

TOURISM PLANNING

Forces of Change, Processes, and Relationships

KHAIRIL WAHIDIN AWANG
NOR SYUHADA ZULKEFLI

Tourism Planning Copyright © 2023 by Khairil Wahidin Awang & Nor Syuhada Zulkifli

All rights reserved. Without limiting the rights under copyright reserved above, no part of this publication may be produced, stored in, or introduced into a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or any means (electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or otherwise), without the prior written permission of the copyright owner and the above publisher of this book.

For information contact: syuhada.z@umk.edu.my

Cover Designer

iPRO Designer

ISBN 978-629-97191-2-0

First Edition: December 2023

Published and printed by:

iPRO Publication
No 32-2 Jalan Reko Sentral 4,
Reko Sentral 43000 Kajang, Selangor.
Tel: 014-8614007
Email: ipro.pbn@gmail.com

Content

Preface	iii
List of Plates	iv
List of Tables	v
List of Figures	v
List of Abbreviations	vi
Biography	viii
Chapter 1: Background, Concepts, and Evolution of Tourism Planning	1
Chapter 2: The Tourism Industry and Its Development Components	12
Chapter 3: Tourism Planning Process: Systematic and Integrated	29
Chapter 4: Tourism Policies	40
Chapter 5: Sustainability and Sustainable Tourism	57
Chapter 6: Tourism Impacts on the Economy, Environment and Socio-culture	64
Chapter 7: Environmental Impact Assessment, Carrying Capacity and Limits of Acceptable Change	76
Chapter 8: Conclusion and Future of Tourism Planning	86
References	96

Preface

This text is written with the sole intention of providing impetus to tourism undergraduates, many of whom are novices to tourism planning. This book does not provide checklists of what shall be done in the planning or development of tourism. Nor does it provide solutions to many arising questions pertaining to the tourism industry. What is more methods used in tourism planning have not remained constant. The book emphasises the importance of understanding concepts, the processes in planning, the processes of change, and the relationships amongst playmakers. As a field of study, tourism, due to its fast ascendancy to become the world's largest industry, and the sheer increase in the number of people becoming tourists, hurls its planning component to the utmost importance.

The authors purposely segregate some discussions under separate headings, for example, positive and negative impacts of tourism, in making the discourse in tourism planning simplistic. This is to ensure that our targetted audience finds less difficulty in comprehending issues that have different values to different stakeholders. Some data in some sections of this book is the results of a research project entitled '*New Staycation Motivators Model for National Vacationers on Proximity Tourism*' which is still in its infancy stage. We would like to acknowledge a big thank you to the Ministry of Higher Education of Malaysia for funding the project under the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme: FRGS/1/2023/SS04/UMK/02/1.

We are indebted to family members, colleagues, and individuals for their unwavering support in making this book-writing project a success. Any oversights are our own shortcomings, and we offer our sincere apology.

12th October 2023.
Kota Bharu, Malaysia.

List of Plates

Plate 1	Religious pilgrimage to Mecca. Mount Arafah, on the outskirts of Mecca, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.	14
Plate 2	Different tourist activities on a bridge in Istanbul, Turkey. Anglers on the upper deck, waiters preparing for evening dining on the lower deck.	20
Plate 3	A naturally attractive harem of proboscis monkeys in Sandakan, Sabah, on the Borneo part of Malaysia.	21
Plate 4	A promenade next to a beach overshadows by a gloomy sky in Aberystwyth, Wales, The U.K., provides a picturesque setting.	22
Plate 5	A university cafeteria in Beppu, Japan, provides Muslim dietary needs for students and visitors.	23
Plate 6	A massive web of communication and electrical lines in Phnom Penh, a relatively commonly seen in less developing countries.	28
Plate 7	A Semelai guide in Tasek Bera, the first RAMSAR site in Malaysia, demonstrating oil extraction from a keruing tree. The Semelai is one of Peninsular Malaysia's 19 <i>ethnics Orang Asli</i> .	67
Plate 8	An old charm in an unwelcoming environment. Old traditional passenger boats ferrying passengers across the Terengganu River in debris filled water, Malaysia.	71
Plate 9	An enclave landscape in Banjul, The Gambia.	74
Plate 10	A notice board in a village in Perhentian Island, Malaysia.	74
Plate 11	The fury of nature in Stelu, Kelantan, an aftermath of a big flood that hit Peninsular Malaysia's east coast region in 2004. A makeshift bridge was constructed and used next to the collapsed bridge.	89

List of Tables

Table 6.1	A general framework for assessing the impact of tourism.	75
Table 7.1	The Steps and Description of Limits of Acceptable Change.	82

List of Figures

Figure 1.1	Tourism Area Life Cycle Model (Butler, 1980).	8
Figure 2.1	The Development of Public Tourism-related Entities in Malaysia.	16
Figure 2.2	Some Current Ministries that Contribute to Tourism Development in Malaysia.	17
Figure 4.1	Malaysia National Ecotourism Plan 2016 - 2025	45
Figure 4.2	Malaysia National Tourism Policy 2020 - 2030	47
Figure 4.3	Tourism Malaysia Strategic Plan 2022 - 2026	49
Figure 4.4	Cambodia Tourism Development Strategic Plan 2012 - 2020	51
Figure 4.5	Thailand National Tourism Development Plan 2017 - 2021.	54

Abbreviations

ACLED	Armed Conflict Location and Event Data Project
ASEAN	The Association of Southeast Asian Nations
B & B	Bed and Breakfast
DOSM	Department of Statistics Malaysia
E-commerce	Electronic commerce
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
EXCO	Executive Council
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GHGs	Greenhouse Gases
IATA	International Air Transport Association
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INTAN	<i>Institut Tadbir Awam Malaysia</i>
ITC	Islamic Tourism Centre
LAC	Limits of Acceptable Change
MICE	Meeting, Incentive, Convention and Exhibition
MIDA	Malaysia Investment Development Authority
MOCAT	Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism of Malaysia
MOTAC	Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture of Malaysia
MTPB	Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board @ Tourism Malaysia
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NDPC	National Development Planning Committee
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NOAA	National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
NTP	National Tourism Policy
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PATA	Pacific Asia Travel Association
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SME	Small and Medium Enterprise
UNCED	United Nations World Congress on the Environment and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme

UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNWCED	United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
VTL	Vaccinated Travel Lane
WHO	World Health Organization
WTO	World Tourism Organization
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature

Biography

Khairil Wahidin Awang is Professor of Tourism Geography at the Universiti Malaysia Kelantan. His research expertise expands on the tourism-sustainability agenda, covering the arena of spatial and temporal tourism development with a focus on intertwined issues rooted in various tourism subsectors, and of particular, the small and medium-sized accommodation and attraction entities. Khairil had hold the posts of Head of Department, Deputy Dean, Dean, University Board Member and Chapter Head of the National Council of Professor in his 30 years of academic endeavour.

Nor Syuhada Zulkefli, PhD, is a Senior Lecturer in the Faculty of Hospitality, Tourism, and Wellness, Universiti Malaysia Kelantan. Nor Syuhada had her formal academic training in the field of planning. She has a Bachelor of Science Degree in Housing, Building, and Planning, a Master of Science Degree in Urban and Regional Planning, and a Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism Planning. All the credentials are from the University of Science Malaysia. Nor Syuhada served as a Town Planner for two years before moving into the academe. Nor Syuhada teaches tourism planning and entrepreneurship, and is the recipients of several research grants enabling her to embark on projects dealing with community-based tourism, sustainability, and the broader framework of urban and regional planning. Nor Syuhada is currently in charge of the internship programme for tourism undergraduates.

Chapter 1

Background, Concepts, and Evolution of Tourism Planning

Tourism is the world's biggest industry. Tourism is likely to have the greatest impact on mankind due to its scale and depth, having direct and indirect effects on ordinary lives. This cut across salary gains, increased standard of living and quality of life, and increased sophistication of positive thinking that includes awareness of the environmental and socio-cultural surroundings. Countries benefit from decreased unemployment rate, increased foreign exchanges in the coffer, increased ability to muster continuous construction of infrastructure projects, and gaining spots on the global stage. Eber (1992, p. iii) posits '... of what constitutes tourism as a phenomenon, as an industrial-economic activity and structure, its relevance to a world in transformation, and its impacts and consequences on destination and people'.

While developed countries have long acquainted themselves with tourism, less developed countries or developing ones have increasingly used tourism to move forward. Planning to develop tourism at its infancy stage is paramount. Tourism's complexities as an industry transgress into many other industrial sectors, therefore not many countries are successful in adopting the ideal approaches to developing tourism. Integrating different views from various stakeholders produces a composite nature of tourism planning. Still, it does not guarantee planning success. Rapid urbanization, a common feature of the new global economy, exacerbates problems in increased demand for land, displacing many who resided on sites identified to be developed. Land use development will result in conflicts if development is carried out in an unplanned manner (Shofirun et al. 2015). This is where proper tourism planning is needed. The following are some of the reasons why planning is so important in tourism:

1. Modern tourism involves a relatively new type of activity across many areas, and some government and private sectors have little experience in how to develop it properly.
2. Tourism is a complicated, multi-sectoral, and fragmented activity, involving many other economic sectors like agriculture, fisheries, forestry, manufacturing, and transportation.
3. Tourism can bring various direct and indirect economic benefits that can be optimized through integrated planning.
4. Tourism can generate various sociocultural benefits and problems too, thus the need to determine the best tourism development policy is a necessity.
5. The development of tourist attractions, facilities, and infrastructure has both positive and negative impacts on the physical environment.
6. Natural and cultural resources for tourism shall be indefinitely maintained, not destroyed and degraded in the process of development.
7. Achieving controlled tourism development requires a special organisational structure, marketing strategies, promotion programmes, legislation, and regulation.

(Inskeep, 1991, pp. 16-17)

The importance and value of planning for tourism are recognized by the sheer number of tourism plans the world has produced. The World Tourism Organization established an inventory of 1,600 tourism plans in 1980 (World Tourism Organization, 1980, cited in Pearce, 1997, p. 244). When there is no tourism planning or not enough planning or the planning itself is poor, there would be grave consequences. This shall be discussed in chapter six under the theme 'Tourism Impacts on the Economy, Environment and Socio-culture'.

Tourism planning, in a wider context, is reflected in development approaches experienced by the world's countries. To this note, the authors will discuss the theories of development first before subsequently moving on to a discourse in tourism planning.

Development Theories

There are many meanings to development. This includes 'economic growth, structural change, autonomous industrialization, capitalism or socialism, self-actualization, and individual, national, regional and cultural self-reliance' (Harrison, 1988, cited by Telfer, 2002, p. 36). Sharpley (2002) describes development as a process where society moves from one condition to another so as to achieve the goal of that process which is progress. More so is that development is seeking a desirable future, marking society's success.

The roots of development theory up until the 1960s postulated a linear path, and as such grew along the four dominant paradigms: modernization, dependency, neo-liberalism, and alternative development (Khairil et al. 2010). In recent times development theory addresses a more holistic concept, which has included political, social, cultural, and environmental aspects.

Modernization Development Theory

Modernization theory postulates an evolution process involving a move from traditional rural-based industry to an urban-based economy (Schmidt, 1989). This growth is economically measured using economic models like the Keynesian model, based on material outputs which are implied by the Gross Domestic Product or Per Capita Income. Modernization theory also incorporates sociological traditions like evolution, diffusion, and system theory, which involve amongst others literacy rate, and access to medical services (Harrison, 1988). However, the failures of the modernization theory, particularly due to its unidirectional path, embedded in western-ethnocentrism result in unequal distribution of wealth between developed and developing countries, more so, when the later has little ability to guide and influence their own development. This gives rise to the dependent theoretical approach.

Dependency Development Theory

The original notion of the dependency theory of development is grounded in unequal trade exchange between developed and developing countries even under *laissez-faire* and free trade conditions. The different stages of economic development possessed by the world's countries invoke the notion that the advantage poor countries had over

their cheap labour used in producing commodities is canceled by rich countries' given subsidies to their producers (Toye, 1993). Critics argue that the latter applied protectionism. This results in some developing countries moving towards industrialization to diversify their economies. The transfer of technology from developed to developing countries was hindered by problems too. Consequently, a new approach named neo-liberalism emerged.

Neo-liberalism Development Theory

Economic neo-liberalism started to emerge in the mid-1970s during the world's economic downturn, kickstarted by the oil crisis and stagflation, a condition where inflation and unemployment rates increased simultaneously (Hettne, 1990). Harvey (2005) notes that an individual or citizen's relationship with the state is mediated by the market. Neo-liberalism spurred by *Reaganomics* (named after the United States's President Ronald Reagan) and *Thatcherism* (named after Britain's Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher) in some developed countries of the West, advocated further growth of the free market economy. Neo-liberalism process also found its ways into many countries of the developing world through the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank. Both the IMF and the World Bank extended their loans to help the local economies of these countries during the financial crisis of the mid-1980s. Invoking Sustainable Development Goals, see Chapter Five for details, many global organisations including the United Nations World Tourism Organization, the United Nations Development Programme, and the World Travel and Tourism Council, advocate development with heavy emphasize on neo-liberalism (Hall, 2021). The global tourism industry also involves social and political processes, apart from economic matters. Nonetheless, critics of this economic neo-liberalism acknowledge that this type of economic development theory is a re-make of the older modernization theory. Thus, the alternative development theory is born.

Alternative Development Theory

Advocates of the alternative development theory proposed a more people-friendly bottom-up approach. This is where Non-Governmental Organizations play active and significant roles in advocating economic development via the partake of local or host communities. This so-called indigenous development concept also seeks local empowerment and decision-making in development planning (Briggs and Sharp,

2004). This alternative development theory is closely linked to the concept of environment and sustainability, which will be further address in chapter five.

What is Planning?

A plan is an orderly arrangement of components of an overall system that underlines a policy. It may consist of an explanatory statement, graphic representative, and maps. Planning is prescribed as anticipating and regulating change(s) in a system (Murphy, 1985). This involves promoting orderly development and enhancing the environmental, economic, and social benefits of the development process. 'Planning practice is rooted in a system of law, which sets boundaries, within which planners and those individuals, companies or agencies seeking to develop must act' (Sarkawi and Abdullah, 2008, p. 244). Inskip (1991, p. 25), meanwhile, defines planning as '...organizing the future to achieve certain objectives'. Planning involves predicting for the future, though this cannot be precisely done. Gunn and Var (2002) acknowledged the purpose of planning is to create plans of action for the future and implement sustainable development. This needs a process to determine appropriate future action through sequences of choices. Goals are established and strategies are identified, and tasks are outlined according to the strategies. Strategies are the means of accomplishing the policy. These are done within an action-oriented framework.

