-increasing demand for traditional cuisines, crafts, and clothing materials at the Historical Market by Malaysian and foreign tourists, local residents also consumed such products. Thus, although it is not dramatic, enough competition does exist to stir up some feelings of dissatisfaction. The rise in prices, furthermore, can be explained by the fact that the retailers are the ones in continuous and direct contact with the tourists. Moreover, the fact that they depend on tourism as a source of income could make them feel that tourists and tourism are purely commercial matters.

9.3 Tourists

In general, the results show that the numbers of Malaysian and foreign respondents were fairly balanced. They indicate that, at the time of the field survey, both Malaysian and foreign tourists visited the attractions. However, the profile of foreign tourists did not resemble the existing profile of tourists who visited Malaysia in general, as reported in the official publication issued by the MOT (Tourism Malaysia, 2002:8). Significant differences were found, particularly in terms of the tourists' countries of origin. As discussed in Chapter 4, most of the foreign tourists were from the Asian region, particularly from the ASEAN region, and the numbers declined as distances increased. The results of this survey, however, contradict the general profile. Almost 80% of the

foreign respondents interviewed were from non-Asian countries. Most of them were from Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom (UK), and the United States of America (USA).

Recent studies on the characteristics of CH tourists claim that many of those who visit CH attractions are members of the older population (Mill *et al.*, 2002:256, Lawson, 1999:444). This study, however, does not support such literature. Findings reveal that CH attractions in Malaysia are visited by those of all ages, with the majority falling within the age group of 20 to 40 years old, and an average age in the late 20s, indicating that tourists who visit CH attractions in Malaysia are from a much younger group than those described in the literature. The dominant age group of 20 to 40 years, furthermore, sees an equal representation of tourists from all three categories: Malaysian, foreign ASEAN, and foreign non-ASEAN. On one hand, as noted above, the results of this study do not support the existing literature on CH tourists. On the other hand, the findings are in line with the general trend of tourist arrivals to Malaysia. As noted in the previous chapter, the majority of foreign tourists who visit Malaysia are between 25 to 45 years old. Two conclusions may be derived from these findings. At this point in time, it is important to emphasise that almost all of the discussions in the literature regarding the characteristics of CH tourists are based in developed countries (Poria, 2001; Prentice, 1993; Zeppel and Hall, 1991), and that many of these studies have focused on domestic tourism (Mill, *et.al*, 2002; Confer, *et al.*, 2002; Kerstetter, *et al*., 2001). These two conditions, furthermore, may have been the main reasons why the literature often documents that many of the tourists at CH attractions are from older populations. The next paragraphs elaborate upon these two factors further.

In developed nations, workers remain longer in the workforce. For instance, in the UK and USA, employees can work past the age of 60 (Mill, *et al.*, 2002:254). In contrast, the current maximum working age in Malaysia is 56. Therefore, in many cases, the mature workforce in developed countries with a maximum working age of 60 and above would probably have reached the *empty nest* stage at the end of their working lives. *Empty nest* is marketing jargon used to describe a point in a person's lifecycle when there are no more dependent children living under the same roof (Mill, *et al*., 2002:263). Furthermore, according to the literature, leisure time decreases with age until children leave the home; then the amount of leisure time increases again (Lawson, 1999:445, Javalgi *et al.*, 1999:425). This increase, moreover, continues into the retirement period. In fact, during the *empty nest* stage, a person is said to have better purchasing power and more leisure time. However, upon retirement, he or she generally faces a decrease in income, though

that income eventually remains relatively fixed. Consequently, many choose to travel. In fact, according to Mill and Morrison (2002:265), studies in developed countries reveal that travel patterns change significantly in those over the age of 60. People tend to travel to places they are familiar with and preferably not to foreign destinations. However, if they do travel to foreign destinations, the journey is highly motivated by a strong desire for a travel experience as a means of self-actualisation, as a way to give meaning to people's lives through finding their roots. Example would be Americans visiting the UK.

In developed countries, domestic tourism is widely promoted and highly popular. In some cases, domestic tourism is considered as an important aspect, and plays a significant role in the country's economy. A good example would be in the USA, where it is more probable that a greater number of older people participate in tourism activities. Three factors may encourage the development of domestic tourism within these countries:

1. The choices in modes of transportation are greater and not restricted to air transportation only. Older people may have more choices that suit their preferences and capabilities.

2. By having a much closer destination to visit, people do not have to rely on lengthy journeys and long holidays, as short breaks and weekend holidays that are closer to home are abundantly available. Thus, short journeys are less tiring.

3. The availability of short breaks encourages off-season travelling, and offers two significant advantages:
    - Cheaper prices and
    - Less crowding.

People could visit destinations or attractions at bargain rates, as demands would not be at their peak. Furthermore, as such destinations would not be full of people, an off-season period would mean a more enjoyable and relaxing holiday for many tourists. As noted earlier, being free from any dependent children, the pre-retirement and post retirement group in an *empty nest* category could take this opportunity to enjoy travelling at bargain rates. Based on this explanation it could be argued that all three factors described above may in one way or another influence the travelling patterns in the older populations of developed countries.

Regarding CH tourists in Malaysia, this study concludes that there are two explanations that could be derived from the data. First, as noted earlier, the majority of foreign tourists who visited CH attractions came from non-ASEAN countries. Due to the long distances between the tourists' countries of origin and Malaysia, about 72% (p. 166) of the tourists could be categorised as long-haul travellers. A long-haul traveller means that a person has to travel more than 8 hours in order to reach his or her holiday destination. Thus, such journeys may be considered very long for many elderly tourists, which would explain the lower numbers of older tourists visiting the attraction sites. Second, although activities related to domestic tourism have long been established in Malaysia, particularly in terms of visiting friends/relatives, domestic tourism as an industry is still in its infancy stage. As discussed in chapter 3, the tourism authorities only recently began to actively promote domestic tourism, particularly to avoid outflows of national currency abroad. Campaigns to capture the domestic market have been introduced with a healthy and positive participation in the private sector. Thus, although holiday culture is a growing trend in Malaysia, it is still not well developed or participated in by most Malaysians. Thus results from the analyses represent sound evidence that the age factor differs between the CH tourists in Malaysia and CH tourists discussed in the literature. Nevertheless, it provides a significant contribution to the expansion of knowledge, particularly regarding the development of CH tourism in Malaysia.

In addition to the selected demographic differences, the data also reveal a number of similarities and differences between Malaysian and foreign tourists in terms of actual travel behaviours and motivations. The most common type of trip taken by both groups was the leisure type, since the majority were on holiday. Despite the fact that the interview survey was performed at the CH attractions, a significant number of interviewed tourists claimed that their visits to the CH attractions only represented secondary trip activities, rather than their main reason for travelling (see table 8.7, p. 176). Aside from this, among the leisure tourists, visiting friends and/or relatives also appeared to be a main reason for travel, with their hosts mainly making their arrangements for visiting such attractions. Furthermore, the findings of this study also reveal that Malaysian tourists were more likely than foreign tourists to travel with children while visiting the attractions. Nonetheless, many Malaysian tourists also travelled without children, indicating that the domestic market is not homogenous. In terms of travel arrangements, in general, almost 60% of the tourists stated that they independently arranged their visits to CH attractions (57% Malaysian and 61% foreign).

Nevertheless, the number of tourists travelling in group tours and family/relatives was still sizeable. Unlike independent travellers, tourists on group tours are confined to tour programmes, and their influences on decision-making are minimal. However, a decision to join a tour group specialising in visiting CH attractions could indicate that tourists may have some knowledge of, or interest in, CH, if not in the attractions *per se*. Aside from travel arrangements made by tourists, it is also important to understand how and where the tourists retrieve information regarding CH attractions. It is interesting to note that tourists tend to rely more on personal sources. For example, many tourists claimed that their general interests in CH influenced their decisions to visit sites. Information from books as well as recommendations by friends/family members also played important roles in their decision-making processes. Governmental promotions, however, did not seem to have as strong of an influence on their decisions.

Meanwhile, the levels of tourist satisfaction have been found to be based on the presentation of the CH attractions, as well as on the services supporting the attractions. For instance, both Malaysian and foreign tourists claimed that information regarding the attractions was quite limited, and they would have liked more. Their dissatisfaction was also caused by the limited and poor services of the tour guides. Thus, related authorities should design more tourist-oriented programmes or activities to respond to such dissatisfactions. Authorities should also develop effective programmes and services catering to Malaysian tourists with children, and, at the same time, should not neglect the Malaysian younger market. In addition, more high quality tour guide services should be made available, not only to foreign tourists but also to local ones.

After performing the analysis, it is safe to conclude that the majority of the tourists who visited CH attractions seemed to seek a fairly shallow, easy to consume experience, signifying that CH tourism in Malaysia may be considered a mass tourism activity. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, many people sought CH attractions experiences as part of a larger vacation focused on beach-related or other attractions and activities, while only a small portion of the total respondents considered their entire vacation to be focused on CH. In other words, a majority of tourists would only choose to spend a short amount of time visiting CH attractions. Thus, the amount of information and knowledge absorbed would be minimal.

For many of the domestic tourists, decisions to visit CH attractions were greatly influenced by external factors, such as the number of people at the attraction sites, and

recommendations by friends and/or relatives. To be more specific, men travelling without children were more influenced by these two factors. On the other hand, for those travelling with children, financial concerns seemed to be an important factor in determining their decisions to visit CH attractions. More specifically, distance and free entrance to attraction sites were the two main factors influencing their decisions. Therefore, based on this analysis, it is safe to conclude that the majority of Malaysian tourists may be categorised as pertaining to the mass market, since there were no significant differences in terms of their answers in factor (5): *interest in CH*. However, despite the trend in Malaysian tourists, it would be unjust to generalise that all of the Malaysian tourists were part of the mass market. A significant difference in results occurs between those with and those without higher education backgrounds. Even though results indicate that a number of Malaysian tourists from both types of educational backgrounds visited CH attractions because of their specific interests in the sites *per se*, results are more significant in the higher education group. Since this group exists in four out of the five age categories (20-30, 31-40, 41-50 and over 50), it could be concluded that Malaysian tourists with higher education backgrounds would be more likely to visit CH attractions, and also would be more motivated to visit because of their interests in CH.

In terms of foreign tourists, a significant difference exists between those interested in CH and those who are not. Tourists who claim to be interested in CH are more likely to be influenced by their quest for knowledge, and their desire to learn and experience new cultures. In other words, tourists from this category tend to seek deeper experiences. Tourists in this category, furthermore, are more likely to have backgrounds with higher educational levels, while external factors, such as distance and entrance payments, are unlikely to affect their decisions. The result, furthermore, implies that segments of CH tourists vary in terms of interest, expectation as well as level of satisfaction on the performances. These differences, consequently, may require the MOT to seriously consider their planning in terms of destination development, performances and marketing activities in order to suit the expectations of every segment.

In addition, it is quite interesting to note that despite the interest shown by a certain number of foreign tourists, results also indicate that members of this particular group did not have specific CH sites in mind to visit while in Malaysia. In fact, to some degree, their decisions to visit CH heritage attractions were more influenced by the number of people visiting the attractions. Even though this influence was more significant for foreign tourists who had no interest in CH, it implies several assumptions in general.

First, it could be assumed that information about CH attractions in Malaysia is not widely promoted. Second, if promotional activities were successfully launched, it could be assumed that these promotions failed to reach their target audiences. Furthermore, by assuming that CH attractions were promoted but were unable to reach the market, this scenario consequently leads to a third assumption. This is the inability of the related authorities to identify and determine the target markets in the first place which, in the process, kept the potentially interested tourists unaware of the related attractions. From this discussion, it is safe to conclude that, like their counterparts, visits by foreign tourists to CH attractions are also mass activities. However, the numbers of foreign tourists who claimed that their interest in CH played an important role in their decision to visit were much higher than the numbers of Malaysian tourists who claimed to have the same interest. In addition, tourists generally described their visits to CH attractions as educational, and were satisfied with the visits. A majority of the tourists stated that they would recommend the sites to others.

Based on this analysis, it could be argued that in general, tourists who visit CH attractions in Malaysia and who are interested in CH *per se* have a high educational background. Previous studies consistently suggest that heritage tourists are highly educated (Timothy and Boyd, 2003; McKercher and du Cross, 2002; Prideaux and Kininmont, 1999; Prentice, 1993). Findings from this study support such a suggestion. However, it is important to note that for foreign tourists, only results from the non-ASEAN group highly support the claim made in the literature. What do these findings mean for Malaysia's related ministry (MOT)? First, as mentioned above, knowing that there are segments or groups of cultural heritage tourists is useful in developing marketing related activities. Creating activities and developing promotional campaigns targeted to the needs of each group is important. Tourists at the lower end may not be as informed or experienced with the sites. Thus, they may need more interactive and educational experiences, while at the same time such experiences should be entertaining and enjoyable. In short, the benefits of visitation should be emphasised. On the other hand, tourists at the other end may require more comprehensive and thorough presentations of the sites in order to enhance their knowledge. Therefore, the related authorities should be more creative and continue to diversify and enhance the development of CH tourism in a sustainable manner in order to fulfil the needs of various kinds of CH tourists in Malaysia.

9.4 The Authorities

This research attempts to investigate the perceptions of the authorities regarding the development of CH as a tourism product. Three senior government officers were interviewed in total. Two were from the Ministry of Tourism (MOT), from the federal and state levels respectively, and one was from the Ministry of Culture, Arts, and Heritage (MOCAH). For discussion purposes, the three respondents are referred to as Respondent 1, Respondent 2, and Respondent 3. Respondent 1 represents the officer from the MOT at the federal level, Respondent 2 represents the officer from the MOT at the state level, and Respondent 3 represents the officer from MOCAH. The discussion focuses on broad cultural heritage tourism planning and development issues as seen by the officers. It is supplemented by verbatim comments made at the time.

9.4.1 *Definitions of Cultural Heritage*

Each of the three respondents was first asked to explain their understanding of heritage and cultural heritage; and each gave their own version. Generally, all of them associated heritage with everything passed down from one generation to the other, but the degrees of explanation differed from one respondent to the other. Both Respondent 1 and Respondent 2 provided the researcher with a general version of the definition. According to Respondent 1:

> …We refer to something or anything that is inherited from one generation to another.

In contrast, Respondent 3 expanded on this and explained that:

> …Heritage does not only refer to a monument, an old building, or even an old dagger. These are only a small part of the country's heritage. It is also about norms and values, traditions, and our past. It portrays the traditional lifestyles and history of a nation. Some we may be proud of, but others may leave us with bitter memories. It is about the past that helps shape the country and its nation today.

9.4.2 *Management of Cultural Heritage*

When Respondents 1 and 2 were asked about the management of CH resources in Malaysia, both chose not to elaborate on the subject, and instead were more concerned with the economic opportunities to be derived from the resources. According to Respondent 1:

> …We do not deal with management issues. The Department of Heritage at MOCAH is responsible for the wellbeing of the country's heritage, so it is their job to come up with management plans.

Respondent 1 then added:

> …This new ministry (MOT) has a specific focus on the tourism industry. The main objective is to promote and market the tourism industry internally and internationally. As you know, tourism is one of the major income contributors to the country, and therefore, its potential must be extensively explored.

On the other hand, Respondent 3 admitted that managing heritage was an issue until MOCAH was introduced. Respondent 3 then gave a comment based on his long working experienced at the previous ministry (the Ministry of Culture, Arts, and Tourism (MOCAT)):

> …We were hoping that cultural heritage could become a strong component in the development of the tourism industry in Malaysia. Unfortunately this was not the case. Cultural heritage has become too commercialised. As a result, the component has totally lost its function as a whole.

Respondent 3 then explained that the policy framework at MOCAH was designed to emphasise the importance of heritage to the nation, and to create a sense of awareness and appreciation among the nation's members, since heritage resources play an important role in community continuity, renewal, and development. In so doing, national heritage can be protected. According to Respondent 3:

> …Unfortunately, tourism is about money, while culture heritage is more than that. It is about identity, nationalism, and much more. Therefore, it is our duty to identify, protect, and manage the country's cultural heritage.

The interview also explored the procedures of developing CH tourism and how CH resources are selected as tourism products. At this point, all of the respondents agreed and expressed support for the development of CH resources as tourism attractions. According to Respondent 2, the procedure started from the state level, where state tourism authorities identify CH resources to represent the state. At the same time, these resources should also hold certain commercial values. The state then recommends the selected CH resources to tourism authorities at the federal level. The federal authorities then develop and market the identified CH resources accordingly. According to Respondent 1:

> …So far we have identified and categorised CH resources based on a number of themes, but more important is to ensure that the themes represent the nation as a multi-cultural nation, and are able to portray our rich and colourful heritage.

In addition:

> …At present, the promotion is more on built as well as living CH, but we certainly would like to diversify the categories. There are still a number of CH resources yet to be categorised and promoted, and the states need to explore this opportunity.

At the same time, Respondent 3 expressed his concern over the matter, particularly on how the procedure of selecting CH resources takes place. He stressed the importance of establishing a type of collaboration between the MOT and MOCAH so that MOCAH could assist and provide its expert opinions on the development of CH tourism in Malaysia.