Planning is concerned with the past, present, and future. Planning is a multidimensional activity which seeks to be integrative. It embraces economic, social, political, and technological dimensions. This plan of development has to be effective, be resilient in the face of dramatic changes to the surroundings. From the tourism perspective, planners have to meander through the complexities of tourism management, mitigating negative impacts while bridging the tourists' satisfaction with the host's needs for money and development. Tourism is characterised by diverse factors that can make or break the planning process and its implementation, such as local residents and financial institutions' preferences and market demands.

Evolution and Traditions in Tourism Planning

As a tool of development, tourism planning has not remained constant but has evolved throughout time. This is due to changes in demand within the tourism industry. There are five broad traditions of tourism planning (Hall, 2008). They are:

1. Boosterism.
2. Economic, industry-oriented tradition.
3. Physical or spatial tradition.
4. Community-oriented tradition which emphasizes the role that the host plays in the tourism experience.
5. Sustainable tourism approach.

These five traditions are not mutually exclusive. They are not sequentially either.

Boosterism

Boosterism has its origin in the 9th-century *laissez-faire* economic thinking in Europe and the frontier period of North America. Within the tourism scene, Boosterism has its roots in organized tourism beginning in the middle of the 20th century whereby the scale of development could be considered small. When the numbers of tourists were meager and natural resources were abundant, the effect was literally minimal. In parallel, the perception that tourism produces little negative impact has stuck until recently. Boosterism denotes that tourism is inherently good for the hosts. This is what some scholars called as a simplistic attitude, with automatic benefits gained by the hosts. It calls for forecasting demand for promotion and development rather than dealing with equitable quantity and quality of resources and social carrying capacities of the site.

Another criterion of this boosterism tradition is the dearth of locals' participation in decision-making, and even those who oppose such planning would be treated as unpatriotic (Hall, 2000). Hall contends that boosterism is a form of 'non-planning'. If left unchecked, this tradition will result in total damage to the surroundings.

The Economic, Industry-Oriented Tradition

The economic tradition postulates tourism as a tool to advance development, including mitigating regional economic imbalance, diversification of traditional rural enterprises, and diversification of economic base. Economic growth is measured with employment multipliers, foreign revenue including foreign exchange, and trade imbalance, thus boosting country revenue and economic benefits. In parallel, the wealth of nations is measured based on tangible goods for export including vehicles, machinery, food and

animal food products, and the like, and the construction of infrastructure including airports, seaports, integrated sewage system, and highways.

As the world transcends into the so-called more advanced 21st century, the service industry has taken precedence importance. Tourism as a segment of the wider service industry has become the world's top industry. It is common to see many governments treat tourism as an industry that could bolster their economies. Governments recognize tourism as a potential tool for the export industry. However, as in the case of boosterism, critics also claim the economic tradition paid little attention to the industry's negative impacts. Economic goals are prioritized over concerns for environmental and social issues. Tourism is used as a tool by the governments to achieve certain goals, most of all the economic goals.

Physical or Spatial Tradition

The Physical or Spatial tradition is the dominant form of public tourism planning. The tradition reveals its roots in the work of geographers, urban and regional land planners, and nature and non-nature-based conservationists. Its goal is to provide the spatial structure of activities as a reflection in land use. One way of mitigating the negative physical impacts in a destination is by modifying the travel pattern such as imposing zoning whereby tourists are dispersed from congested sensitive areas to other areas.

Over time this framework has incorporated physical or environmental and social attributes, progressively imbedding attribute thresholds including the desirable rates of change also known as Limits of Acceptable Change (McCool, 2013), particularly in response to issues pertaining to sustainable forms of development (Hall, 2000). Limits of Acceptable Change will be conceptually explained in the latter part of this book. Contemporary physical land or spatial tradition espouses human-environmental relationships under an overarching ecological approach. These elements can be found under the heading environmental planning (see Hall, 2000). Proponents of environmental planning further note that to make environmental planning effective, the political process of public debate on environmental matters will need to be significantly ironed out and enhanced.

This tradition can also be linked to Richard Butler's (1980)'s notion of destination evolution, emphasizing the penchant for the destination to evolve, decline or rejuvenate according to market demand and conditions of the destination's resources (Figure 1.1). Therefore, this tradition also deals with the destination's natural resources and the destination's capacity to withstand physical and economic development.

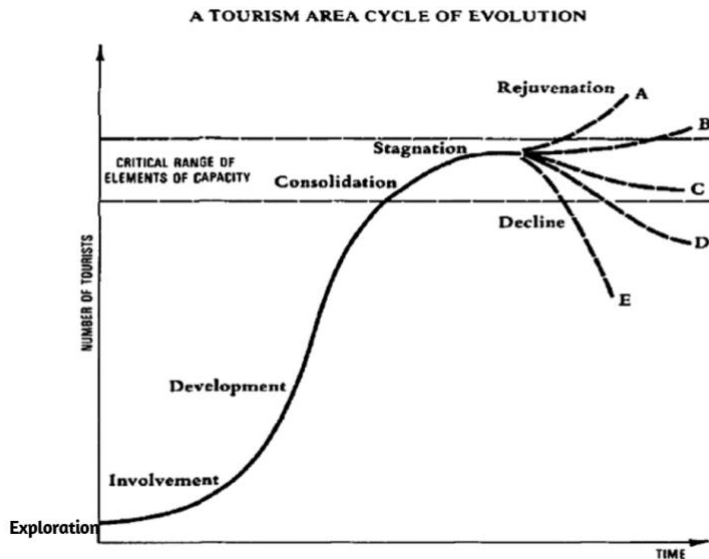


Figure 1.1: Tourism Area Life Cycle Model (Butler, 1980).

Community Oriented Tradition

Within the last 50 years, negative environmental and social impacts have been increasingly given due attention. While such issues are prevalent in developing countries, it is increasingly recognized that the same issues also occur in developed countries (Hall, 2000). Scholars and practitioners argue that by including local's opinion in destination planning, these issues could be mitigated. Community-based tourism planning is underpinned by public's participation. Public participation is the most fundamental element in tourism planning. In general, the public is referred to residents, the government, and those who have legitimate power. In tourism, the

public is at times referred specifically to local communities that are troubled by the tourism development. Within this perspective, development plans should acknowledge the participation of local community in the decision-making process. The residents will be given space to express opinions on the kind of community they wish to be a part of.

The World Tourism Organization/United Nations Environment Programme 2000 Hainan Conference has taken a stand that the local communities as the principal stakeholders in tourism development should be given the opportunity to be consulted and give advice when decisions by the governments or private investors may have long-term impacts on the local community's livelihood (Pleumarom, 2009). The conference further contends that one of the failures of past tourism planning is that the local communities were not given the chance to participate in tourism planning.

Timothy (1999, p.125) opined that 'public participation is intended to support decision-making and offer benefits to tourism development'. However, in order to be more effective public participation must have access to all information pertaining to the tourism industry so that they are equipped with good information and facts (Haywood, 1988). Adding to this, Mason (2004) noted that the successful involvement of a community in tourism planning will depend on a number of particular factors being present:

- The character of the political system at both national and local levels.
- The extent of local population's political literacy.
- The extent of the particular tourism issue.
- The awareness of the tourism issue in the community.
- The history of community's involvement or lack of it, and
- The media's attitudes and behaviour.

Marzuki and Hay (2013, p. 499) further propose that effective engagement in the planning process involves three sequential stages.

1) Information stage

The information stage targets on the supply of information and enlighten participants about their engagement in the planning process. This stage has the aim to increase

participants and public understanding of the objectives of both participation and the development proposal.

2) Consultation stage

This stage involves information exchange and feedback from citizens and other stakeholders to power holders. The consultation stage also describes the process where participants' involvement increases through their discussion with the powerholders, using a two-way information exchange; top-down, and bottom-up. The participants will have information about the context of development, while the power holders will benefit through participants' feedback.

3) Empowerment stage

The last stage is empowerment. This involves the need for a high level of negotiation in order to transfer power from power holders to citizens and other stakeholders. The powerholders could start to delegate their power to stakeholders through cooperation and joint decision-making. A so-called delegation period is critical to develop participants' capabilities to manage and handle the decision-making process before achieving total control of the process.

In Malaysia, the participatory process in development planning is underscored in several sections of Act 172. The act calls for the eligibility for the community to participate in the planning control in the absence of a local plan (Town and Country Planning Act 1976). In the case of Langkawi Island, the public had two means to participate in the preparation of the Langkawi Structure Plan 1990 - 2005. The public could view the completed plan when it was put on show in several places across Langkawi for a month. The public could also view the draft report of the plan when it was exhibited in the town of Kuah for a month. This was the period when the public could give their input to local authorities.

Sustainable Tourism Tradition

The community-oriented tourism tradition is framed within the broader agenda of sustainability. Sustainable development has the main goal of providing lasting and secure livelihoods that minimize resource depletion, environmental degradation, cultural disruption, and social instability. There are many coined terms that account

for sustainable tourism approaches. Green tourism, alternative tourism, community-based tourism, eco-tourism, and responsible tourism are some of these terms. The rise of these forms of tourism is due to increasing interest from travellers who are concerned with the impacts to the surroundings due to the kinds of activities they indulge in. The UNWTO has proclaimed Agenda 2030, a catalyst towards sustainable tourism development. The discussion on sustainability or sustainable forms of tourism shall be further discussed in chapter five. One of the ways to how to develop more sustainable forms of tourism lies in assuring the government and tourism practitioners of the gravity of not incorporating sustainable development fundamentals into the planning and operations of tourist destinations.

Conclusion

This first chapter began with features that propel tourism to become the world's biggest industry. It then described mainstream theories of economic development, encapsulating the importance of planning in the relatively recent alternative development theory. Tourism planning was later on positioned within the evolution of the five traditions in tourism: 1) Boosterism; 2) Economic, industry-oriented; 3) Physical or spatial; 4) Community-oriented; and 5) Sustainable tourism.

Chapter 2

The Tourism Industry and Its Development Components

Like any other economic sector, the tourism system too is divided along two lines; demand and supply. Tourist demand comes from the population who has to have both attributes, the interest to travel and the ability to perform it. The supply side is comprised of the attractions, facilities, and services offered, various modes of transportation, tourist information, and promotion rendered. This supply-side attributes shall be visited in the later part of this chapter under the heading components of tourism development. Prior to discussing the tourism industry, it is worth having a look at some of the terms deemed important to the industry.

Definition of Tourist

Tourism, leisure, and recreation are terms that are used interchangeably due to distinctions between them getting increasingly blurred partly due to the changing lifestyle (Baud-Bovy and Lawson, 2000) of the world's population. With this in mind, we shall visit some of the relevant and significant concepts that underpin these terms.

An accepted description of a tourist is 'someone who travels at least 80 km from his or her home for at least 24 hours, for business or leisure or other reasons' (Link BC, 2008, p.8). On the other hand, the UNWTO's definition of a tourist is a temporary visitor staying at least 24 hours in the country visited and the purpose of whose journey can be classified as business, leisure, family, mission and conference and conventions (UNWTO, 1995). The difference between the two definitions lies in the length of travel one has to take. The UNWTO's definition is the most commonly used. In a relative context, if one is to compare tourism statistics like tourist arrivals, tourist expenditure and length of stay amongst the world's countries, it is advisable to use the UNWTO's

definition as the denominator. The UNWTO further break down this definition by drawing that tourists can be:

1. Domestic (residents of a given country travelling only within that country).
2. Inbound (non-residents travelling in a given country).
3. Outbound (residents of one country travelling in another country).

An excursionist on the other hand is defined as a temporary visitor staying less than 24 hours in the destination visited and not making an overnight stay (Glosari Pelancongan, 2022). This definition has an economic underlining whereby a night stay in an accommodation facility of the host country would economically benefit the country.

Early Travel and Travel During the Middle Ages

Historically, people traveled for fundamental reasons like seeking food and shelter, avoiding enemies, getting respite from the pressure of overcrowding, involving in trading, and satisfying curiosity about unknown lands. These are the reasons to why people travelled during the early centuries.

The period when the Roman Empire reigned saw religion became a dominant factor in people's lives (Inskeep, 1991). Thus, religious pilgrimages were seen as serious types of travel. Religious pilgrimages were common to Rome in Italy, Santiago de Compostela in Spain, and Baitul Muqaddis or Jerusalem in Palestine. Hindus and Buddhists travelled to far flung sites where important shrines and temples were located in Asia. Commercial inns were developed to accommodate these pilgrims and visitors alike. Package tours were organized which include prepared meals, cost of overnight stays along routes, and cost of transportation often in the form of donkey rides. More people travelled after the Roman Empire demise. The ability to fork out the cost of travel and the keen interest to pursue the travelling dream contributed to the phenomenon.

Climate also attracts people to travel. Climate affects an individual's comfort level (Hudman and Jackson, 2003). People are attracted to places that offer ideal temperature, for example, cooling temperature during summer or warmer conditions during winter. The Mediterranean region (Leong, 1971) attracted greater interest of the people because of its comfortable and accommodating climate. Similarly, people or tourists are attracted in drove to the beaches, resulting in the 'sun-sea-sand'

phenomenon. People are also attracted to travel to places blessed with unique features. A place is unique when it possesses differences or features not found in other places.



Plate 1: Religious pilgrimage to Mecca. Mount Arafah, on the outskirts of Mecca, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Recent and Contemporary Tourism Development

Since the end of World War II, tourism especially international tourism has become a major activity of the world (Hudman and Jackson, 2003). This is the period of mass tourism, roughly from 1945 onwards until relatively recent. This is largely due to several factors. There was a rapid and disperse economic development at the later part of the 20th century. Greater disposable income was available for travel among increasing number of employees who also enjoyed fewer working hours. For example, from six-day working week becoming five-day working week. Significant increased in higher education level results in greater awareness of other parts of the world, particularly those considered as inaccessible before. This creates curiosity, and to fulfil the urge of wanting to know, travelling to indulge in the experience is self-satisfying. Major improvement in transportation renders many parts of the world accessible. As many countries achieved higher standard of living, the number of tourist arrivals from

origin markets increased rapidly. The combination of international and domestic tourism which are at their prime, contributes substantial to the economic development of countries.

Contemporary development of tourism invokes a notion that travel has become a routine side of the lifestyles of a growing number of people who give this activity greater preference in their household budget. In line with this phenomenon, the number of tourist market generating countries increases. A major trend within the flow of tourists is that with more tourists preferring to actively involve in recreational and sporting activities, participating in activities reflecting local cultures, seeking new destination, and developing special interest through traveling, tourism market is not only increasing but increasing rapidly. More tourism products and destinations are developed to accommodate tourist demand, creating specialized markets of adventure tourism, Eco-tourism, and community-based tourism. The Asia-Pacific meanwhile, will continue to be the fastest growing regional market based on its many types of attractions and its overall rapid economic development. There were 360 million international tourist arrivals in the Asia-Pacific region in 2019 (Ganbold, 2023).