Regarding the above discussion, several conclusions may be derived. First, this study deduces that multiple meanings of the term 'heritage' exist amongst the respondents. However, attention should be paid to the narrow definitions provided by Respondents 1 and 2. In other words, the given definitions portray their limited awareness and understanding, and to some extent, appreciation of the value of CH resources. In fact, it is safe to generalise that the MOT perceived CH resources as commodities with potential commercial value, rather than as national legacies representing the country's identity that should be appreciated and protected. Second, considering that Malaysia is rich with cultural heritage resources, promotion is still limited to a certain range of CH attractions, which could cause the attractiveness of CH tourism to be undermined. Finally, from the available evidence, it may be suggested that collaborations of any kind do not exist between the MOT and MOCAH in preparing strategies for CH tourism development, though, from the perspective of MOCAH, the need for such cooperation is vital.

9.4.3 *Sustainable Cultural Heritage*

The interview sessions also explored the respondents' views on issues regarding sustainability. All of the respondents agreed and emphasized the importance of maintaining and sustaining the country's cultural heritage for future generations. Furthermore, all of them believed that the country's legacy must be protected because of its irreplaceable value. Respondent 1 explained that officers at the state's MOT usually organised meetings on a regular basis with most of the other local authorities and other interested parties. He explained:

> …The aim is to cooperate and coordinate with the local authorities, local NGOs, and private sectors for the future of our cultural heritage. For example, in built heritage, any major restoration must be approved of by the local

> council, and all of these works would be observed and seriously supervised by many of us.

On the other hand, Respondent 2 justified the importance of protecting built heritage with architectural merits for one specific reason:

> …To use those old buildings as an investment for the development of the current and hopefully future tourism industry.

From the discussion, this study concludes that most of the development plans have short-term perspectives, focus only on economic aspects, claim to practice it in a sustainable manner, and ignore social factors. Nonetheless, the MOT must concern itself with issues of protecting and safeguarding resources. In fact, it must initiate these positive actions in order to achieve sustainable CH tourism development.

Despite the above conclusion, it is important to note that the decision-makers should understand the broader implications of tourism development, and that social factors should be taken into consideration. In fact, although tourism is economically significant, all tourism strategy or policies may be more successful when community members are permitted to participate. Based on the interviews, it can be deduced that at present, although participation by locals is encouraged, authorities are not willing to support direct participation. Respondents agreed that local communities should be consulted prior to tourism development, but that the final development decisions should be made by the authorities. This is because most if not all of the projects and CH tourism-related activities operate from 'top down' policies. However, communities are highly encouraged to participate in tourism activities. Therefore, it is safe to conclude that under the present conditions, community members are not directly engaged in planning activities, and that public participation is not emphasised in all strategies.

9.4.4 *Benefits Derived from Cultural Heritage Tourism*

The interview sessions continued by asking the respondents about the benefits and problems derived from CH tourism. All of the respondents were aware of the role of tourism as a development tool, and they expressed support for the development of CH tourism in Malaysia. This was due to the fact that, like other tourism products, CH tourism is planned, developed, and promoted by the government in line with the country's National Economic Policy (the NEP as discussed in chapter 2). However, their perceptions differed in terms of the types and scale of development. In general, the respondents were unanimous concerning the benefits of CH tourism development, and

believed that development could benefit communities economically. However, Respondent 3 emphasised that not only would the development of CH tourism benefit communities economically, but it also should be compatible with local values. In addition, all of the respondents agreed that the arrival of tourists from different backgrounds and cultures could promote understanding and respect of the host culture. Furthermore, where domestic tourism is concerned, understanding is vital for the harmony of Malaysia's pluralistic society, and at the same time, for promoting social unity. The respondents also believed that the younger population of this country can learn and understand about their CH by visiting CH attractions, and by doing so further develop their young minds in appreciating their cultural legacy.

The interview continued by asking whether certain frameworks existed in guiding CH tourism development in Malaysia. Respondent 1 confirmed that at the time of the interview, the ministry had not introduced any guidelines or frameworks for CH tourism. Generally, all of the respondents agreed that difficulties existed in developing CH tourism, although they considered it to be under control. According to Respondent 1:

> …I don't think there is a major problem, as most of the people who work in developing and promoting CH tourism attractions have knowledge and experience in the tourism industry. However, we do take precautions in order to avoid any issues or conflicts.

Respondent 2 added:

> …In developing CH attractions, we have considered the feelings and sensitivities of the communities, particularly in terms of social and religious issues. This is why in terms of places like private homes and religious buildings we emphasise the landscape and architectural beauty in the promotion. Nonetheless, if any members of the community are willing to welcome the tourists into such buildings or to allow them to witness any religious ceremonies or celebrations, they are free to do so.

Despite the positive remarks by Respondents 1 and 2, Respondent 3 expressed serious concerns over the implications of development. According to him, if the development of CH tourism is taken lightly, problems may get worse in the future. For example, Respondent 3 emphasised the erosion of cultural values, including the modification of local arts and crafts according to the tourists' tastes and preferences, as well as the modification of dances, festivals, and traditional or even religious rituals. The problem, according to Respondent 3, occurs when communities are more concerned with the number of tourist arrivals to an area, and attempt to prolong their stay and, at the same time, to please them. As a result, cultural expression may lose its meaning when the presentation of attractions tends to emphasise market requirements and preferences.

Consequently, the presentation of CH becomes more a means of financial exchange than a means of social expression. With this in mind, it becomes crucial for the federal, state, and local authorities to anticipate and acknowledge the potential negative impacts that could arise as a result of such development.

With respect to the future of CH tourism in Malaysia, generally it is thought to be promising, with great potential. Respondent 3 implied that there was still room for improvement in the presentation of related attractions. Respondent 3 emphasised the creation of experiential learning environments that could enhance tourists' understandings and senses of appreciation of CH resources in Malaysia. In this sense, Respondents 3 believed that MOCAH could contribute its expert opinions in creating and developing more meaningful, effective and, at the same time, more attractive CH tourism attractions. According to Respondent 3:

> …we would like to establish a good working relationship with the MOT in assuring that the future of our heritage is protected and valued, and this is what the Department of Heritage is working towards.

From the evidence relating to the development and management of CH tourism it can be inferred that treating cultural heritage resources as tourism products is not an easy task. There is a lack of clarity amongst the authorities. This is due to the fact that tourism and cultural heritage management embrace different management agendas, concepts, and focuses. In addition, having a different mandate to guide their management practices, both ministries separately perform their own duties. While MOCAH acts as a custodian to cultural heritage resources in Malaysia, the MOT is responsible for creating and turning certain CH resources into tourism attractions. While MOCAH is sceptical about the use of CH resources for tourism purposes, the MOT is oblivious towards the meanings and interpretations of cultural heritage itself. The fact that cultural heritage tourism brings income generation and physical development to certain areas was frequently mentioned in the interviews with the officers from the MOT. Thus, the conflicts between the two government ministries may eventually interfere with some of the potential tourism plans, and create challenges for future practices. Additionally, CH tourism development issues are linked with many other aspects, such as conservation, landscape, and urban or rural planning. These aspects, furthermore, are the responsibility of other ministries. Thus, without proper communication, cooperation, and coordination, the development of CH tourism in Malaysia may not be sustainable.

9.5 Conclusions

This chapter concludes that the development of CH tourism in Malaysia is uncoordinated. The development, furthermore, involves and requires input from more than one ministry. In addition, there are overlapping roles in the interrelationships between ministries. Nevertheless, existing levels of cooperation between ministries are minimal. This, consequently, hinders the development of CH tourism sensitive to the needs and requirements of its stakeholders in this study: community members and tourists. In short, if the difficulties are ignored, the future development of CH tourism in Malaysia will face a number of problems and challenges. In addition, the development is highly market-oriented, and concerns over community involvement are minimal.

This chapter also suggests a new profile of tourists visiting CH attractions in Malaysia, particularly in terms of socio-demographic backgrounds and motivations to visit. In terms of foreign tourists, findings reveal some similarities and, at the same time, certain differences with the foreign tourists who visit Malaysia and the characteristics of CH tourists described in the current literature. It is hoped that the present findings may assist the authorities in developing better CH attractions to meet tourist expectations. However, in developing sustainable CH tourism, development itself should not be based solely on the number of tourist arrivals and the types of facilities provided. This is because by relying on these two aspects, development could create various problems in the future.

More importantly, development should look into the extent of participation and involvement of the communities in protecting their own heritage, and help them in turning their selected heritage resources into acceptable tourist attractions. However, interviews with the authorities reveal that at present, although participation by local community members is encouraged, most if not all of the projects and tourism-related activities operate from the ‘top down’ and do not engage the community members. Consequently, the importance of the local community in tourism development is rarely discussed, aside from aspects concerned with their economic participation in tourism projects. Nonetheless, it is important to note that cultural heritage resources should not be viewed solely as sources of significant tourism economic benefits in the short term, but more importantly as national images able to portray the real culture and heritage of a nation. The last chapter will conclude the final discussions and offer recommendations related to policy development.

Chapter 10. Final Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

10.1 Introduction

The research was an attempt to answer question of whether cultural heritage tourism in Malaysia is sustainable in its current form. Several research aims and objectives were presented in chapter 1 and 6. Analysis and findings associated with these aims and objectives were then presented in chapters 7, 8 and 9. This chapter will recaps the main findings of this research, identify outcomes concerning cultural heritage (CH) tourism in Malaysia, and discuss the last aim of the study which is related to policy implications. In the process, it answers the initial research objectives in the light of the evidence, and suggests recommendations for future research, policy and practice.

10.2 Final discussion

Five aims were established in this research; 1) to study the development of cultural heritage tourism in general, 2) to understand the perceptions of the Malaysian authorities surrounding the use of cultural heritage resources as a tourism product, 3) to examine the impact of cultural heritage tourism development on the community, 4) to examine the demand for cultural heritage tourism in Malaysia, and 5) to examine aspects that should be included in a Cultural Heritage Tourism Framework. From this study, it was concluded that the development of CH tourism in Malaysia is gaining momentum but has not firmly adopted the sustainable approach. Based on the aims of this study, this thesis has covered four major issues. It covers the meaning of CH tourism; the role of authorities in planning and managing CH tourism; the impact of CH on local communities; and the demand for CH tourism. Each of the issues characterised the way in which CH tourism has developed in Malaysia. The emergent issues are discussed below.

10.2.1 *Meaning of Cultural Heritage Tourism*

The discussions in chapter 3, 4 and 5 were related to Aim 1. In these chapters, several terms that relate to the concept of sustainable tourism development and cultural heritage tourism were examined. Chapter 3 (p. 48) demonstrated that the development of tourism activity as an industry evolves from three distinct periods. Ideas of sustainable tourism development was proposed in the third period of the development in response to the recognition that economic advantages must no longer be the only criteria supporting the development of tourism. Thus, the third period gave rise to a more responsible type of tourism. Generally, as discussed in chapter 4, the concept of sustainable tourism

development take into account the integration of the physical environment (tourism destination), the host community, and the tourists. The concept also emphasize on being more competitive, offering quality products and attracting more tourists. Consequently, it can reduce detrimental impacts from tourism. Thus, sustainable tourism development is seen as the key strategy that can provide the necessary balance among economic, social, cultural and environmental needs in all tourism planning and implementation.

In conjunction with the issue above, the literature in chapter 4 also points to the availability and utilisation of heritage resources in tourism strategies as one of the means to achieve sustainable tourism development. The challenge, however, lies in utilising the resource's full potential while at the same time encouraging its sustainability. Chapter 5 demonstrated that heritage itself is chosen and defined by humankind and that any individuals or groups can decide what to include in and exclude from their heritage. Thus, it can be concluded that heritage is dynamic and subject to change. Theoretically, the definition of cultural heritage tourism can be viewed from two contrasting approaches that have resulted from the interest shown by both supply and demand sides (figure 5.1, p. 92). First cultural heritage tourism is defined in terms of its material component (the supply side), and second in terms of tourists' experiences when consuming heritage resources (the demand side). Scholars belonging to the first group focus on defining the material components of cultural heritage in terms of attractions, objects of arts, artefacts, relics as well as the intangible forms of cultural heritage. On the other hand, scholars from the second group focus on peoples' motivations, expectations and their perceptions of the destination site. The general conclusion derived from the explanation is that the development of CH tourism relies on the strength of both the supply and demand sides. Following the conclusion, chapter 6 led to the discussion that there is a need for a good heritage management procedure in order to balance between the provision and consumption of cultural heritage resources.

10.2.2 *Roles of Authorities in Planning and Managing Cultural Heritage Tourism*

From the discussion of Aim 2, it is clear that tourism development in Malaysia is framed by short-term and long-term objectives and strategies that geared towards marketing and promotional efforts, in tandem with the National Development Plan as described in chapter 3 (p. 58). Particularly, concentrating on identifying potential tourists from other regions, attracting more tourists to stay longer and spend more, as well as make repeat visits to Malaysia.

In the previous section it was mentioned that CH tourism in Malaysia has been gaining momentum. Despite this, the development comes with certain drawbacks. Chapter 2 demonstrated that the uniqueness of Malaysian society as well as its cultural expressions has been identified as one of the country's major tourist attractions, and it was stated in the national policy, the Malaysia Plan. However, chapter 5 revealed that even though the country perceives cultural heritage as a major attraction, it is not yet fully defined. Malaysia tourism authority (MOT) applies a very narrow definition to CH tourism, and the current presentation of cultural heritage attractions is rather limited.

Overall, there appears to be no comprehensive policy on this matter. Consequently, the development of CH tourism has been taking place without clear policy guidelines, and is prone to *add hoc* decision-making processes. Chapter 3 demonstrated that in Malaysia, government bodies are seen as facilitating agents for policy-making and implementation, but regrettably, as revealed in chapter 9 bureaucratic complexities can also cause problems. In the context of CH tourism in Malaysia, such setbacks are seen as inevitable. Results from the interviews with officials from the related ministries show that there is no strong relationship in terms of collaboration between the MOT and MOCAH. Instead they are trying to overpower or compete with one and another. This results in undermining organizational efficiency.

Chapter 5 demonstrated that there is no official listing of CH attributes made available by the related authorities. Nonetheless, reliable information is necessary for planning, decision-making, and implementation in the development of CH tourism. MOCAH should work towards establishing a CH information and resource centre. The role of research in facilitating the development of such a centre would be important. At this point, research should focus on inventories and documentation processes of CH resources. The inventories should include descriptions of resources, historical and important dates, locations, as well as photographs. The main focus should be to assist researchers, students, and all interested members of the public engaged in any sort of CH research. At the same time, MOCAH should cater to the needs of the tourism sector, by collaborating with the MOT in such a way that it could help apply knowledge from the data and develop effective CH attractions suitable to local conditions, while at the same time remaining attractive for tourists.

Since the government is the official guardian of cultural heritage in Malaysia, there is an urgent need for it to undertake a more supportive role in ensuring that there will be a

comprehensive approach towards developing CH tourism in Malaysia. It is understood that difficulties, particularly in terms of conflicts and barriers, are bound to occur. However, if the ministries can eliminate conflicts and reduce bureaucratic barriers, the chances of achieving more attractive and competitive CH based sites would be much higher. In line with this, MOT needs to take a more prominent role in initiating better coordination, in its short-term and long-term policies and strategies. In other words, the MOT needs to reassess the way it collaborates with the other related authorities. However, it is important to note that making connections and adopting an integrated and holistic approach in the name of CH tourism would require great efforts from all of the agencies involved. This is because crossing departments, or in this case crossing ministries, may be practical but not without difficulty, and such difficulties should not be underestimated. Nonetheless, communication, cooperation, and coordination amongst the related ministries and agencies are key ingredients towards the well-being of Malaysia's cultural heritage. Without such strong commitments, it is unlikely that CH tourism will be developed effectively.

10.2.3 *Impacts of Cultural Heritage Tourism on Local Communities*

Discussion pertaining to this issue is related to Aim 3 of this study. In Chapter 5, local communities were identified as a major stakeholder in sustainable tourism development. However, in looking at the meaning of heritage given by the communities, it has been realised that many people do not fully understand the meaning of heritage itself (table 7.4, p. 149). At the same time, as noted in chapter 9 (p. 191), young Malaysians only know or learn about their CH in schools. Hence, the source of their knowledge is limited to textbooks and classrooms, and their understanding is confined to preparing for examinations. It is vital that community members, children and adults, are made aware of the meaning and importance of protecting their heritage before it is transformed into an attraction.

Another point that emerged from the research is that current local community participation in the planning of CH tourism development in Malaysia has been rather limited. Chapter 3 revealed that Malaysia authorities have been planning and promoting tourism for the past 30 years, starting with the Second Malaysia Plan (1971 – 1975). However, it was not until the late 1990s that tourism authorities started to acknowledge the role of local communities in tourism (Seventh Malaysia Plan 1996 – 2000). It states that the involvement of the local community is seen as a way to maximise benefits and

minimise adverse impacts. Nonetheless, there are no clear existing guidelines as to how community members may be incorporated into broader CH tourism developments. Local communities acknowledge that the development of CH tourism has an impact on them. At the same time, they expressed the need to participate more in the planning and implementation of tourism activities. The communities studied feel that they have a lot to offer.

It has been discussed in Chapter 6 that tourist/resident misunderstanding may arise from lack of contact with each other. Consequently, tourists are perceived negatively by the local communities, which may lead to detrimental consequences. Although it is not yet serious, some community members are concerned about this issue (see table 7.8, p. 156). To promote understanding and minimise tourist/resident conflicts and develop a more receptive community, the general public should be educated about the role of tourism promotion and development. Social/cultural understanding and interchange of ideas can be encouraged by improving opportunities for these different groups to meet instead of being segregated.