Institutionalisation of Tourism in Malaysia

Tourism development in Malaysia began since 1960s when there were records of tourist arrivals into Peninsular Malaysia. Official engagement of the Malaysian Government in tourism started with the inception of a Department of Tourism under the Ministry of Trade in 1959 (Din, 1982). (Refer to Figure 2.1 : The Development of Public Tourism-related Entities in Malaysia). A decade later, the government took stronger involvement when the Tourist Development Corporation was founded in 1972 through a Parliamentary Act. 1972 also saw Malaysia hosting the Pacific Asia Travel Association's 21st conference. A tourism master plan was completed in 1975, within the 2nd Malaysia Plan (1971-1975) (Institut Tadbiran Awam Malaysia, 1991), encouraging more tourist arrivals into the country. Increased inbound tourists were also fuelled by increased accessibility of the country in the form of regional airports like Penang, Senai, Kota Kinabalu and Kuching. PATA's 35th conference, hosted by Malaysia in 1986 further helped to bring more international tourists into the country.

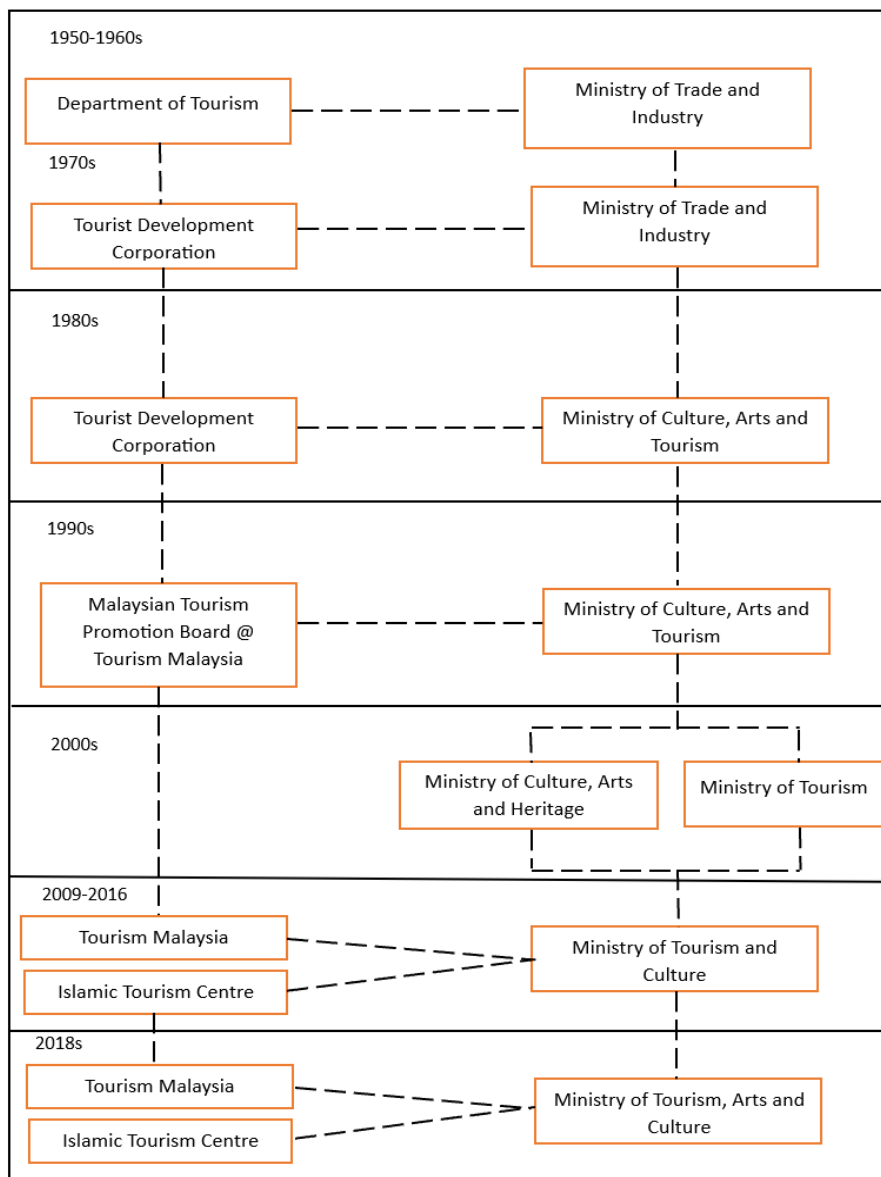


Figure 2.1: The Development of Public Tourism-related Entities in Malaysia.

The conference served as an international platform for Malaysia to show case the country's facilities and services to delegates, increasing Malaysia's image on the global setting. The formulation of the Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism of Malaysia in May 1987, with an ad hoc grant of RM100 million (Khairil et al. 2010), further raised the bar for the government's commitment in the country's tourism industry. MOCAT's mission is to plan, coordinate and monitor tourism activities for the country. Activities dealing with medical tourism, educational tourism policy, and wildlife management including ecotourism, for example, have to be coordinated with relevant ministries. Figure 2.2 below illustrates some of the ministries that are involved in such coordination.

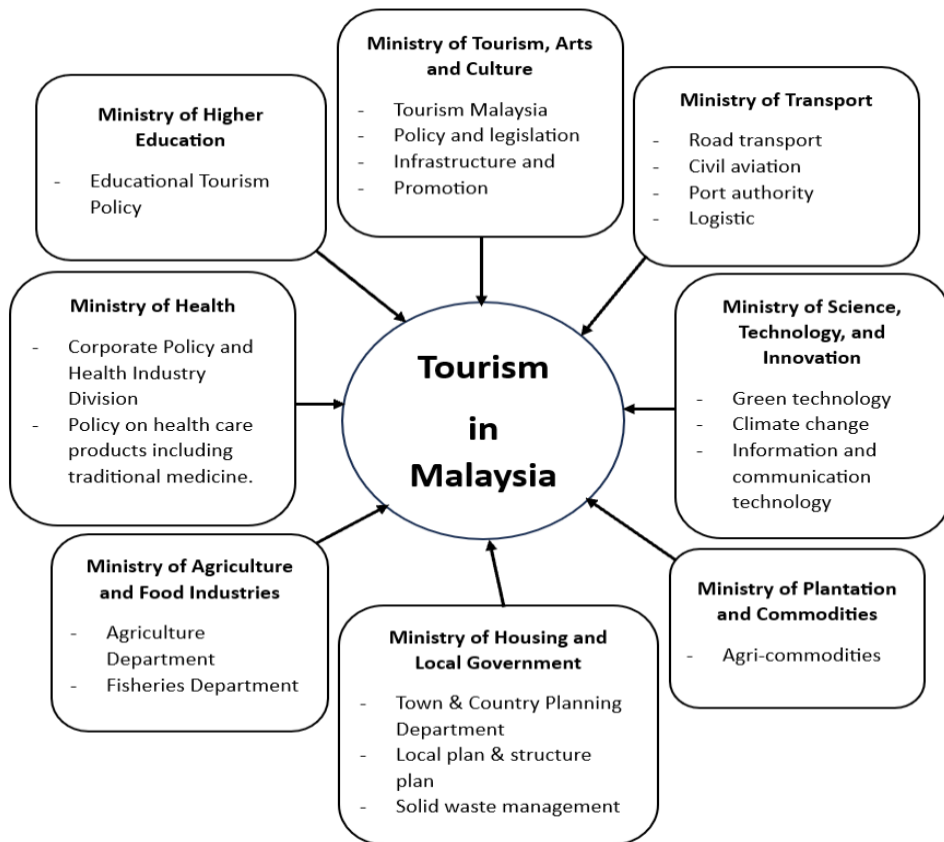


Figure 2.2: Some Current Ministries that Contribute to Tourism Development in Malaysia.

The setting-up of MOCAT entrenched the government's commitment in pursuing tourism as a top agenda of Malaysia's economy. Tosun (2006) argues that when a Ministry of Tourism control the administration of tourism in a country, this is known as a centralized form of behaviour. This is similar to condition in Malaysia when infrastructure development and tourism destination planning comes under the purview of the federal government. However, the process is more complex when the country's administrative governance falls under three levels namely, federal, state and local. State government's tourism units also participated in travel trade exhibitions overseas, promoting their products and services on their own accord rather than with the federal government.

The inception of the Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board more fondly known now as Tourism Malaysia in 1992 (at the demise of TDC), under the Malaysia Tourism Promotion Act 1972 further laid down the foundation for aggressive promotion. As a statutory body, MTPB's mission is to market Malaysia as a destination of excellence and to make the country's tourism industry a major contributor to the socio-economic development of Malaysia. This is to be done under the auspicious eye of MOCAT. A number of policies were designed and strategies were implemented to realise this mission. As for example, Malaysia came up with the 'top-of-the-line' tagline 'Malaysia, truly Asia' in 1999. As a result, tourism contribution to Malaysia's GDP was at 15.9%, with the equivalent amount of RM240.2 billion in 2019 (The Edge, 2021). The figures for 2020 until present time may not be encouraging due to COVID-19.

MOCAT was split into two ministries; Ministry of Tourism and Ministry of Culture, Arts and Heritage in April 2004 (Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture of Malaysia, 2021). The inception of the Islamic Tourism Centre in March 2009 further reflects the Malaysian Government's continuous support to bolster tourism in the country. ITC has a vision to position Malaysia as a leader and prime mover of Islamic and Muslim-friendly tourism and hospitality hubs. It has a mission to be an internationally recognized centre of excellence as well as a point of reference in Islamic and Muslim-friendly tourism and hospitality.

The COVID-19 has caused mass economic upheaval. The tourism industry which relies on the movement of people is greatly affected when international, national, and state

borders were closed as a mitigation to suppress the virus spread. As a countermeasure to combat the destruction of the tourism industry, a massive blow to Malaysia's economy, MTPB came up with the Tourism Malaysia Strategic Plan 2022-2026 at the end year of 2022. Strategies were put in place to boost domestic tourism, forged smart partnerships between the public and private sectors, enhanced tourism promotion, optimised strategic communication, implemented a travel bubble and undertook strategic transformation (Tourism Malaysia, 2022).

Components of Tourism Development

In order to understand how tourism planning works, one has to know the basic components of tourism development, and the interlink among themselves. Many existing and current tourism books expound these tourism development components into necessary segments or sectors, a necessary step or a percussor towards quicker and better understanding to how the tourism industry works. This book will retain Edward Inskeep's (1991) notion of components of tourism development due to its simplistic nature. These components are classified as follows:

- Tourist attractions and activities.
- Accommodation.
- Other tourist facilities and services.
- Transportation.
- Other Infrastructure.
- Institutional elements.

Tourist Attractions and Activities

There are many types of tourist attractions and their corresponding activities. Authors of tourism books classified these attractions and activities in many ways. In the studies of tourism attractions by Lew (1987), there were three general perspectives demarcating tourism attractions:

1. Ideographic listing of attractions.
2. An organisational perspective which takes account of factors such as capacity, spatial and temporal scale, and
3. Tourist cognition of attractions.

Following the classification scheme of Inskeep (1991), this book will classify tourism attractions as follows; a) Natural attractions, b) Cultural attractions, and c) Special types of attractions.

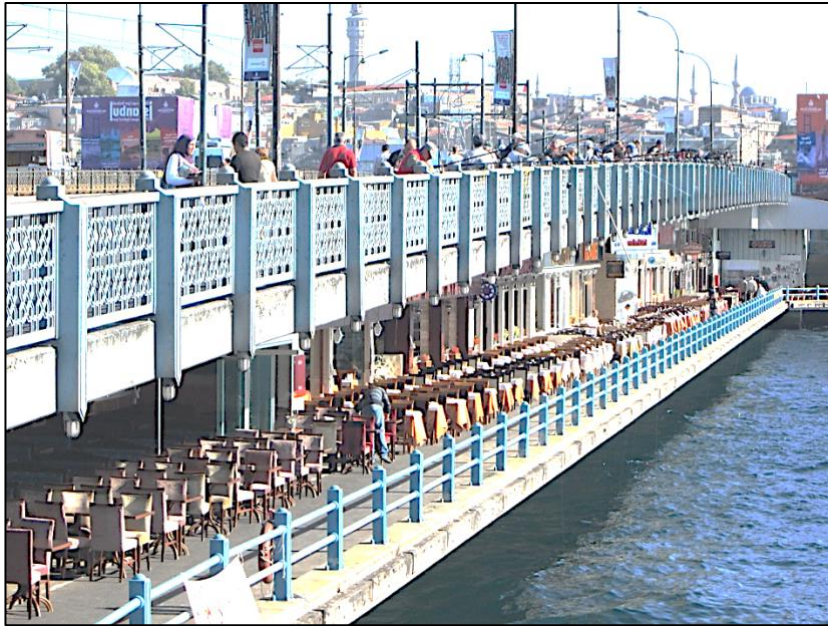


Plate 2: Different tourist activities on a bridge in Istanbul, Turkey. Anglers on the upper deck, waiters preparing for evening dining on the lower deck.

- *Natural attractions*

These attractions exist as the result of natural processes or by nature which took place arguably before the existence of humankind. These include mountains, beaches, estuarine, rivers, forests including flora and fauna, deserts, caves, special environmental features like karst limestone hills and geysers and many others. Kilim Geopark in Langkawi is an example of a tourist destination that possesses some of these natural features.



Plate 3: A naturally attractive harem of proboscis monkeys in Sandakan, Sabah, on the Borneo part of Malaysia.

- ***Cultural attractions***

These attractions are composed of physical sites which were crafted by past human activities leaving behind marked cultural patterns. Physical cultural sites include historical and archeological sites like the pyramids in Egypt, the Great Wall of China, Stonehenge in England, Machu Picchu remnants in the Peruvian Andes and the Roman Coliseum in modern-day Rome. Distinctive cultural patterns are in the like of customs, ceremonies and religious beliefs, and practices.

- ***Special types of attractions***

Special types of attractions are the ones that are created to encourage tourist visits. These include theme or amusement parks, recreation and sports, entertainment, circuses, shopping, MICE (abbreviated from Meeting, Incentive, Convention and Exhibition), and special event activities like sports contests.



Plate 4: A promenade next to a beach overshadows by a gloomy sky in Aberystwyth, Wales, The U.K., provides a picturesque setting.

Accommodation

Accommodations are places where travelers stay overnight during their travels (Inskip, 1991). They can be found in many sizes and shapes. Over the decades, a broad range of accommodation facilities are constructed to meet travelers' needs and demands. Accommodations which are also commonly known as lodgings can be bed-and-breakfast, motels, hotels, condominiums, timeshares, conference centers, and even campground. Generally, lodging facilities can be categorized into two; not catered accommodation and catered accommodation. The first category of accommodation is the self-catered one, offering cooking facilities in the like of a small kitchen and basic cooking equipment. The catered accommodation is equipped with food and dining facilities in the form of restaurants supported with kitchens, reception, housekeeping, leisure facilities, and entertainment, apart from the common rooms. Examples are hotels, resorts, and chalets. Even cruise ships can be considered as catered accommodation.