In conjunction with this, Chapter 5 demonstrated that promoting high quality CH attractions enable communities to retain their uniqueness and increase tourist satisfaction levels. At the same time, interest shown by tourists often results in an increase in community awareness: a win-win situation for both parties. This research has shown that an increase in interest by tourists in the community's cultural heritage is able to promote pride and positive feeling amongst the local population, through an increased awareness by locals of their own cultural heritage. However, as stated earlier, such awareness alone would not be able to guarantee heritage sustainability. Only when a community has the ability to understand, appreciate, take pride in its manifestations and protect its cultural resources for the benefit of future generations will it be able to develop and promote quality CH attractions. Therefore, more extensive involvement is needed between local community members and tourists.

10.2.4 *Demand for Cultural Heritage Tourism*

The literature review in Chapter 4 and 5 was related to aim 4 of the study. The literature demonstrated that sustainable tourism development is also concerned with the sustainability of the tourists visiting the destination. It is known from chapter 9 that there is demand for CH tourism in Malaysia, and CH tourists and tourism in Malaysia are based on mass-marketed activities with varying degrees of interest. The study has also introduced new ideas by identifying a number of factors explaining why and how tourists who visit CH attractions in Malaysia should be classified into three significant groups: domestic, foreign ASEAN, and foreign non-ASEAN tourists (see chapter 8 and 9). Each of these groups demonstrates significant differences in terms of demographics and travel characteristics. Acknowledging and recognising the fact that a variety of CH tourists exist could help tourism authority in impovising the presentation CH tourism attractions in terms of diversity, experience, and value of the tourists' money and time, thus enhancing tourists' overall CH experience. In short, to remain competitive and attractive, the development of CH tourism should be carefully planned to reflect the preferences of these various segments. The use of good segmentation would allow the authorities to construct a series of tourism products to cater for the tourists and care for the communities, environments, and cultures within the country.

This study has also demonstrated the rise of domestic tourists in Malaysia, but notes that at present data on them is insufficient. As discussed in Chapter 3 (p. 67), domestic tourists are generally ignored by the authority because they do not contribute much in terms of foreign exchange earning. Nevertheless, domestic tourists have an advantage over foreign tourists, as local communities may accept them more easily, as they would have many aspects in common, for example: language, values, customs, and traditions.

This study shows that Malaysia has the ability to cater for various levels of tourists who are motivated by cultural heritage attractions. This is because Malaysia already has tourist infrastructure and marketable facilities (chapter 3) which are advantageous for the development of CH tourism. Nevertheless, many of the CH attractions are still in the growth stage. Chapter 8 demonstrated the inadequacies of tourist service in some of the main CH areas. It is also revealed in chapter 8 that the information and interpretive services for many of the existing attractions are not satisfactory. Therefore, for CH to become a quality CH product, it needs better presentation, better interpretation, and more accessibility. The cultural heritage expressions examined in this study namely, events (traditional and religions rituals), museums and sites, could all be developed further by

the respective ministry. To support a selective approach towards promoting CH tourism, it is necessary to provide appropriate tourist attractions and support systems. The main deficiencies of tourist facilities and services should be identified and corrected by providing those facilities and services most needed by tourists, and at the same time, by improving those that are not meeting tourists' expectations. There is an urgent need for updating the communication processes between audiences and attractions. The management should realize that in order for tourists to have more effective and satisfying visits to CH attractions, the management must provide a platform for the tourists to communicate. In addition, the creation of new products is a way for CH attractions to evolve and sustain in the long run. The development of existing and new cultural heritage related activities would generate a better quality of CH tourism product, encouraging visitors to stay longer and spend more money whilst benefiting the community at large.

10.3 Recommendations

Following the above discussion and conclusions of the main findings of this research, this section outlines several main recommendations that could assist the related authorities in constructing a framework for developing Sustainable Cultural Heritage Tourism. The proposed framework has been carefully constructed, taking into account heritage values and characteristics. Sensitivity in every aspect is essential for protecting CH resources, promoting CH tourism, and managing CH attractions, so that the industry itself can be sustained over time. It is also important to note that this study has adopted a macro approach towards the study of CH tourism. The recommendations that will be made are therefore related to general policy.

10.3.1 *Implications for Policy and Planning*

Sustainable CH tourism needs to be directed towards enhancing tourist experiences and benefiting local communities. This could be obtained via:

1. The establishment of a clear policy on sustainable CH tourism that could provide bases for development control, decision-making, implementation, and guidance for the public, individuals, and the wider community. At the same time, it is also essential that these decision-making and planning processes are flexible, so that they are responsive to the changing circumstances caused by the tourism environment.

2. In addition, Malaysia is a plural society with each group having its own unique cultural identity and social system. For the relative ease and success of implementation, plans and programmes concerning the development of CH as tourist attractions must be sensitive to the different social conditions and aspirations of these different communities.

3. Working cooperation between MOT and other related ministries, particularly MOCAH must be developed. Emphasis should be placed on harmonising policies regarding overlapping aspects that influence development, through mutual assistance with their various interests and activities. MOCAH could monitor the presentations of CH attractions made by MOT in ensuring the presentations are in tandem with the country's aspiration.

4. Enforcement of high-quality service. CH attractions have to be of good quality in terms of diversity and experience. Thus, better information and interpretive services, directly influencing the overall quality of tourist experiences, are urgently required. The presentations of attractions and the interpretation processes should be delivered in more innovative ways.

10.3.2 *Cultural Heritage Product Development*

It is argued in this study that cultural understandings and interchanges of ideas between tourists and community members can be encouraged, particularly through providing opportunities for them to meet and interact. However, when an interpretation is driven by economic motives, there is a risk that it is done for the wrong reasons. In relation to this situation, Schouten (1995) claims that the aim of many heritage attractions is to attempt to win customers, which is increasingly done by making the past appear more palatable and less boring to the public. Timothy and Boyd (2003) note that interpretation is the most effective form of interaction, but they caution that poor-quality live interpretation 'is worse than nothing at all' (ibid:195). In this sense, the two ministries in Malaysia need to work together in order to enhance the interpretation process. While MOT could develop sites to become more attractive and entertaining, MOCAH, as the caretaker of the country's CH resources, could provide educational value for the interpretation work, emphasising what and how people can learn from them. In doing so, the tourist experience could be enhanced by educational entertainment, which could increase the tourists' respect for CH, as well as their sense of responsibility for caring for it.

In short, cultural heritage product needs to be developed in such a way that it enhance visitor experience and is sustainable. The two aspirations could be fulfilled through:

1. The promotion of educational activities in which tourists could participate. Authorities could encourage more 'interactive learning' types of activities to take place. For example, during cultural festivities, the focus should be on hands-on activities, on daily traditional practices (cooking, crafts making, wood carving, dancing), and friendly and informal talks and presentations by local volunteers.

2. At the same time, the authorities could encourage local events (either traditional or religious festivals) to be performed by local communities themselves. However, the performances of religious festivals are subject to community consent, as issues concerning religion may be quite sensitive to some (chapter 7). Local events could also include street performances of traditional music, and songs by local artists.

3. Despite the notion that CH tourism is a learning and knowledge-based attraction (chapter 5), tourism itself is an activity that involves leisure and recreation. Therefore, elements of entertainment should be taken into consideration and included in the presentations of the attractions. However, the authorities must strike a balance between these two approaches. Focusing too much on entertainment may result in an attraction seeming unreal, while emphasis on education alone may reduce the number of tourists.

4. The introduction of new concepts in developing attractions is important. In many instances, attractions are quite static, and tend to be presented indoors. The management should instead think about adopting an open museum concept, where presentations are more alive and effective. At present, there are only a limited number of CH attractions that apply such a concept. Alternatively, small-scale community-based CH projects, also known as eco-museums, could be another option for the authorities in developing and promoting CH attractions in Malaysia.

10.3.3 *Education in Cultural Heritage Related Matters*

Education is the basis of good CH tourism development. Areas that could be looked into include:

1. A re-evaluation of education and teaching of culture and heritage study in schools. Education, in this sense, would be geared more towards disseminating knowledge

and information about the subject matters. It is hoped that education will stimulate public interest and support for the preservation of cultural heritage, and at the same time, enhance the public's general understanding of cultural heritage itself.

2. An introduction of public events by MOCAH to promote the value of local as well as national heritage. Such events could include talks, demonstrations, or other types of social gatherings with local communities. MOCAH should also involve local communities by inviting the elderly and people with years of experience in local heritage to share their knowledge and talk about their past experiences.

3. A re-assessment of guides' training courses. Training related to communication skills, particularly English and other selected foreign languages are important. At the same time, guides' training should give more attention to the social, cultural, historical and archaeological aspects of the landscape, local communities and customs. Well trained and experienced local guides with good communication skills are essential. They can be considered an added value to an attraction, as tourists may perceive their knowledge of the CH attractions as more authentic.