The B & B is also known to incorporate the pension concept in Europe. This concept started in small European towns and rural areas where the host family would rent a room or two to travelers, with homemade breakfast served before the travelers departed. In some countries, B & B is open and run not as the sole source of income or

business investment but to supplement income or as a means to defray utility costs. The rapid growth of this segment of lodging is helped by the owners' entrepreneurship spirit, showcasing IT knowledge in their businesses, for example, utilising the internet for effective marketing and booking reservations. B & B may look physically different from one another, but personalized attention and serving morning breakfast are the common features.



Plate 5: A university cafeteria in Beppu, Japan, provides Muslim dietary needs for students and visitors.

Motel is coined to prescribe hotels located next to highways where drivers or occupants of motorized vehicles patronise them. The term was used and referred to the Milestone Mo-Tel, constructed in 1925 in San Obispo, California (Cook et al. 2010). The construction of nationwide new highways in the United States in the 1950s stimulated the growth of motels in the country.

Timeshares are condominiums and other types of lodging facilities that offer fractional ownership to travelers for vacationing purposes. Fractional ownership means the unit can be used as rental unit when not being used by the owners. Purchasing a timeshare unit entitled the person to use the lodging facilities according to a single site location and fixed time frame. The United States are the leader in timeshare market, with 3.2 million owners (ibid). Big hotel names like the Hilton, Hyatt, Marriot, Intercontinental,

Starwood Hotels and Fairfield also supply timeshare market. They are attracted by the high occupancy rate, which at time the average occupancy rate hit 94%.

As more lodging properties come-up to fulfill increasing demands from a diverse clientele, from business travelers to bespoke tourists, there is a need to come-up with a classification scheme to differentiate types of hotels according to the needs and requirements of different groups of clientele. The world witnesses many classification schemes, introduced by tourism dedicated ministries, public agencies, and private entities. The American Hotel and Lodging Association System classifies lodging properties into seven categories (ibid):

1. Limited-service budget motels.
Simple, basic, clean rooms with no amenities other than clean towels, linens, and soap.
2. Limited-service economy motels.
Upgraded room décor with colour television, telephone, vending machines, and generally located close to restaurants.
3. Full-service, mid-priced hotels and motels.
24-hour front desk, upgraded interior and exterior decor, limited food service, extra room amenities, and other services.
4. Full-service, upscale hotels.
Better quality and more luxurious, upgraded food services, and usually with concierge service.
5. Luxury hotels.
Lavish guest rooms offering the ultimate in room amenities. Noted worldwide for service and surroundings.
6. All-suite hotels.
Separate sleeping and living quarters, limited kitchen facilities, and complimentary food and/or personalized beverage service in morning and evening.
7. Extended-stay hotels.
Apartment/studio living quarters targeting travelers seeking accommodation for five or more nights.

The Ministry of Tourism Malaysia came-up with ‘Guidelines for Tourist Accommodation Premises Classification’ (Ministry of Tourism Malaysia, undated). The document contains the classification of hotel-star ranking, from one-star to five-star, apartment hotel-star ranking, and hotel-orchid ranking. The classification scheme uses attributes that underline qualitative and esthetic requirements, having common areas, bedroom requirements, services, safety standards and hygiene, trained staff, and established minimum room rates.

There is also a private rating system. Private rating systems introduced by Michelin Guide in 1900, the Mobil Travel Guide in 1958 and the American Automobile Association Guide in 1963 use anonymous inspectors to periodically evaluate lodging premises according to standardized rubrics (Cook et al. 2010). This rating system contributes towards upholding the quality of services render to patrons of facilities.

Other Tourist Facilities and Services

Other tourist facilities and services are also important for the tourism industry. They can be in the forms of tour and travel operations, retail outlets like handicraft, souvenir and convenience goods stores, money exchange agencies, banks, tourist information centres, and medical and public safety facilities. They are as important as other components of tourism development. They serve different needs and requirements of diverse background of tourists, excursionists and other travelers (Inskip, 1991). Even personal services like barbers and beauticians have high demand.

Reiterating the alternative development theory and sustainable tourism development tradition in chapter one, the demand side of the tourism industry has started to be filled with tourists’ sophisticated needs. In this respect, the tourism landscape and services-cape are changing. For example, the staycation concept, is emerging perhaps introduced and accelerated in its adoption by tourists or visitors due to impacts caused by COVID-19.

Transportation

An effective transportation system is a necessity for tourism, otherwise the industry would stall. There are several modes of transportation that facilitate passengers and goods movement from different origins to different destinations. Some authors classify

these modes into three; land, water and air, while some differentiate them into two; surface, including land and water, and air. Nonetheless, transportation is often intermodal, meaning that travelers would rely on different modes of transportation to reach their destinations. The modes of transportation initially evolved slowly. Centuries before, horses, horse-driven carriages and sailing ships were the norm. Steam engines introduced in the 19th century powered locomotives and ships.

The land mode of transportation takes in the form of private and public automobiles, including recreational vehicles, taxi, and buses, and passenger and good trains. The first rail service started in England in 1825, powered by steam locomotives. The passenger rail service flourished, contributing significantly to the economic development expansion of Canada and the United States until 1940s. By then mass production of gasoline-run cars and other types of vehicles along with the mass construction of highways in 1950s enabled Americans to travel within their vast country. In this context, the United States saw a passenger decline in the use of rail service. Cook et al. (2010) posit that the rail service is still the favorite land-based mode of travelling in Japan and India.

The mode of transportation by water takes in the form of boats, ferries and ships. In the old days, sailing ships crisscrossed the oceans before taken over by steam ships. Nowadays, giant cruise ships which can accommodate thousands of passengers at any one time, and equipped with hotel room-like conditions, not only cross oceans but also found themselves in the peripheral areas of the Arctic region. Tourists can enjoy the panoramic view of the glaciers (Stewart et al. 2016). Even today's ferries are equipped with sleeping cabins, restaurants, lounges, shops and childcare services. An intermodal transportation involves some ferry routes designed to link with road and rail systems.

Travelers started to use the first passenger scheduled commercial flight serviced by propel driven aircraft in 1919 (Cook et al. 2010). The aircraft plied the short route between London and Paris. Jet technology was introduced in the passenger service in 1952, approximately 7 years after World War II ended. It has been approximately 100 years since the first passenger flight debuted, whereby today's new airplane technologies have resulted in the ability of mankind to reach far end corner of the world with seemingly ease. Over the decades, Boeing and Airbus companies kept

producing modern and bigger commercial aircraft such as the B747s and A380s, enabling millions of tourists per year to reach out to far-away destinations. The birth of many so-called budget airlines like Southwest (U.S.), Air Asia (Malaysia), Ryanair (Ireland), EasyJet (UK) and Lion Air (Indonesia) further enhances air mobility, especially amongst the not well to do passengers. The International Air Transport Association, founded on 19th April 1945 in Havana, Cuba, facilitates the movement of passengers and freight across numerous international borders using a combination of route structures (International Air Transport Association, 2022).

Other Infrastructure

There are various components of infrastructure, without which tourism development could not take off. Water supply is considered the most critical after transportation access (Inskip, 1991). The accommodation with a vast number of rooms and swimming pools together with destination attractions including golf clubs require large amounts of water to function effectively. It is necessary for facilities to be equipped with treated running water. Sewage disposal infrastructure that could contain discharge from attraction sites and accommodation facilities could prevent pollution of underground water plus the accompanying unpleasant odor. Solid waste disposal system is also important to prevent environmental problems. The Bukit Nanas solid waste centre in Negeri Sembilan serves such a purpose.

Electric power supply, on the other hand, is essential to power elevators, large-scale lighting system, internet facilities and air-condition system. Electrical power grid, fuel by powerplants that run on coal, gas-diesel and nuclear, have to be sufficient enough to service the increasing demand of the tourism supply providers. A network of telecommunication systems that include telephone, telegraph, radio and the internet of things functions to enable tourists and the providers to communicate.



Plate 6: A massive web of communication and electrical lines in Phnom Penh, a relatively common sight in less developing countries.

Institutional Elements

Institutional elements are features that are still needed in order to develop and manage tourism. These include tourism-related investment policies, legislation and regulation acts, available capital, marketing and promotion strategies and programmes, education and training programmes, and manpower planning programmes. In emerging economies of the world, governments spearheaded the implementation of these strategies and programmes. Private organisations and NGOs seconded the governments.

Conclusion

This chapter has emphasized some definitions of a tourist and the evolution of tourism until recent time. The multitude of definitions doesn't seem to have any negative impact on the world's tourism industry. The institutionalisation of tourism in Malaysia gives a first-hand look to how tourism found a strong footing amongst other industrial sectors of the country. The chapter has also described the multitude of tourism components, ranging from tourist attractions, accommodation to institutional elements. Tourist destinations should have the right amenities and facilities to cater to tourists. The rapid evolution of some of these components like transportation was also detailed-up, giving rise to the important of technologies in tourism advocacy. By then, destinations if not all, are easily accessible via land, sea or air.

Chapter 3

Tourism Planning Process: Systematic and Integrated

Ross et al. (1988) postulates that planning is not the appropriate assembly of parts but the management of the process of change. This process of change involves the flow of what are supposed to be observed and managed. In this context, Murphy (1985) defines planning as an orderly sequence of operations designed to achieve specified goal(s). However, there are myriad variations of approaches to planning. Many general planning processes or those used in urban development planning are being utilised by tourism planners with the understanding that without appropriate planning, tourism activities in destination areas including urban space will damage many resources, natural or man-made, which are in the first place the factors that entice tourists to visit them.

There is an evolution in tourism planning, from a narrow concern to a balanced concern of recognizing the needs of tourists, developers, and local communities (Pearce, 1989). Tourism planning has incorporated the arts of balancing the needs of different stakeholders. Tourism affects everyone in a community, whether direct or indirect. Tourism planning also poses meta problems (Hall, 2000). Tourism itself is difficult to define because it naturally defuses through various sectors of the economy and society. As Hall put it, when a problem arises in one sphere, it may become entangled with another problem in a different area of activity. For example, unemployment may become connected to other distance-related policies concerning the environment. In this sense, the impacts to society at large are not only substantial but long-standing.

There are many tourism planning models that are applied in this world. Their application depends on the scale and depth of development required. This book will

refer to the classic planning model, with a sprinkle of current features used in some contemporary models.

Vision and Mission Statements

Classic tourism planning calls for the incorporation of a vision and mission statements. A vision may contain some simple words that imply an idea. Jamaica's vision, for example, 'Tourism, the Engine of Innovation and Sustainable Economic Growth' (Ministry of Tourism, Government of Jamaica, 2018). One has to have a thorough knowledge and understanding of the designated destination and desired plans for the destination's future development in order to come up with a vision statement. An effective vision should include all stakeholders' input.

A mission statement is longer than the vision statement. The mission statement explains in detail the path to accomplish the vision. It contains a charted course of actions to support the destination's vision. The mission statement give impetus to a grounding of the setting of goals, objectives, strategies, and tactics (Edgell and Swanson, 2019).

Basic Planning Process

Tourism planning is traditionally associated with land-use zoning (Hall, 2000). Demarcation of land use according to zoning is a manifestation of the needs and concerns in accommodating facilities, infrastructures including access roads and sewage system, building regulations, and local communities' desire. Land use zoning aids tourism planning in developing new destinations and mitigating the competing needs of tourists and residents (Edgell and Swanson, 2019). Adopting the following basic planning process acknowledged by Inskeep (1991) will make future destinations a reality.

The basic planning process is consist of:

1. Study preparation

A study preparation is a follow-up to a decision to develop, improve or expand an existing destination. A study preparation involves the drafting of the study project terms of reference. This shall expand into the organisation of the project. This will briefly cover the scope and depths of the study. Study preparation should include

the horizon year, stipulating when the plan, its targets, and recommendations are to be realized.

2. Determination of the development goals and objectives.

The goals and objectives of development are first decided in a preliminary manner but subject to modifications due to feedback during the plan formulation and impact evaluation stage. Unlike in the study preparation, the determination of goals, and objectives would reflect a more intense focus on the scope and depth of the study.

3. Surveys

Surveys and inventory of the existing situation and characteristics of the development area involve checking the site's physical pattern, significant resources, land use and settlement patterns, existing and already planned tourist facilities and services, major infrastructure, and transportation facilities and services. Analysis of the physical pattern consists of the characteristics of the natural environment such as climate and weather attributes, topography, hydrography, vegetation and wildlife and its associated ecological systems, significant resources dealing with the site's high or low agricultural capability, and economically viable mineral deposits. Surveying the socio-cultural attributes of the site's population is needed too.

4. Analysis and synthesis

Analysis of the survey information and synthesis of the resulting data provide the ground for the plan formulation and recommendations. Data which has been analysed will be subsequently synthesised therefore putting together components or parts or elements so as to form a logical structure. One should incorporate several types of analysis and synthesis, for instance the market analysis.

5. Market analysis

Market analysis is one of the fundamental analyses used in planning and development. Market analysis is done on the product, price, place, product

image, promotion, and the consumer of the product. Market segmentation of the consumer is done based on similar characteristics, origins, and desires for travel experiences. Market segmentation analysis is typically based on four factors; Socioeconomic or demographic which includes age, education, and income level; Product-led segmentation which includes types of attractions and facilities; Psychographic which includes attitudes, interests, lifestyles, and travel motivations, and; Geographic which includes location, cost of traveling, environmental and cultural contrasts and similarities, and accessibility.

Market analysis can also be linked to tourist arrival projections or the establishment of market targets in terms of the number, type, length of stay, and other characteristics of tourists. Market projections or targets nonetheless are only partially predictable. Many variables are hinged on international economic conditions and their impacts on travel. This is a common approach used by the UNWTO and other agencies to establish market targets.

6. Policy and Plan formulation

Formulation of the development policy and physical structure plan is typically based on the preparation and evaluation of alternative policies and outline plans or scenarios. The policy and physical structure plan 'that best meet the objectives, optimize economic benefits, reinforce positive and minimize negative environmental and sociocultural impacts are selected for finalization' (Inskeep, 1991, p. 54).

7. Recommendations

This stage involves the formulation of the recommendations on plan-related project elements. A finalized plan and related recommendations should be readied. The related recommendations should be prepared along with additional alternative suggestions.

8. Implementation

The plan and related recommendations shall be implemented through the use of various techniques that have been identified in the plan. Authors like Lusticky et

al. (2011) argue that strategy implementation is the last phase in the planning cycle. However, this book will end the cycle with a monitoring process in hand.

9. Monitoring

There shall be a continuous monitoring on the plan implementation. Necessary adjustments have to be made accordingly and swiftly.

It is worth to delve briefly on current planning models whereby some of these models are arguably advanced in design in the sense that besides being integrated, they are considered as utilizing a synergistic approach. One such plan is the South Australia model. The South Australia tourism model contains succession stages that are embedded with investigative logic (Hall, 2000).

The Tourism South Australia Model contains the following steps (Tourism South Australia, 1991, p. 29):

1. Goals

Within the tourism and conservation philosophies of the state, establish what is to be achieved by the process.

2. Potentiality analysis

Examine broad market trends.

Analyse the area's tourism assets, strengths, and weaknesses.

Undertake competitor analysis.

Determine community goals.

Determine the existing and potential role of tourism in the area's economy.

3. Market analysis

Analyse the tourism market. This includes trends, market segments, characteristics and needs, and growth potential.

Identify the fit between market forces and the area's assets and resources.

Determine market position.

Identify major product gaps.

4. Scenarios
 - Identify preliminary primary values.
 - Identify alternative future tourism scenarios.
 - Examine implications of growth.
 - Select the preferred scenario.
 - Identify constraints to achieving the preferred scenario.
 - Establish tourism objectives and strategies.

5. Consultations
 - Consult with key organisations and the community through interviews and workshops.
 - Present results of investigations and proposals.
 - Identify the community's primary values, key issues, and problems.
6. Detailed assessment for economic and environmental sustainability.
 - Identify and evaluate natural and built tourism resources.
 - Specify potential development opportunities consistent with positioning the place.
 - Analyse environmental and landscape values.
 - Identify conflicts and constraints to tourism development.

7. Infrastructure support
 - Identify and detail the infrastructure required to support investment and provide for visitor needs.
 - Identify and detail the infrastructure required to manage visitors' impact.
 - Identify and describe opportunities for the interpretation of features of visitor interest.
8. Implementation
 - Devise implementation mechanisms that include a programme of work, organisational responsibilities, and timelines.
 - Identify changes to existing legislation.

9. Consultation
 - Consult with key organisations and the community.

10. Monitor and review implementation procedures
Continuous monitoring of implementation.

Traditional Tourism Planning Based on Urban Planning Process

Some traditional tourism planning processes utilized by tourism planners originate from the general urban planning process. According to Lew (2017, p. 453) 'urban design is the study of why cities, and other human settlements, look the way they do, as well as the practice of planning a city's building form and layout'. Urban planning is important when urbanization in many countries including developed ones is very intense, resulting in economic, physical, and social problems for its inhabitants. Urbanization is a process that is composed of people moving from rural areas to urban places (Azila and Alias, 2008).

The following is the urban planning process as noted by Anderson (1999). The process is relatively similar to the traditional step-by-step planning process:

1. Identify issues and options.
2. State goals, objectives, and priorities.
3. Collect and interpret data.
4. Prepare plans.
5. Draft programmes for implementing the plan.
6. Evaluate potential impacts of plans and implementing programmes.
7. Review and adopt plans.
8. Review and adopt plan-implementing programmes.
9. Administer implementing programmes and monitor their impacts.

Conceptual Approaches in Tourism Planning

The step-by-step traditional planning process described earlier in this chapter provides a general planning framework. This framework shall be utilized with the following conceptual approaches by Inskip (1991, p. 29) giving it a wholeness character:

Continuous, incremental, and flexible approach.

Tourism planning is seen as a continuous process with adjustments made as needed based on monitoring and feedback, but within the framework of maintaining the basic objectives and policies of tourism development.

Systems approach

Tourism is viewed as an interrelated system and should be planned as such, utilizing systems analysis techniques.

Comprehensive approach

Related to the systems, all aspects of tourism development including its institutional elements and environmental and socioeconomic implications are analyzed and planned comprehensively.

Integrated Approach

Related to the systems and comprehensive approaches, tourism is planned and developed as an integrated system within itself, and is also integrated into the overall plan and total development patterns of the area.

Environmental and sustainable development approach

Tourism is planned, developed, and managed in such a manner that the natural and cultural resources are not depleted or degraded, but maintained as viable resources on a permanent basis for continuous future use. Tourism planning at all levels of government incorporates concerns about the environmental and social impacts of tourism.

Community Approach

As mentioned in chapter one the community that represents the public shall be involved in the development of tourism. There shall be maximum involvement of the local community in the planning and decision-making process of tourism.

Implementable approach

The tourism development policy, plan, and recommendations are formulated to be realistic and implementable. Techniques of implementation considered throughout the policy and plan formulation shall include a development and action programme or strategy.

Application of a systematic process

A systematic planning process is applied in tourism planning based on the logical sequence of activities.

Several of the conceptual approaches by Inskip (1991) are in line with the United Nations' 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The agenda has its roots in the Rio De Janeiro Summit in 1992. In 2015, all member nations of the United Nations, whether developed or developing ones, adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (United Nations, 2022a). It is considered a blueprint of global partnership which is to improve health and education, reduce inequality, and spur economic growth of the world. The agenda has 17 Sustainable Development Goals which shall be touched in chapter five.

Strategic Planning

Strategic planning is an essential feature of sustainable tourism planning. The implementation of the process flow mentioned in tourism planning whether it is done at the interregional, national, or local level, has to be strategically managed. According to Hall (2000, p. 75) 'Strategic planning is the process by which organisations effectively adapt to their environment over time by integrating planning and management in a single process and seeks to deal with the questions of':

- Where are we now?
This is to check the status quo. The prevailing conditions possessed by the place imbue a temporal and spatial dimension. These conditions have to be checked, monitored, and evaluated.
- Where do we want to get to?
This is the case when the target is set. The plan should have a realistic time-based target.
- How do we get there?
This question pertains to actions needed to reach the set target.

Strategic planning goals and concepts used in tourism planning may have some traces of similarity with the earlier work of Porter's (1980) competitive strategy. Porter postulates that the key to formulating a competitive strategy depends on the link with the organisation's environment, particularly with the industry that the organisation operates within. This strategy subsequently ignites the organisation's planning goals. There are five basic competitive forces according to Porter which are:

1. Threat of new entrants.
2. Bargaining power of the buyers.
3. Bargaining power of the suppliers.
4. Pressure from substitute products or services which can limit the industry's profit potential through price ceiling.
5. Intensity of rivalry amongst existing competitors, resulting in pressure on the price of products or services.

The authors will use a recent Tesla case in Malaysia to explain several of these competitive forces. Tesla is an American icon in electric vehicle production owned by Elon Musk. The Malaysian Investment Development Authority approved a total of RM26.2 billion worth of electric vehicle investment projects from 2018 to March 2023 (NIKKEI Asia, 2023). These investments involved 58 projects covering the manufacturing of parts, vehicle assembly, and charging components. Tesla's new venture into Malaysia will be considered as a new threat to existing electric vehicle manufacturers in the country or in Southeast Asia. China's BYD and Geely are amongst the other players in electric vehicle manufacturing in the region. Tesla has the desire to gain a share of Malaysia's market. Malaysia will add its capacity to produce more electric vehicles, staying neck-to-neck in competition with neighbouring Thailand and Indonesia.

If the Malaysian buyers' bargaining power is large it will have the ability to exert control on the price of the electric vehicles. More so when the intensity of rivalry amongst existing competitors may result in competitive price of electric vehicles. Pressure from substitute products or services which can limit the industry's profit potential through price ceiling may exist too if the price of electric vehicles remains high and out of reach from mainstream society in Malaysia. Traditional gasoline-run vehicles may still be a

strong and significant option. Tesla and other electric vehicle manufacturers may see their profits go down in such case.

Conclusion

This chapter described the essential ingredients for a tourism plan which include its vision, missions and a traditional step-by-step planning process. It then ventured into a relatively current type of planning, employed by a provincial state in a country well known for its endemic biotic and abiotic tourist appeals like kangaroos and koala bears, and the 'Uluru'. This implies that tourism planning is dynamic. It evolves due to the changing surroundings. A strategic planning that integrates planning and management into a single process caps the chapter.

Chapter 4

Tourism Policies

Tourism policy is a distinctive component of tourism development planning. Tourism policy is not a self-contained or stand-alone policy area due to its overlapping nature, encapsulates other economic sectors like agriculture, manufacturing, and transportation, and intertwine with the provision of public owned resources like national parks, historical and archaeological conservation sites, and public services arrangements like passport, visa and other international travel requirements.

Hall (2008, p. 10) provides three reasons to study policy:

1. To understand the shaping of policy decisions and their impacts.
2. To provide information about solutions to practical problems, subsequently feeding this information into the policy process.
3. To understand the interests and values involved in policy and planning processes.

This chapter focusses on government or public policies rather than policies incepted by businesses. Public policies have far reaching impacts, particularly across international boundaries.

Concepts of Policy and Tourism Policy

Most researchers in the arena of policy study agree that there is no single definition of policy (Cairney, 2012; Hills, 2013). Policy involves hypothesizing certain aspects of a phenomenon. It also incorpoartes conditions that might be best to achieve a certain outcome. Hills (2013) identifies policy as 'government policy' or 'public policy'. Shaw (2006, p. 257) defines government policy as 'the government decisions take, the money they spend, and the services they fund and/or provide'. Wilson (2013), on the other hand, has a narrower meaning of public policy. Public policies 'are authoritative

statements or actions of government, which reflect the decisions, values, or goals of policymakers' (ibid, p. 15). Public policy comprises:

- The courses or patterns of actions developed and implemented by the government to achieve goals.
- The development approach applied to guide and determine decision-making.
- Set of statements that relate directly to the development objective.

Wilson's definition has similarities with Easton's (1953) definition on policy. According to Easton (1953, p. 128), the policy is a 'web of decisions and actions that allocate values'.

For others, government policy has broader meanings. Dye (1972), for example, defined policy as government's preferences to do or vice versa. Bridgman and Davis (2004), meanwhile, define policy as being a position, strategy, action, or product adopted by the government, arising from the contest between different ideas, values, and interests. The policy involves consideration of the 'political debate about what the agenda is, what the issues are, who is involved or affected, and the alternative courses of action to address the problems' (Dredge and Jenkins, 2007, p. 10).

Tourism is a 'chosen' policy in many developing countries, including Malaysia and many other ASEAN countries. Tourism policy specifically entails any government act including legislative, administrative, and judicial that affects tourism. Tourism policy provides the direction or course of action that a country plan to take. This direction is also superimposed on the country's region, locality, or individual destination when developing or promoting tourism. Essentially, any tourism policy should maximize the extent a country could benefit from the economic and social contributions of tourism. The ultimate objective of tourism policy is to improve the progress of the country and the lives of its citizens. Edgell and Swanson (2019, p. 78) postulate that tourism policy is:

'a progressive course of actions, guidelines, directives, principles, and procedures set in an ethical framework that is issues-focused and best presents the intent of a community to effectively meet its planning, development, product, service, marketing, and sustainability goals and objectives for the future growth of tourism'.

Hall (2000) echoes that policy-making should be considered as a political activity which is influenced by the economic, social, and cultural characteristics of a society, the government's formal structure and local political system's features.

Tourism policy-making process shall follow a guideline in order to be effective. According to UNWTO's (2017) guideline, the tourism policy-making process must be consultative and shall include the following six phases:

1. Preparation of a situation paper that encompasses a detailed review and assessment of the current tourism scenario in the country, identifies policy constraints and challenges, and identifies opportunities and benchmarks for the future growth of the industry.
2. Organisation of a series of regional workshops to disseminate the situation paper to regional public and private tourism stakeholders to ensure that current and future needs of the tourism industry have been well identified.
3. Formulation of a tourism policy draft.
4. Organisation of a national forum to receive feedback from stakeholders on the tourism policy draft.
5. Finalisation of the tourism policy based on consultative feedback; and
6. Formulation of an action plan to implement the policy recommendations.

The UNWTO's guideline provide a clear-cut injection of consultative element. This element, however, may have a different degree of partake in government's policy. Government policy objectives reflect the government's responsibilities and ideology. Objectives can be formal or informal, stated, or unstated (Elliott, 1997). Formal objectives are generally in line with the national aims written in a country's constitution. The dominant informal objectives on the other hand may be to achieve particular stakeholder aims, enabling the stakeholder to hold on to power or even boost its power.

Development of Tourism Policies in Malaysia

Malaysia's tourism industry has shown significant growth since the Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board was established in 1972. The tipping point in Malaysia's tourism history occurred in the early 1980s when there was a global tourism boom, which coincided with the collapse of primary commodity prices. There was a shift by the

Malaysian government to diversify the country's economic base, which previously relied too much on commodity exports like rubber and tin. The government played a major role in instituting a legal and institutional framework to ensure tourism growth. The authors have dedicated a segment of chapter two to discussing such a role. The Malaysian policymakers recognise the immense potential of tourism as a tool to foster economic and social development, apart from promoting greater national and regional integration.

National Tourism Policy 1992

The federal government prepared the National Tourism Policy 1992 to plan, develop, and market the country's tourism industry. The National Tourism Policy 1992 was designed as a 10 year-direction plan. Policies were developed to create a unique image of Malaysia with its diverse culture and natural resources, as well as to elevate the tourism industry into becoming a strong, sustainable, viable, and competitive industry (Hamzah, 2004). The policies were aimed at developing an international standard infrastructure and tourism products, wherein several strategies were devised:

- Diversify tourism products and services in order to fulfil the needs of tourists.
- Promote and identify national and international markets.
- Private sector involvement in innovative tourism products through investment.
- Local community involvement, especially to develop their perception through tourism activities and promotions.
- Development of communication systems for local and foreign tourist arrivals.

The policies were aimed to maximize the economic, socio-cultural, and environmental benefits that can be gained from the tourism industry through the collective efforts of the various levels of government, the private sector, and the local communities. In addition, both the federal and the state governments provided funds to develop infrastructure facilities at various ecotourism destinations, apart from supporting ecotourism development by sponsoring the cost of technical consultancy services on ecotourism destinations. The plan acted as a pillar for rural tourism policies in covering approximately 50 sites in Peninsular Malaysia, and the Borneo states of Sabah and Sarawak.

National Ecotourism Plan 1996

The National Tourism Policy 1992 identified ecotourism as a form of tourism to be enlarged and sustained. This policy was a manifestation that tourism was being recognised as a growing industry in Malaysia. It was against this background that the National Ecotourism Plan 1996 was developed and implemented. The plan had the intention to serve both as the befitting instrument within the overall sustainable development of Malaysia and the economy as a whole and as an effective tool for the conservation of the natural and cultural heritage of the country (Bhuiyan et al. 2011). The Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism of Malaysia is the authorising body that implements ecotourism plans. MOCAT and the Worldwide Fund for Nature Malaysia drafted the National Ecotourism Plan 1996.