10.4 Contributions to Knowledge

This thesis has acknowledged the complex nature of CH tourism. The management of CH involves political, economic, and socio-cultural processes developing between various levels of interaction. In addition, it has been observed that while definitions of sustainable tourism development appear to differ from one author to another, they share one common theme, which contains a few fundamental concepts – environment (including physical and social aspects), quality and equity. In brief, this study has offered a better conceptual clarity of the related term.

The results of this research demonstrate that there is a need to realise that CH is a shared responsibility. This responsibility becomes even more crucial when certain elements of CH are turned into tourist attractions. While every community member is expected to assist in appreciating, protecting, and managing CH tourism, the government will need to shoulder greater responsibility and contribute more substantially to sustainable causes. This is because the development of CH tourism in Malaysia should not be viewed solely as an income generator for the country. Development should provide members of local communities with a means of maintaining their ways of life and values, and fostering a sense of pride and belonging.

CH tourism also has the power to transform communities, bringing about development through the introduction and presentation of local arts and crafts, and the same time assisting in the enhancement of cultural identity. More importantly, CH tourism should be conducted in tandem with the communities within which it is developed. However, the crucial point in developing CH tourism lies in understanding the meaning of cultural heritage, for all those involved. Sustainable models of development will only be worked out when local communities have control over their own resources, understand them and are committed to preserving them. It is vitally important for those involved in policy setting and tourism planning to recognise and give equal consideration to the potential positive and negative effects of tourism. Communities are not passive spectators of their own CH; rather they are the ones who will transmit their CH to the next generations, and ensure that the CH itself is sustainable.

In turn, CH tourism, if well developed, could provide tourists with unique experiences based on high quality products and services. However, for this to occur, CH tourism should not be perceived by the government merely as another tourism product to be developed and sold. CH tourism is different from other types of tourism products. It consists of a country's legacy, history, and identity. The presentation of CH attractions should be able to create an increased awareness, understanding, and hopefully appreciation on the part of the tourists as well.

10.5 Suggestions for Further Research

This research has attempted to understand the development of CH tourism in Malaysia. Overall, it has identified the socio-demographics and trip characteristics of Malaysian and foreign tourists who visit Malaysia's CH attractions. Future research could also relate these different tourist characteristics to preferences of different CH attractions in the country. In so doing, further studies determining the current state of CH services, infrastructures, and sites would also be necessary.

This study concludes that in order to achieve sustainable CH tourism development, awareness, knowledge, and understanding from local communities is required. However, the study has not explored in detail the ways in which local communities would like their CH to be developed and presented to tourists. Further studies should look at the willingness and readiness of local communities to develop and manage their own local heritage for tourism purposes. Locally based tourism developments could contribute towards more sustainable development in such a way that local people could take pride in

their heritage while maintaining their own identities, and get involved in planning processes, while simultaneously enabling them to meet the needs of CH tourists. Therefore, exploratory research on the suitability of the eco-museum concept, managed by communities themselves, is recommended. At the macro level, more research is needed to determine the appropriate policy, development, and implementation guidelines and plans for CH tourism in Malaysia.

10.6 Concluding remarks

The broader message of this study is that while CH tourism could provide the country with economic benefits, careful planning and implementation policies are required in order to limit its detrimental impacts. Treating cultural heritage resources as tourism products does not simply mean pricing and selling them in the market. It is about our initiative to proudly introduce our cultural heritage to our guests (tourists), both locally and internationally, and to disseminate this information in accessible and informative ways. The goal is for tourists to have gained a wealth of experience by the end of their visit, and at the same time, to feel that their trip was enjoyable.

In addition, CH attractions need to be developed in such a way that management can reduce potentially harmful impacts on the local communities, and at the same time, protect their interests and well-being. In this sense all parties involved must make much greater efforts to mobilise local resources to directly benefit local communities in the name of sustainable development. It is not enough for them to participate in economic activities alone. The sustainability of the CH tourism industry depends to a considerable extent upon the preservation of cultural and social attributes. In other words, it is time that the authorities at federal and state levels delivered in practice what the MOT claims as its missions and objectives of tourism development; that is to develop and manage tourism in a sustainable manner. This is not as easy as it sounds, but as a starting point, a good working relationship must be established in order to develop trust and commitment from the local community members. This is vital in order to preserve heritage itself.

The concluding remarks bring the study to a full circle in better understanding the development of cultural heritage tourism in Malaysia, with the notion that tourism development encompassing non-replaceable resources should be practiced in a sustainable manner. The study has highlighted and discussed major issues pertaining to the development of cultural heritage tourism in Malaysia, and recommendations have been proposed. Thus, the research aims and objectives of this study have been met.

Finally, can CH tourism in Malaysia ever be fully sustainable? The answer is: yes it can be, but only with great efforts. The failure of current national tourism policies to be sensitive to local issues and to recognise that different problems require different solutions may be the potential source of conflict and failure. Nevertheless, through understanding, recognising, and accepting that heritage attractions fulfil a number of different roles, and serve a number of different aims, it is possible to provide attractions that successfully aid the experiences of both community members and tourists, as well as provide a strong sense of continuity between the past, present, and future.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Acts and Legislations Related to the Development of Cultural Heritage in Malaysia

Antiquities Act (1976)

- Section17 (a), (b) and (c) empower the Museum authorities to conserve gazetted historical buildings through inspections, preservation and maintenance activities
- Empowers the Museum authorities to buy, lease and transfer the ownership of the building for public use, and pay compensation to their owners
- National Museum with its legislative power to gazette buildings above 100 years old for conservation

Treasure Trove Act (1957)

- An act to regulate the law relating to treasure trove and other matters connected to therewith
- The title Director General is referred to the Director General of Museums
- Responsible on the ground of:
    - Ancient monuments and historical sites
    - Excavations
    - Archaeological reserves

National Archive Act, 1966 (Revised 2003)

- An act to provide for the custody and preservation of public archives and public records for Malaysia

National Art Gallery Act (1959)

- An act to provide for the establishment and management of a National Art Gallery

Local Legislations

Town and Country Act 1976

- Defines the powers conferred to the state government for the purpose of conservation
- Promote the conservation, use and development of all lands in the State

Malacca Enactments no. 6 (1988)

- An enactment to make provisions for the preservation, conservation and enhancement of cultural heritage and; to provide for matters connected therewith.
- A committee shall be established by the state authority in order to advise on matters of policy, administration and management of cultural heritage and conservation areas

Johore Enactments no. 7 (1988)

- An enactment to establish a body corporate by the name of Badan Warisan Negeri (BWN) for the preservation of the cultural and historical heritage of the Johore State and; to provide for matters connected therewith.
- BWN has the authority to do research and inspection on monuments, advice and control on any alterations, repairs and renovations of any kind to ensure better preservation.

Appendix B
COMMUNITY SURVEY

SURVEY NO.

A: GENERAL INFORMATION

1) Age group (years)
- [1] Under 20
- [2] 20 - 30
- [3] 31 – 40
- [4] 41 - 50
- [5] More than 50

2) Gender
- [1] Male
- [2] Female

3) Education level
- [1] Primary
- [2] Secondary
- [3] Diploma
- [4] Degree
- [5] Post-graduate Degree
- [6] Others: _____

4) Occupation
- [1] Student
- [2] Housewife
- [3] Employed
  - [3.1] General worker
  - [3.2] Sales/clerical
  - [3.3] Admin/managerial
  - [3.4] Professional
  - [3.5] Teacher
  - [3.6] Other (specify): _____
  - [3.7A] Tourism
    - [3.6.Aa] Heritage attraction
    - [3.6.Ab] Food outlet
    - [3.6A.c] Accommodation
    - [3.6A.d] Tourist guide
    - [3.6A.e] Retail shop
    - [3.6Af] Transportation
    - [3.6A.g] Other (specify):_____
  - [3.7.B] Non tourism
- [4] Retired
- [5] Unemployed

1) Household Income in Ringgit Malaysia (RM)

Please circle one of the APPROXIMATE incomes earned from the grid below **Note: Annual income = (Monthly income x 12)**													
Annually **Monthly**	<5000 <416	5000 416	6000 5000	7000 583	8000 667	9000 750	10000 833	11000 917	12000 1000	13000 1083	14000 1167	15000 1250	16000 1333
Annually **Monthly**	17000 1417	18000 1500	19000 1583	20000 1667	21000 1750	22000 1833	23000 1917	24000 2000	25000 2083	26000 2167	27000 2250	28000 2333	29000 2417
Annually **Monthly**	30000 2500	31000 2583	32000 2667	33000 2750	34000 2833	35000 2917	36000 3000	37000 3083	38000 3167	39000 3250	40000 3333	41000 3417	42000 3500
Annually **Monthly**	43000 3583	44000 3667	45000 3750	46000 3833	47000 3917	48000 4000	49000 4083	50000 4167	51000 4250	52000 4333	53000 4417	54000 4500	55000 4583
Annually **Monthly**	56000 4667	57000 4750	58000 4833	59000 4917	60000 5000	**IF MORE THAN 60,000/annum, please write your Approximate income:**							

B: HERITAGE

1) What do you understand about heritage?