Review of the National Ecotourism Plan 2013

Review of the National Ecotourism Plan 2013 was initiated as a comprehensive review of the earlier National Ecotourism Plan 1996. The review aimed to assist the Government of Malaysia at the federal and state levels in the development of Malaysia's ecotourism potential. This review was intended to provide a general framework, assisting the government in developing the country's ecotourism potential with a more integrated approach. The review was also to achieve specific national objectives as stated in the Tenth Malaysia Plan 2011 - 2015 and Eleventh Malaysia Plan 2016 - 2020 (Rashid et al. 2020). The Tenth Malaysia Plan 2011 - 2015 aimed to increase Malaysia's position to be within the top 10 in terms of global receipts, achieving RM115 billion by 2015. The Eleventh Malaysia Plan 2016 - 2020 aimed to position Malaysia as a premier ecotourism destination by leveraging on biodiversity assets and increase branding and promotion, capturing high-yield tourists, thus stimulating the industry's contribution to the economy (Mosbah and Saleh, 2014).

National Ecotourism Plan 2016 - 2025

The National Ecotourism Plan 2016 - 2025 (Figure 4.1) was established following the Review of the National Ecotourism Plan 2013. Findings from the latter were fed into the National Ecotourism Plan 2016 - 2025. This would further enhance the development of potential ecotourism destinations. Section 4 of the National Ecotourism Plan 2016 - 2025 states that 60 ecotourism clusters are to be given priority in their protection, development, and promotion by both federal and state

governments (Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism of Malaysia, 2016). 43 clusters are located in Peninsular Malaysia, eight in Sabah, and nine in Sarawak. These clusters were earmarked through an intensive stakeholders' consultation process.

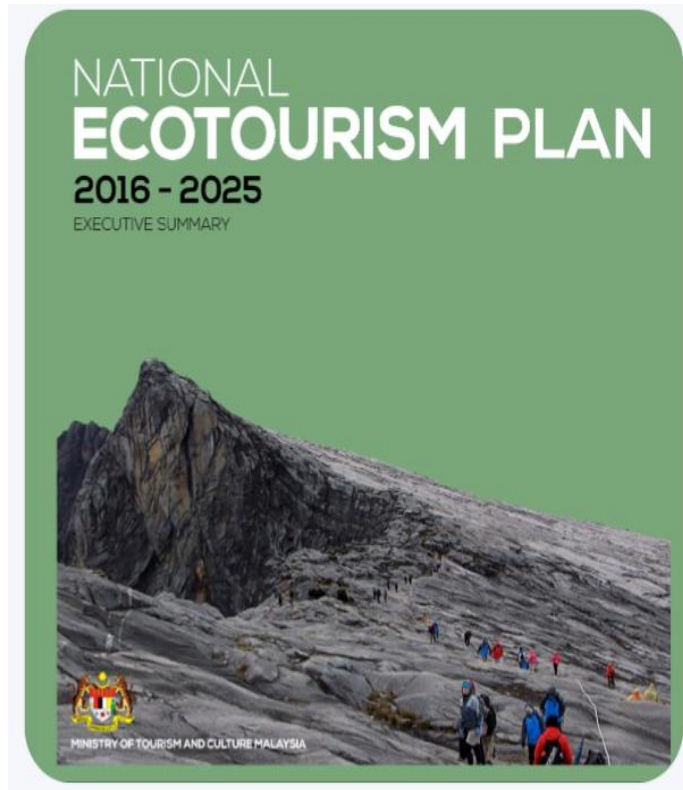


Figure 4.1: Malaysia National Ecotourism Plan 2016 - 2025

The plan has five main segments:

1. Policy matters and identification of broad strategies in ecotourism.
2. A list of current and potential sites for ecotourism development.
3. Ecotourism guidelines for Malaysia. Elaborating on specific activities and functions in all ecotourism areas, including strategies and recommendations on how to strengthen the guidelines.

4. Current state of ecotourism in Malaysia, and its relationships with the social, economic, and environmental features, and
5. Malaysia's position within the Asia Pacific's tourism and ecotourism context.

(Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture of Malaysia, undated)

A new drive for a green form of development is part of the National Ecotourism Plan 2016 - 2025's slogan 'tourism protects, preserves and conserves nature, culture and heritage'. This drive compels Tourism Malaysia to encourage respectful interactions between locals and visitors, and also encourage Malaysian tourists to discover authentic local culture.

National Tourism Policy 2020 - 2030

There are tell-tale signs that Malaysia's tourism industry is stuck in a comfort zone. Possessing a silo mentality, overdependence on the government, and lacking creativity and innovation coloured the country's industry. The country's service culture is far behind some of its neighbours. Malaysia must harness local tourism industry's competitiveness in a very dynamic and uncertain world. Malaysia needs to secure investments through partnerships, empower local communities, and be resilient. The process will not only increase revenue but also ensure tourism is practised in a sustainable manner. With these in mind, the Malaysia National Tourism Policy 2020 - 2030 (Figure 4.2) was designed and launched. It is currently Malaysia's official document dealing with a transformation agenda for the country's tourism industry.

The Malaysia National Tourism Policy 2020 - 2030 was formulated based on the principles of competitiveness, sustainability, and inclusiveness, targeting Malaysia to be a global top ten tourism destination in both arrivals and receipts (Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture of Malaysia, 2020). The strategic direction for 2020 - 2030 entails the transformation of Malaysia's tourism industry by employing public-private sector partnerships and embracing digitalization to drive innovation and competitiveness toward sustainable and inclusive development. This transformation is in line with the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals. There are 17 SDGs outlined in chapter five under the heading of 'Agenda 2030'. The National Tourism Policy 2020 - 2030 is Malaysia's dynamic and strategic plan to not only revive the local tourism industry, but also making the industry resilient against future uncertainties.

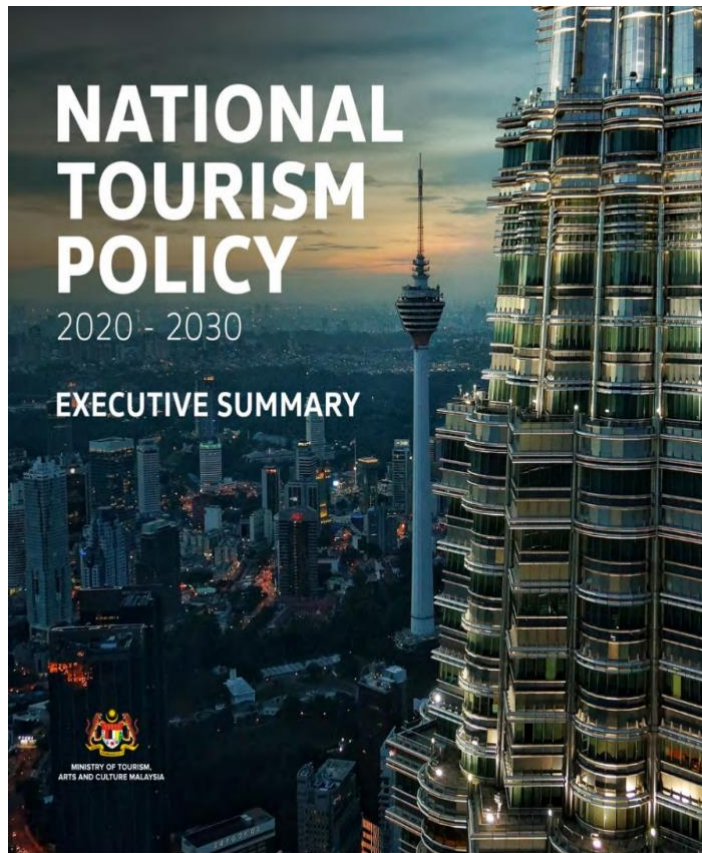


Figure 4.2: National Tourism Policy 2020 - 2030

Strategically, there are three pillars of direction which are competitiveness, sustainability, and inclusiveness. Six strategies are laid out:

1. Strengthen governance capacity.
2. Create special tourism investment zones.
3. Embrace smart tourism.
4. Enhance demand sophistication.
5. Practice sustainable and responsible tourism, and
6. Upskill human capital.

Tourism Malaysia Strategic Plan 2022 - 2026

Malaysia is no exemption when the world tourism industry grinded to a halt under the COVID-19 onslaught. The WHO declared the COVID-19 outbreak as a world's pandemic on 11th March 2020. These unprecedented calamity has severe negative impacts on the world's health, society, and economy. The global pandemic has not only made pre-COVID-19 tourism plans and strategies irrelevant but also changed travellers' choice of destination and the types of trips they are most likely to take in the coming years. Therefore, to prepare the recovery path for domestic tourism, MOCAT through Tourism Malaysia, rolled out a tourism recovery plan on 23rd November 2022 in the form of Tourism Malaysia Strategic Plan 2022 - 2026 (Tourism Malaysia, 2022). The strategic plan aims to revive domestic tourism by focusing on strategic collaborations and smart partnerships.

Tourism Malaysia Strategic Plan 2022 - 2026 (Figure 4.3) maps Malaysia's direction for the next five years. The plan incorporates a new organisational strategy to boost the country's tourism industry. The six pillars of the strategic plan are:

1. Boost domestic tourism.
2. Forge smart partnerships.
3. Enhance tourism promotion whether online or offline.
4. Optimise strategic communication and media engagement.
5. Implement travel bubble, and
6. Undertake strategic transformation.



Figure 4.3: Tourism Malaysia Strategic Plan 2022 - 2026

Tourism Malaysia Strategic Plan 2022 - 2026 was developed based on the National Tourism Plan 2020 - 2030, the National Ecotourism Plan 2016 - 2025, and the UNWTO's SDGs. The implementation of this plan is crucial for post-COVID-19 travel demands and expectations, as well as to remain focused in the rebuilding of the industry in the coming years (Tourism Malaysia, 2022). This strategic plan, which was prepared with the collaboration of industry players and stakeholders, is an initiative to create integrated and holistic strategies to boost supply and to spur demand.

Development of Tourism Policies in ASEAN Countries

Cambodia Tourism Development Strategic Plan 2012 - 2020

The Cambodia Tourism Development Strategic Plan 2012 - 2020 (Figure 4.4) outlined a desired direction for tourism development in the country by encompassing various strategies, including tourism product development, tourism marketing, and promotion, facilitation of travel and transport, tourism impact management, safety, regulation, and human resource development (Carter et al., 2013). The plan projected Cambodia to receive approximately seven million international tourists and between eight to 10 million domestic tourists in the year 2020. This influx of tourists was expected to have a substantial impact on the country's GDP growth and overall living standards, while also generating employment opportunities for approximately 800,000 people. The Cambodia Tourism Development Strategic Plan 2012 - 2020 encompassed several important initiatives. These initiatives revolved around strategies to diversify tourism products and improve the overall quality of tourism products and services. Furthermore, there was a focus on strengthening tourism laws and regulations so as to ensure their effectiveness. Lastly, the plan emphasized the continuation of the 'Clean City, Clean Resort, and Good Service' campaign which was introduced much earlier.

The Cambodia Tourism Development Strategic Plan 2012 - 2020 outlined a comprehensive and forward-thinking approach to the development of tourism in Cambodia, with a primary focus on harnessing the potential of the country's cultural and natural resources (UNESCO, undated). Cambodia places a significant emphasis on the advancement of cultural tourism within its tourism development agenda. There is a need also to enhance and cultivate ecotourism, linking this type of tourism with the preservation of national resources and conservation efforts. This endeavour is crucial as it not only responsibly contributes to the mitigation of climate change but also fosters the establishment of a green economy.

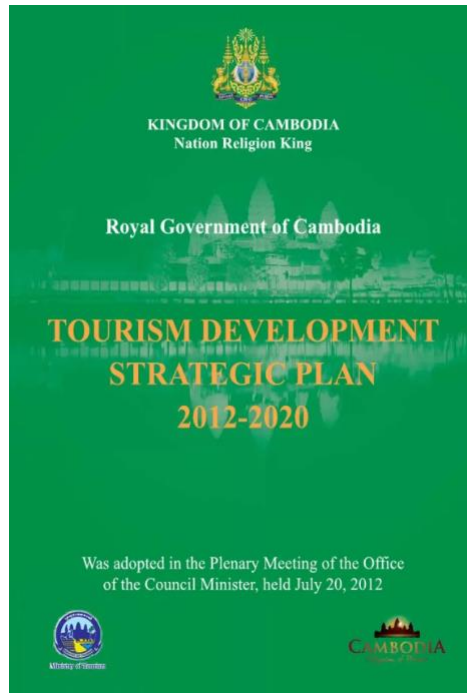


Figure 4.4: Cambodia Tourism Development Strategic Plan 2012 - 2020

Cambodia National Strategic Development Plan 2014 - 2018

The Cambodian Government has demonstrated a keen inclination towards the advancement of ecotourism since the latter part of the 1990s and has articulated its intention to foster its growth through various national initiatives. The government's objective under the Cambodia National Strategic Development Plan 2014 - 2018 was to enhance the preservation of national resources and foster connections between conservation efforts and the ecotourism sector (United Nations Population Fund Cambodia, 2014). The responsibility of formulating a comprehensive national strategic policy for ecotourism was assigned to the Cambodia Ministry of Tourism. This directive aimed to facilitate the coordination of various governmental entities involved in the advancement of the ecotourism sector in the country.

The Cambodian Ministry of Tourism treats ecotourism as a tourism platform for expanding the tourism sector and attaining long-term sustainable development.

Ecotourism plays a significant role in poverty reduction, inclusive growth, and the preservation of both the environment and human culture, mostly due to its promotion of increased involvement from local communities. Cambodia exhibits substantial potential for the advancement of ecotourism. Cambodia possesses a wealth of historical, cultural, and natural riches, an embodiment of the Khmer culture which thrived in Southeast Asia for some centuries. The strategy additionally recognised nature-based ecotourism in the northeastern region of the country as one of the four key regions to focus on for the development of tourism products.

The Thailand National Tourism Development Plan 2012 - 2016

Thailand has a vision to become a quality tourism destination with tourism high competitiveness at the international level, enabling the country to generate more income and distribute wealth on a sustainable basis. This vision is contained in the Thailand National Tourism Development Plan 2012 - 2016, which won Cabinet approval on 15th February 2011.

The National Tourism Development Plan 2012 - 2016 was developed after tourism was added to the national development agenda in 2009 (Wirudchawong, 2012). The plan contained a policy that focused on renovating tourism sites, building infrastructure, enhancing human capital, and developing appropriate rules and regulations. The primary objective of this initiative was to provide high-quality tourism offerings while simultaneously maintaining an equilibrium between demand and supply. The objective of the Thailand National Tourism Development Plan 2012 - 2016 was to move Thailand's tourism competitiveness, reaching the top five tourist destinations in Asia. The plan also intended to increase tourism income by at least five percent during a five-year period. Five tourism strategy clusters were developed, which were:

1. Development of tourism infrastructure and facilities.
2. Rehabilitation and sustainable development of tourism sites.
3. Development of tourism products and services.
4. Tourism confidence and tourism promotion, and
5. Encouragement of participants from government sectors, civil societies, and local administration in tourism management.

The Thailand National Tourism Development Plan implemented from 2012 to 2016 effectively fostered the expansion of the tourism sector, leading to a notable increase in tourism receipts by 15%. The National Tourism Development Plan 2012 - 2016 facilitated the continued expansion of Thailand's tourist industry, enhancing its readiness to adapt to a dynamic global market and fostering the integration of sustainable practices within the country's tourism sector (Wattanacharoensi and Schuckert, 2016).

The Thailand National Tourism Plan 2017 - 2021

The Thailand National Tourism Plan 2017 - 2021 (Figure 4.5) is the country's second official tourism plan, better preparing Thailand for the ever-changing global tourism market and further embracing sustainable development in Thailand's tourism industry. Thailand is moving towards a better nation with 'Prosperity, Stability and Sustainability', as the guiding principles under the National Development Vision 2017 - 2036. Human capital development and inclusiveness of the population are at the forefront of the national agenda. The tourism vision for Thailand sees tourism as an ideal representation of Thailand as a desirable vacation destination by the year 2036. The primary targets are to enhance the overall quality and capabilities of Thailand's tourist industry while promoting sustainable growth in alignment with the core principles of 'Thainess'.

The Thailand National Tourism Development Plan 2017 - 2021 encompassed strategic development plans and detailed initiatives for the first five years of the National Development Vision (Ministry of Tourism and Sports Thailand, 2017). The Thailand National Tourism Development Plan 2017 - 2021 was developed by incorporating suggestions from all involved parties. It had five key strategies, attesting both global and local perspectives. The key strategies were:

1. Assessment of the National Tourism Development Plan 2012 - 2016.
Assessment was done through focus groups, survey and interview activities, and the review of the half-plan assessment of that plan.
2. Study of global and Thailand's tourism industry.
This study included an analysis of the current situation and expected future evolution of the global tourism industry, an analysis of the current situation and expected future evolution of Thailand's tourism industry, analysis of key

global trends and implications for Thailand including trends for each tourism segment, and assessment of Thailand’s tourism industry across various dimensions of the tourist lifecycle.

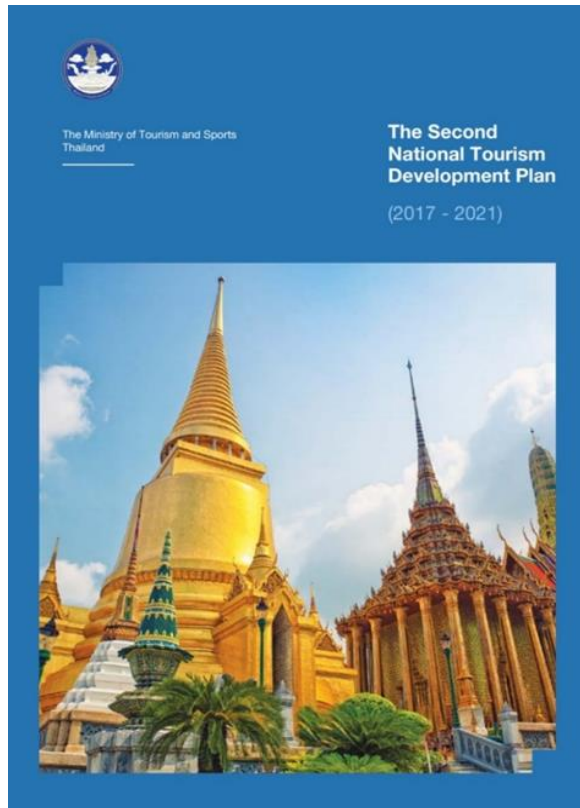


Figure 4.5: Thailand National Tourism Development Plan 2017 - 2021

3. Study of tourism development master plans and strategies of both regional competitors and best-in-class countries.
The study was done through the lens of tourism vision and strategic axis, as well as international best practices.
4. Study of points of view and plans of stakeholders in Thailand's tourism industry.

Study included reviews of master plans of organisations in Thailand that were involved in tourism development, interviews with experts and stakeholders in the tourism industry, and focus groups undertaking in five regions of Thailand.

5. Validation and integration of inputs of stakeholders from the public sector, the private sector, and the general public.

The Thailand National Tourism Development Plan 2023 - 2027

The Thai Cabinet granted approval to the Thailand National Tourism Development Plan 2023 - 2027 on January 3, 2023. The Thailand National Tourism Development Plan 2023 - 2027 is the 3rd successive tourism plan of the country. The objective of this plan is to position Thailand as a leading global destination for wellness tourism and will focus to rebuild a high-value tourism industry with resilience, sustainability, and inclusive growth (Prasongthan and Silpsrikul, 2023).

The year 2022 is the Thai tourism transition period from the Covid-19 crisis. The plan projects Thailand into boosting its tourism revenue to 80% in 2023 from pre-Covid earnings and 100% for the following year. The plan will be used as a framework for post-pandemic tourism development, with measures to resolve problems, revitalise and prepare the industry for the path to the 'next normal'.

The plan has four strategies, which are;

1. To build resilience in the tourism industry, with measures to distribute tourism income to all areas possible, while stopping the negative impacts of tourism leakages.
2. To develop the fundamentals of the tourism sector, by striving for quality in tourism.
3. To improve the tourist experience.
4. To sustain tourism by focusing on promoting tourism that caters to high-end visitors, launching proactive marketing campaigns, and using technologies and innovations to attract quality tourist.

Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the readers to the many concepts of policy as illustrated by their diverse meanings. The importance of policy and its relevant to the tourism industry was highlighted. It also spelled out tourism policy's position within the wider framework of tourism planning and development. Analysis on the national tourism development plans from three ASEAN member countries; Malaysia, Cambodia, and Thailand, was done to extract the crux of each of the country's tourism policies. Collectively, the contents of all the plans chronologically point to a direction of adopting and implementing aspects of sustainable form of tourism, emphasizing a culture of transformation from the early style of tourism the countries experienced decades before.

Chapter 5

Sustainability and Sustainable Tourism

The seed in adopting sustainability-laced way of thoughts may have been transplanted more than 50 years back when the United Nations Conference of the Human Environment was held in Stockholm, Sweden in 1972. The conference helped pave the way for the inception of the concept of sustainable development. The emergence of environmentally conscious consumers in the 1980s further enhanced the world's movement in sustainable development.

The rapid depletion of the world's natural resources and the deterioration of the environment led to the gathering of the world's political leaders, scientists, ecological advocates and many others in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil in 1992. This gathering known as the United Nations World Congress on the Environment and Development otherwise known as the Earth-Summit 1992, principally agreed to take steps in combating the ill sides of development by implementing Agenda 21. The agenda calls for a comprehensive plan to be taken globally, nationally, and locally by organisations of the United Nations systems, governments, and major groups in all areas where human may have impacts the environment (United Nations, 2022b). The subsequent creation of the Commission on Sustainable Development in December 1992 was to ensure effective follow-up of the UNCED, which was to monitor and report on the implementation of the agreements at the international, regional, national, and local levels. The reaffirmation of these agreements was made at the World Summit on Sustainable Development held in Johannesburg, South Africa, from 26 August to 4 September 2002.

In 2015 the United Nations proclaimed Agenda 2030, with the main goal of ending poverty, protecting the planet and ensures prosperity for all by 2030. There are a series of 17 Sustainable Development Goals, integratedly designed, to be used to achieve the Agenda. The Agenda has a strong influence on tourism policy even though it only mentions tourism three times (Hall, 2021). There are plenty of policy recommendations to achieve the SDGs.

Sustainability and Sustainable Development

‘Sustainability’ is an overused term. There are many definitions of sustainability. The common denominators, though, deal with long term effects on intra-sectoral of economy which covers a wide scope of human activities. There are many coined terms used interchangeably with sustainability. They are ‘alternative’, ‘green’, ‘responsible’, ‘soft’, ‘eco’, and ‘appropriate’ amongst others. These forms of sustainable development are often underpinned by value conscious activities, held usually in rural areas, marked as small scaled and are locally controlled (Baud-Bovy and Lawson, 2000).

Four basic principles are crucial to the concept of sustainability in planning development:

1. The idea of holistic planning, cross- sectoral planning and strategy making.
2. The importance of preserving essential ecological processes.
3. The need to protect both human heritage and biodiversity, and
4. The requirement that development should be carried out in a way that productivity does not deplete resources for the long term and deprive future generations.

Approaches in planning and development have been discussed at the beginning of this book in chapter one, ‘Background, Concepts and Evolution of Tourism Planning’. Marrying those approaches with issues of sustainability results in a sustainable development framework. Sustainable development is defined as development progress that meets the present human needs without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs (United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). This implies a long-term planning perspective.

Moving to the tourism industry context, Hall (2000, p. 1) denotes that 'tourism is intimately connected with issues of sustainable development'. Hall reasons are that tourism takes place in a setting which is made up of both natural and built environments. The natural environment is what exists in nature. This includes the climate and weather, land, soils, topography, geology, water features, flora, fauna and the ecological system. The built environment on the other hand is comprised of man-made physical features. Mainly all types of buildings, infrastructure development, archaeological and historical sites belong to this built environment. Hall adds tourism can be used to help preserve the environment through management, education and appreciation. Preservation programmes of sites can be financed through revenues from entrance fees, for instance.

Sustainable tourism

There are many definitions of sustainable tourism. Revisiting the terms 'alternative', 'green', 'responsible', 'soft', 'eco', and 'appropriate' mentioned above, Baud-Bovy and Lawson (2000) define alternative tourism as an approach that consider promoting a just form of travel between communities, seeking towards a mutual understanding, quality and solidarity among participants. Green tourism on the other hand denotes a development approach that has a high regard for and respect for the landscape, including existing infrastructure and cultural attributes of destinations, and the wildlife.

Ecotourism carries the meaning of nature and culture-based tourism, has the ability to avoid destruction to nature or has the ability to remedy unavoidable destruction caused by tourism development (Malaysia National Ecotourism Plan, 2016). Ecotourism is defined as 'environmentally responsible travel and visitation to relatively undisturbed natural areas, in order to enjoy and appreciate nature (and any accompanying cultural features, both past and present) that promotes conservation, has low visitor impact, and provides for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local populations' (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1993, cited in World Wide Fund for Nature Malaysia, 1996, p. vii). In this sense ecotourism respects the environment by focusing on environmental protection or appreciation of the environment. Ecotourism developments in many cases involved the reservation of land to conserve the natural

assets. Responsible tourism meanwhile denotes tourism activities that create better places for people to live in.

The World Tourism Organization defines sustainable tourism as ‘tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities’ (United Nations, 2022a). Tourism is not only considered as the fastest growing industry (Eber, 1992; United Nations, 2022a) but also has widespread impacts on the environment, economy and social. This is where attributes of sustainable development are imperative to be adopted in the industry.

The following are an amalgam of attributes and principles of sustainability in tourism (refer to Baud-Bovy and Lawson, 2000; Eber, 1992; United Nations, 2022a; United Nations World Tourism Organization, undated; Hall, 2000; Sustainable Tourism Planning and Development Laboratory, undated; Murphy, 1985; Naturfreunde Internationale, undated; Sustainable Tourism Laboratory, undated; The Encyclopedia of World Problems, undated; Stojanovska-Stefanova and Drasko, 2018):

- Sustainable tourism has to meet social culture, environment (ecological) and economic requirements.
- Sustainable tourism holds a long-term view, for present and future generations, ethically and socially just and culturally adapted, ecologically viable and economically sensible and productive.
- Sustainable tourism also maintains a high level of tourist satisfaction and ensures a meaningful experience to the tourists, raising their awareness about sustainability issues and promoting sustainable tourism practices amongst them.
- Sustainable tourism has to achieve quality growth in a manner that does not deplete the natural and built-in environment, and preserves and conserves the environment, respect wildlife, flora, biodiversity and cultural diversity.
- Sustainable tourism has to achieve a balance between number of visitors and the capacity of the given environment.
- Greatest interaction and enjoyment with the least destruction.

- The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development commits member states through Sustainable Development Goal which promotes local culture and products, and creates jobs.
- Tourism planning in the context of overall land-use planning provides the basis for achieving integrated, controlled, and sustainable tourism development.
- Sustainable tourism development can fulfill economic, social, and aesthetic needs while maintaining cultural integrity and ecological processes. It can provide for today's hosts and guests while protecting and enhancing the same opportunity for the future.
- Sustainable tourism development involves making hard political choices based on complex social, economic, and environmental trade-offs. It requires a vision which encompasses a larger time and space context than that traditionally used in community planning and decision-making.
- Local people should be encouraged and expected to undertake leadership roles in planning and development with the assistance of government, business, financial, and other interest groups.
- Integrated environmental, social, and economic planning analysis should be undertaken prior to the commencement of any major projects, with careful consideration given to different types of tourism development and the ways in which they might link with existing uses, ways of life, and environmental considerations.
- Tourism is also identified as one of the tools to increase economic benefits by 2030.
- Sustainable tourism is the driver for job creation and the promotion of local culture and products.
- Tourism should be undertaken with equity in mind to distribute fairly benefits and costs among tourism promoters and host peoples and areas.
- The role of sustainable tourism as a key contributor for sustainable development in developing countries.

Sustainability Indicators

The goals of sustainable tourism development are to protect the environment, ensure social equity and cohesion, and enhance economic prosperity. The goals could be achieved by imposing a systematic process that involves developing policy guidelines, providing sustainable tourism indicators, and monitoring sustainability through worldwide sustainability principles. Sustainability indicators are established to measure and ensure that the goals are achieved. Sustainability indicators are information sets which are formally selected for a regular use to measure changes in key assets and issues of tourism destinations and sites. Some of these indicators will be described in chapter seven under the heading 'Environmental Impact Assessment, Carrying Capacities and Limits of Acceptable Change.' These indicators can form basic tools for tourism planning, management and monitoring of tourism development. These indicators are identified and use to measure the entire range of impacts; environmental, social and economic, the scope used by UNWTO on sustainable tourism development. Thus, sustainability indicators connect and concern:

- Issues concerning the natural resources and environment of a destination.
- Issues relating to cultural assets and social values, and
- Concerns relating to economic sustainability.

These indicators can significantly contribute to accurate data monitoring which is needed for responsible decision-making.

Agenda 2030

The United Nations has declared Agenda 2030 to end poverty, protect the planet, and ensure all the world's population enjoys prosperity and peace. Adopted in 2015, Agenda 2030 comes with 17 Sustainable Development Goals:

1. No poverty.
2. Zero hunger.
3. Good health and well-being.
4. Quality education.
5. Gender equality.
6. Clean water and sanitation.
7. Affordable and clean energy.
8. Decent work and economic growth.

9. Industry, innovation and infrastructure.
10. Reduced inequality.
11. Sustainable cities and communities.
12. Responsible consumption and production.
13. Climate action.
14. Life below water.
15. Life on land.
16. Peace, justice and strong institutions, and
17. Partnerships for the goals.