2) How have you learnt about the significance of the heritage?

2a	From my family
2b	From older people in the community
2c	At school
2d	No one has ever explained it to me
2e	Other (specify): _____

3)Do you believe CH is important for the local community?

1	Yes	3.1a	Group identity
		3.1b	Future generation
		3.1c	Economic benefit
		3.1d	Historical background
		3.1e	Other: _____
0	No		

4) Do you believe the heritage warrants the interest of

Malaysian tourists?	1	Yes
	0	No, I don't understand why they come
International tourists?	1	Yes
	0	No, I don't understand why they come

5) Do you think that the government should spend more on heritage conservation?

1	Yes
0	No

C: TOURISM

1) Which one of these scenarios would you prefer

1	Number of visitors to the site rising steadily
2	Number of visitors to the site diminishing
3	No change in the number of visitors to the site
4	No visitors at all

2) What do you think about:

a) Tourists in public areas	1	I like it	2	I don't mind	3	I don't like it
b) Tourists taking photos	1	I like it	2	I don't mind	3	I don't like it
c) Tourists entering houses	1	I like it	2	I don't mind	3	I don't like it
d) Tourist entering religious buildings	1	I like it	2	I don't mind	3	I don't like it

3) Do you think that the growing number of visitors has had an impact in your daily life?

1	Yes	
	1	It has had a positive impact (specify): _____
	2	It has had a negative impact (specify): _____
	3	I have noticed the change and it has had both implications (specify): _____
0	No	

D: GENERAL STATEMENT REGARDING TOURISM AND HERITAGE

1) Tourism keeps my CH alive

1	Strongly Agree	2	Agree	3	Not Sure	4	Disagree	5	Strongly Disagree

2) The heritage attraction provides jobs for local people

1	Strongly Agree	2	Agree	3	Not Sure	4	Disagree	5	Strongly Disagree

3) Our opinion was asked during the development of our CH into an attraction

1	Strongly Agree	2	Agree	3	Not Sure	4	Disagree	5	Strongly Disagree

4) I like it when people come and visit my CH

1	Strongly Agree	2	Agree	3	Not Sure	4	Disagree	5	Strongly Disagree

5) Tourists do not understand our heritage

1	Strongly Agree	2	Agree	3	Not Sure	4	Disagree	5	Strongly Disagree

6) We were given a chance to participate in the development of our CH as a tourist attraction

1	Strongly Agree	2	Agree	3	Not Sure	4	Disagree	5	Strongly Disagree

7) Tourists do not value our heritage

1	Strongly Agree	2	Agree	3	Not Sure	4	Disagree	5	Strongly Disagree

8) Tourism destroys the true value of our CH

1	Strongly Agree	2	Agree	3	Not Sure	4	Disagree	5	Strongly Disagree

9) In general, I am happy with the development of the CH tourism industry in my community

1	Strongly Agree	2	Agree	3	Not Sure	4	Disagree	5	Strongly Disagree

9a) Please explain why

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix C

TOURIST SURVEY

SURVEY NO.

SITE NAME:	**SURVEY NO.**

A: GENERAL INFORMATION

1) State/ Country of origin: _____

2) Gender [1] Male [2] Female

3) Age group (years) [1] Under 20 [2] 20 – 30 [3] 31 – 40 [4] 41 – 50 [5] More than 50

4) Education level [1] Primary [2] Secondary [3] Diploma [4] First degree [5] Post-graduate Degree [6] Others: _____

5) Occupation **(Please WRITE 1 for YOURSELF and 2 for your SPOUSE/PARTNER)**

General worker			Self employed		
Sales/clerical			Retired		
Admin/managerial			Student		
Professional			Unemployed		
Teacher			Other (specify):_____		

Please state your occupation

You Partner

6) Household Income Grid (PLEASE STATE THE CURRENCY): _____

Please circle one of the APPROXIMATE income earn from the grid below **Note: Annual income = (Monthly income x 12)**													
Annually	<5000	5000	6000	7000	8000	9000	10000	11000	12000	13000	14000	15000	16000
Monthly	<416	416	5000	583	667	750	833	917	1000	1083	1167	1250	1333
Annually	17000	18000	19000	20000	21000	22000	23000	24000	25000	26000	27000	28000	29000
Monthly	1417	1500	1583	1667	1750	1833	1917	2000	2083	2167	2250	2333	2417
Annually	30000	31000	32000	33000	34000	35000	36000	37000	38000	39000	40000	41000	42000
Monthly	2500	2583	2667	2750	2833	2917	3000	3083	3167	3250	3333	3417	3500
Annually	43000	44000	45000	46000	47000	48000	49000	50000	51000	52000	53000	54000	55000
Monthly	3583	3667	3750	3833	3917	4000	4083	4167	4250	4333	4417	4500	4583
Annually	56000	57000	58000	59000	60000	**IF MORE THAN 60,000/annum, please write your**							
Monthly	4667	4750	4833	4917	5000	**Approximate income:**							

B: TRAVELLING CHARACTERISTICS

1) Purpose of visit to Malaysia

1	Vacation	2	Shopping
3	Visiting friends	4	Visiting relatives
5	Business	6	Academic
7	Others (specify): _____		

2) Number of people travelling with you (please enter number) [ ] Adult [ ] Children

3) How did you learn about this CH site? (Please select 3 most suitable descriptions)

1	Interest in CH	2	General reading
3	Relates to family history	4	Specialised heritage book
5	Word of mouth	6	Travel guide book
7	Internet	8	School
9	Work assignment	10	Tour group itinerary
11	Printed advertisement while in Malaysia		
12	Printed advertisement in home country		
13	Happen to be find the heritage site while walking around town		
14	Other (specify): _____		

4) How did you arrange your visit to this site

1	Self	2	Tour operator
3	Friends	4	Relatives

5) How long do you plan to stay in town

1	One day	2	Overnight
3	Up to a week	4	More than a week

5) Do you have any specific interest in CH

[1] Yes (specify): _____ [0] No

6) Do you plan to visit any other CH sites while in this country

[1] Yes, where: _____ [0] No, why? _____

7) Are you a member of any heritage group

[1] Yes (specify): _____ [0] No

C: FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE VISITORS' DECISION TO VISIT SITE

For each of the statement, choose one answer that most describe your feeling
Please circle your answer
(1) Not important at all (2) Not Important (3) Somehow important (4) Important
(5) Very Important

1. **Site is free**

1	2	3	4	5

2. **Number of people at site**

1	2	3	4	5

3. **Distance**

1	2	3	4	5

4. **My children's interest CH**

1	2	3	4	5

5. **My interest in CH**

1	2	3	4	5

6. **Family history**

1	2	3	4	5

7. **My host suggest the place**

1	2	3	4	5

8. **Enrichment of my knowledge**

1	2	3	4	5

9. **My specific interest on this site**

1	2	3	4	5

10. **To experience the community's CH**

1	2	3	4	5

D: VISITORS GENERAL FEELING

1) In general, how did you describe your visit to the heritage site? (Please select 3 most suitable descriptions)

1	Educational
2	Suitable for family outing
3	Boring
4	Enjoyable
5	Suitable for schoolchildren
6	Very technical
7	Entertaining
8	Did not learn anything from the visit
9	Other (specify):_____

2) Would you revisit this site in the future? 1 Yes 2 No

3) Would you recommend this site to others? 1 Yes 0 No
Please explain why?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix D

Interview: Government Officials

OUTLINE OF INTERVIEWS

DATE ……....
TIME STARTS …… ENDS ……....
PLACE ……

PART ONE: PERSONAL PARTICULARS
(Confidential and for personal record only)

Q1 Name ……
Q2 Office add ……
Q3 Tel. No. ……
Q4 Email add. ……
Q5 Position ……

PART TWO

Q6 DEFINITION

a. Can you explain what does heritage means to you?

b. Can you explain what does Cultural Heritage means to you?

Q7 HOW DOES A THEME FOR TORUISM PRODUCT IS DEVELOPED?

a. Do you consider Cultural Heritage as one of the product themes in developing tourism attractions in Malaysia?

b. What are the components in the Cultural Heritage attractions?

c. Who decides on the components?

Q8 LEGISLATION

a. Is there any policy/legislation related to Cultural Heritage in Malaysia?

b. Is there any guideline or framework related Cultural Heritage tourism?

Q9 CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT

a. Is your organization involved in the management of Cultural Heritage in Malaysia?

b. If yes, how is your organization involved?

c. Who should be responsible for the management of Cultural Heritage in Malaysia?

d. Do you think that the management of Cultural Heritage and the management of Cultural Heritage tourism are the same?

e. Can you give your reasons?

Q10 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

a. Have you heard about the term sustainable development?

b. If yes, can you explain what do you understand about the term?

c. Do you agree/disagree that Cultural Heritage tourism should be developed in a sustainable manner?

d. Can you explain your reasons?

e. How do you see the involvement of local communities in the development of Cultural Heritage tourism?

f. Is it needed?

g. How do you describe their role?

Q11 CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM – ISSUES AND PROBLEM

a. Can you explain the benefits of developing Cultural Heritage tourism?

b. What are the issues and problems you foresee in developing Cultural Heritage tourism?

c. What are the future trends in Cultural Heritage tourism in Malaysia?

Appendix E

Reliability Test of Attitude Instrument

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
tourism keeps CH alive	28.6555	10.289	.308	.555
heritage attraction provides jobs for local people	29.3937	10.042	.449	.525
opinion asked during development of CH in attraction	29.1454	9.421	.309	.554
I like when people visit my CH	28.3378	10.673	.344	.553
given chance to participate in devp. of CH into attraction	29.3378	9.471	.286	.563
generally happy with devp. of CH tourism industry	28.5638	10.318	.394	.539
tourists do not understand my CH	29.7405	11.390	.032	.630
tourists do not value my heritage	29.5168	10.201	.265	.566
tourism destroys value of my CH	29.2148	10.281	.272	.564

Appendix F

Mean Comparison between Groups within Local Communities

Item*	Group	n	Group mean	s.d.	Overall mean (s.d.)
Tourists do not value our heritage	Male	323	3.1466	0.83	1.4810 (0.500)
	Female	215	3.3023	0.84	
Tourism keeps CH alive*	Tourism Related Job	68	4.2647	0.563	4.0828 (0.746)
	Non-tourism Job	379	4.0501	0.770	
Heritage attractions provide jobs for local people**	Tourism Related job	68	3.6029	0.577	3.3445 (0.650)
	Non-tourism job	379	3.2982	0.653	
Opinion asked during development of CH into tourism attraction**	Tourism Related Job	68	3.9559	0.969	3.5928 (1.00)
	Non-tourism Job	379	3.5277	0.993	
I like it when people visit my CH*	Tourism Related Job	68	4.5588	0.500	4.4004 (0.582)
	Non-tourism Job	379	4.3720	0.592	
Given chance to participate in development**	Tourism Related Job	68	3.8235	1.006	3.4004 (1.023)
	Non-tourism Job	379	3.3245	1.009	
Happy with development of CH tourism**	Tourism Related Job	68	4.4265	0.527	4.1745 (0.632)
	Non-tourism Job	379	4.1293	0.640	
Tourists do not value my heritage*	Tourism Related Job	68	3.4412	0.835	3.2215 (0.838)
	Non-tourism Job	379	3.1821	0.833	
Tourism destroys value of my CH*	Tourism Related Job	68	3.7059	0.754	3.5235 (0.800)
	Non-tourism Job	379	3.4908	0.805	

Note: * = significant at 5%
** = significant at 1%

Appendix G
Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Site is free of charge	22.35	16.064	.440	.515	.592
Number of people visit the site	21.90	18.252	.181	.541	.651
Distance	22.41	18.146	.253	.199	.634
My children's interest in this site	23.66	18.566	.235	.289	.637
My interest in CH	21.93	15.225	.518	.751	.571
Understanding about my family history	23.20	19.599	.214	.166	.641
My host's suggestion	22.67	19.376	.075	.194	.668
Enrichment of my knowledge on historical person, period, event or building	22.20	15.946	.516	.790	.577
My specific interest in this site	21.84	14.960	.647	.562	.544
I wanted to experience the community's CH	21.91	18.735	.092	.207	.675

Appendix H

Percentage of Tourists Responding to 10 Items that Influenced Their Decision to Visit

Variables	N. important at all	Not important	Somehow important	Important	Very important	Total % (number)
1) Site is free	15.7	39.1	20.1	25.2	0.00	100 (453)
2) Number of people at site	5.7	32.2	19.0	43.0	0.00	100 (453)
3) Distance	3.5	66.2	8.6	21.6	0.00	100 (453)
4) My children's interest	91.4	.4	1.3	6.8	0.00	100 (453)
5) Interest in CH	11.9	19.2	34.4	29.1	5.3	100 (453)
6) Family history	31.8	67.1	.9	.2	0.00	100 (453)
7) My host's suggestion	23.8	37.3	31.3	7.5	0.00	100 (453)
8) Enrichment of knowledge	11.3	28.9	40.4	17.4	2.0	100 (453)
9)Specific interest in this site	11.7	8.6	42.4	36.6	.7	100 (453)
10) To experience community's CH	11.5	19.2	33.8	30.0	5.5	100 (453)

Appendix I

Mean Comparison and t-value of Respondents' Motivation – Malaysian and Foreign Tourists

Variables	Mean (sd)		
	Malaysian	Foreign	Overall
1) Site is free*	2.77 (1.060)	2.35 (.970)	2.55 (1.033)
2) Number of people at the site	2.97 (.926)	3.01 (1.049)	2.99 (.992)
3) Distance*	2.64 (.893)	2.35 (.824)	2.48 (.869)
4) My children's interest*	1.5 (1.089)	1.00 (.000)	1.24 (.787)
5) My interest in CH	3.04 (1.115)	2.90 (1.053)	2.97 (1.083)
6) Family history*	1.97 (.255)	1.45 (.523)	1.70 (.493)
7) My host's suggestion*	2.73 (.770)	1.78 (.748)	2.23 (.896)
8) Enrichment of knowledge	2.73 (.880)	2.68 (1.012)	2.70 (.951)
9) Specific interest in this site	3.07 (.944)	3.05 (.999)	3.06 (.972)
10) To experience community's CH	2.92 (1.041)	3.05 (1.119)	2.99 (1.084)

Note: * = significant at 5% in the t-test

Appendix J

Mean Comparison between Groups within Malaysian Tourists

Item*	Group	n	Group mean	s.d.	Overall mean (s.d.)
Number of people visiting the site	Male	112	3.13	.891	2.99 (.992)
	Female	102	2.83	.939	
Host's suggestion	Male	112	2.89	.677	2.23 (.896)
	female	102	2.59	.823	
Site is free	W/out children	138	2.54	1.025	2.55 (1.033)
	With children	75	3.17	1.005	
Number of people visiting the site	W/out children	138	3.07	.938	2.99 (.992)
	With children	75	2.80	.885	
Distance	W/out children	138	2.54	.856	2.48 (.869)
	With children	75	2.83	.935	
My children's interest	W/out children	138	1.09	.511	1.24 (.787)
	With children	75	2.25	1.425	
Specific interest in this site	W/out children	138	2.96	.973	3.06 (.972)
	With children	75	3.27	.859	
Specific interest in this site	Basic education	102	2.87	1.012	3.06 (.972)
	Higher education	111	3.24	.844	
Experience community's CH	Basic education	102	2.77	1.062	2.99 (1.084)
	Higher education	111	3.05	1.008	

Appendix K

Mean Comparison between Groups within Foreign Tourists

Item*	Group	n	Group mean	s.d.	Overall mean(s.d.)
distance	w/out children	194	2.39	.872	2.48 (.869)
	With children	47	2.17	.564	
Site is free	basic education	36	2.69	1.037	2.55 (1.033)
	higher education	204	2.29	.948	
Interest in CH	basic education	36	2.47	1.108	2.97 (1.083)
	higher education	204	2.98	1.027	
Enrichment of knowledge	basic education	36	2.33	.926	2.70 (.951)
	higher education	204	2.74	1.016	
Specific interest in this site	basic education	36	2.75	1.079	3.06 (.972)
	higher education	204	3.11	.977	
Site is free	Interest in CH**	134	2.22	.870	2.55 (1.033)
	No interest	106	2.53	1.062	
Number of people at site	Interest in CH**	134	2.84	1.084	2.99 (.992)
	No interest	106	3.24	.962	
Interest in CH	Interest in CH**	134	3.16	.964	2.97 (1.083)
	No interest	106	2.58	1.077	
Enrichment of knowledge	Interest in CH**	134	2.93	1.031	2.70 (.951)
	No interest	106	2.36	.896	
Specific interest in this site	Interest in CH**	134	3.29	.857	3.06 (.972)
	No interest	106	2.75	1.085	
Experience community's CH	Interest in CH**	134	3.25	1.058	2.99 (1.084)
	No interest	106	2.80	1.150	
*all items listed were significant at 5% ** CH					