(United Nations World Tourism Organization, undated)

These SDGs are designed in an integrated manner so that development is balanced between economy, society, and environment.

Conclusion

This chapter has outlined some key concepts, underlying the evolution in sustainability, a prelude to a more focused discourse in sustainable tourism. Terms like green, alternative, responsible, and soft often become the denominator of sustainability.

There is an assemble of sustainable tourism attributes collated from scholars and institutions. They range from sustainable tourism has to meet social culture, environment (ecological), and economic requirements, to the role of sustainable tourism as a key contributor for sustainable development in developing countries. In parallel, Sarkawi and Abdullah (2008) notes that there is vociferous demand for sustainable practices in the way we deal with the surroundings. Kusyuniadi (2018), however, postulates that often more emphasize is given to economic purposes with less priority on other matters. Within the tourism perspective, Hall (2021, p. 198) conquer that empirical measures indicate that 'tourism is less sustainable than ever with respect to resource use'. This remark will end this chapter, setting forth a discussion on both positive and negative impacts of the three sustainability domains expounded by UNWTO; the environment, socio-culture and economy, in the following chapter.

Chapter 6

Tourism Impacts on the Economy, Environment and Socio-culture

Tourism development is achieved not without a cost. This cost is the concern of many groups, including scholars, Non-Governmental Organizations and communities affected by development. However, the perception of this cost varies according to groups. There is also a distinction between to how tourists and local groups perceived the tourism environment as having been affected by tourism. Local groups may reflect their concern on local environmental and socio-cultural values head-on with the pressing needs of economic progress. Mass international tourists, with their 'free attitude' may not comprehend the locals' concern on these values. However, increasing number of tourists with a keen awareness of the surrounding, and therefore are more sensitive towards the environment and local socio-culture, may change previous or current relationships between tourists and the host.

Tourism impacts on the economy, environment and socio-culture are widespread, and so is the scale and intensity of the impacts. Studies done by scholars on these impacts are often more than not divorced from the processes which have caused them (Pearce, 1989). To this reason the authors want to insert such processes of change not only in this chapter but throughout this book so that readers would truly understand the complexities brought about by tourism. Though, the approach used is to introduce these complexities in a 'benign' way so that novice scholars in tourism planning and undergraduates pursuing studies in tourism would not have difficulties in understanding them. This chapter will bring the limelight on the varied impacts of tourism, positive and negative, which reflect the context and degree of development as well as the processes of change that formed them.

While tourism development is dynamic (see Butler, 1980, in chapter one), the impacts are likely to change relatively over time as destination areas evolved. Land use pattern is continuously changing, influenced by human activities and nature catastrophes that leave impacts on the sites' ecosystem (Goh, 2009). Rapid development would also exacerbate the impacts, particularly negative ones.

The following questions may raise insights to how changes take place within a spatial-temporal context:

- Where is tourism taking place?
A rural or urban location, a coastal or inland area, a developed or developing country?
- What is the scale of tourism?
How many tourists targeted? Is it integrated form of development?
- Who are the tourists?
Are they domestic or international tourists? What are their origin markets? Are they from a developed or developing country?
- In what type of activities do tourists engage in?
What passive or active activities do they indulge in?
- What infrastructure exists for tourism?
Sophisticated network of tar-road? Integrated sewage system? Continuous supply of electricity to power attraction sites, accommodation or restaurants.
- For how long has tourism been established?
How would the site be framed upon Butler's theory of destination life cycle? Is it in the boosterism stage? Is it in the rejuvenate stage?
- When is the tourist season?
What time of the calendar year? Summer school holidays?

Economic Impacts

Studies on tourism development impacts are much weighted towards their economic rather than environmental or socio-culture dimension. The economy is seen as the driving force of tourism, particularly in the less developed world due to its multipliers effect (Gartner, 1996). Some countries of this less developed world see tourism as a lifeline to alleviate poverty. They see tourism as inherently beneficial.

Tourism economists attempt to measure or estimate the change in economic activity in a specified country, state or region caused by a tourist development. The type and extent of economic impacts depends very much on the type, intensity, and scale of tourism development and on the economic characteristics of the area pre- and post-tourism.

Positive Economic Impacts

Countries get their foreign exchange earnings through international tourism specifically from inbound tourists. Countries are still able to have healthy balance surplus (Pearce, 1989; Gartner, 1996) even though some hard-earned currencies are lost through 'leakages' to sustain tourism activities like paying expatriates who work in the hotels, who remunerate some of their salaries back home.

International and domestic tourism contribute to government revenues through taxation on tourism in the form of service tax and the like. With money aplenty, the government could finance the construction of infrastructure, facilities and provide services to its citizen. While, these infrastructure and facilities can be shared between the locals and the visitors, the condition leads to increase in the former's standard of living too. This also serve in improving overall national and regional economic development, treating economic development imbalance between urban and rural areas.

Tourism also contributes to a variety of job opportunities to locals. In chapter two, this book has segmentised the tourism industry into some significant components. Jobs can be created within these components, ranging from the accommodation sector comprises of budget to premium 5-star hotels, destination attractions like natural and man-made amusement parks, archeological and historical sites, to a horde of 'budget'

airlines. Increasing number of tourist arrivals spurs the demand for more accommodation rooms, leading to construction of new different tier-priced hotels. Multiplier effects of tourism can be seen in other economic sectors such as construction, certain types of manufacturing, agriculture and handicrafts through their supply of goods and services used in tourism industry. Increasing international and domestic tourists' demand on these goods and services while traveling results in local economies being stimulated, benefiting the local people. Tourism stimulates backward linkages or entrepreneurial activities (Pearce, 1989) when local artists sell their art works and locals are hired as informal guides.

Tourism is considered a labor-intensive industry. Therefore, tourism is an effective generator of job opportunities. Though, caution can be thrown here when jobs in the industry has a lower level of skills and training, limiting promotion opportunities. The highly seasonal nature of tourism results in the industry relying heavily on part-time workers. In general, the multiplier effect is more important compared to tourism receipts when calculating the overall economic benefits of tourism (ibid).



Plate 7: A Semelai guide in Tasek Bera, the first RAMSAR site in Malaysia, demonstrating oil extraction from a keruing tree. The Semelai is one of Peninsular Malaysia's 19 ethnics *Orang Asli* (Institut Tadbiran Awam Malaysia, 1991).

Negative Economic Impacts

Tourism development, particularly in less developed countries, generally has an inflationary effect. There is a significant disparity between well to do tourists and economically poor host population, and the high demand by the former on goods and services which led to price inflation. The demand on accommodation rooms, results in increase land price when plots of land were purchased to construct hotels. In parallel, the market price for houses for domestic consumption also increased. There would also be seasonal fluctuation of price of food. Peak tourist season sees increase in food price when tourists place extra demands on local services at tourism destinations. All these elements effect tantamountly to a higher cost of living for the locals.

Small developing countries which see their governments use tourism as the best method of development, depend heavily on tourism for revenue. Each of these countries have more than half of their total revenues come from tourism (Pearce, 1989). On the other hand, it is common to see developed countries have less than five percent of their revenue from tourism. Countries that are too dependent on tourism revenue will face economic catastrophe in the event of regional natural calamity, military or health crisis. Sanctions by some countries on others they see as their enemies, for example as in the on-going war in Ukraine (Klomegah, 2023), have disrupted the movement of international tourists from the traditional routes. The world has seen how destructive COVID-19 is to the tourism industry. International tourist arrivals in Malaysia, for example, dropped tremendously from 26.1 million in 2019 to 4.33 million in 2020 (Tourism Malaysia, 2023b).

Another negative consequence of tourism is the opportunity cost whereby the cost of engaging in existing tourism activity rather than another form of economic activity or existing non-tourism-related one is higher. 'Opportunity costs refer to the economic benefits of tourism compared with the potential benefits forgone of investing in an alternative economic sector (or opportunity)' (Telfer and Sharpley, 2008, p. 185). For example, the cost investing in tourism instead of in arable farming and fishing in the coastal areas may not outweigh the economic potential posed by having arable farming and fishing in the very first place. Relatively little research has been done on this opportunity cost in tourism.

Spatial economic distortions which is another shortcoming of tourism can take place geographically if tourism is concentrated in only one or a few areas of a country. Thus, some area of a country is progressively developed while others remain in the backwater (Hall and Boyd, 2005, Khairil et al. 2010). This is resented by people who live in the less or under-developed areas when they have less opportunity to get jobs.

Environmental Impacts

There is a close relationship between the environment and tourism. The environment consists of both natural and built components which tend to attract tourists in drove. Tourists experience activities that are designed around these attractions. The mountains, forests, beaches and sea, and the built environment like archeological and historical sites offer aplenty of activities for tourists. Cohen (1978) identified four factors where tourism would impact the environment.

1. The intensity of site usage and development.
2. The resiliency of the ecosystem.
3. The time perspective of the developer.
4. The tourist development's transformational character.

Positive Environmental Impacts

The establishment of national and regional parks as area attractions for tourists leads to conservation of important natural areas. So is the establishment of historical, architectural and archaeological conservation sites. Entrance fees paid by tourists to enter these sites can be channeled into conserving and protecting them. All these would help the sites from continuous deterioration or totally disappear in the long run. Protected and conservation sites have become desirable tourist attractions. A site of this nature can also provide substance and foundation for economic and social development (World Bank, 2022). Observing tourists' interest in nature and other forms of built environment, and realizing the importance of conservation to the economic success of tourism can encourage locals' awareness on the surroundings. Tourism can help provide the incentive for 'cleaning up' the overall health of the environment through control of air, water, and noise pollution, and littering. Tourists would not be enticed to go to places where the air and water are polluted. Tourists consume good environmental quality. This will compel into having initiative to improve the environmental quality through overall reduction of pollution.

Improved environmental surroundings through attractive landscaping programmes, appropriate building designs, better environmental aesthetics and sign controls will enhance tourists' satisfaction. Well-designed tourist facilities like resorts that blend well with the physical and natural landscapes, and attractive hotels with local architectural motives may not only encourage tourists to patronize them, but also enhance the urban or rural landscape in otherwise mundane state. In parallel, 'staycation', a new trend in tourism particularly among urbanites has started to emerge. The trend is framed upon by a growing emphasize on achieving a work-life balance. The emergent of a particular consumer behaviour accelerated by the aftermath of COVID-19 has invoked a change in contemporary lifestyle pattern of urbanites.

Negative Environmental Impacts

Landscapes such as mountaintops and valleys, plains, lakes, riversides and beaches often characterized by species-rich ecosystems are attractive but fragile (Inskeep, 1991). They are transitional zones whereby human activities including tourism would put pressure on them by leaving imprints consisting alteration of the landscapes and waste and pollution. Tourism is a significant generator of waste products (Telfer and Sharpley, 2008). The littering of debris on the landscapes is a common problem in tourism areas because of the large number of tourists using limited space-area and the kind of activities they indulge in like picnicking or patronizing open concerts.

Tourism-related land clearing and construction of facilities provided the initial impetus for the destruction of nature. The development of tourism facilities such as resorts, infrastructure for supply of clean treated water, restaurants and recreation facilities can involve extensive and high gradient slope cutting, extensive paving, sand mining and the like. These generate soil erosion, landslides and flooding, particularly during extreme weather conditions such as intense rainfalls. Karegar et al. (2015) posit that the cause of flooding is highly correlated with high precipitation, streamflow, sea level rise, deforestation, climate change and land use changes. Construction of ski resort accommodation and facilities frequently requires clearing forested land. Deforestation also leads to loss of wildlife habitats, increasing the chance of some of the flora and fauna species towards extinction. Coastal wetlands are often drained and filled due to

lack of more suitable sites for construction of tourism facilities and infrastructure. Such construction plus subsequent tourist activities have harmful long-term effect on the ecologies of these landscapes.



Plate 8: An old charm in an unwelcoming environment. Old traditional passenger boats ferrying passengers across the Terengganu River in debris filled water, Malaysia.

In places where there is a lack of integrated sewage treatment system, problems may come in a different form. Inadequate sewage treatment facilities along beaches of small island destinations in developing countries results in sea-water pollution when untreated used water is discharged into the sea. In some areas of Langkawi, an island destination of Malaysia, untreated or poorly treated used water and sewage results in a significant formation of algae in the coastal water, resulting in unseasonal presence of sizable population of jelly fish. Poisonous jellyfish is harmful to swimmers.

As mentioned in chapter two, the advent of commercial jetliners, some of which are big wide-body aircrafts like the Boeing 747s and Airbus 380s has taken tourism to a new level. The new form of air mode of transportation has enabled tourist mobility to reach a condition never seen before. Ironically, these jetliners are also seen by many

as a significant single polluter of the air, contributing collectively with other forms of polluters to the thinning of the ozone layer. Increased human activities, including tourism contributes to a significant carbon emission (Bhaktikul et al. 2020). These elements consequently point to extreme climatic changes the world is facing.

Overcrowding and loss of amenities for residents, particularly during peak tourist season is another negative feature of tourism. Overloaded infrastructures can be seen in the form of many crowded airport terminals during summer holidays. Locals resent such condition particularly when they have to compete with tourists.

Socio-culture Impacts

Culture is about how people interact as observed through social interaction, social relations and material artefacts. It is composed of a system which shares same values. Values are the core of culture. These values are consisted of psychological variables that are shared amongst people that form the same culture (Hofstede, 1980). Thus, people from different cultures possess different values. The clash of culture is often seen in the tourism industry when the visitors visit places of interest organised, managed and operated by the host.

The type and extent of sociocultural impacts depends very much on the type and intensity of tourism development, and on the sociocultural characteristics of the tourism area, as emphasized by how tourism is planned, developed and managed. Telfer and Sharpley (2008) argue that this is overshadowed by the size and structure of the tourism industry at the destinations, types and number of tourists patronising, the relative importance of the tourism industry and the pace of the tourism industry. If the place is relatively untouched beforehand, the socio-culture impacts brought by tourism may be significant.

Positive Socio-culture Impacts

Tourism can be a major stimulus for conservation of important elements that are a part of the cultural heritage of an area because tourists would come to observe and appreciate the heritage features of the area. In this sense, heritage is composed of the broad areas of archaeology, architecture, history and tradition of a place. One would lead to the other, as conservation practices would lead to the revitalisation of

traditional arts, handicrafts, dance, music, customs, dress and certain aspects of traditional lifestyles. The revival of these arts through consumption of tourism will renew the cultural pride of the host. A sense of pride by residents in their culture can be reinforced or renewed when they observed tourists appreciating it. Consequently, tourism can help maintain the cultural identity of minority cultural groups that otherwise might be submerged by the nation's dominant culture.

Tourism can promote beneficial cross-cultural exchange between tourists and locals. Both sides will learn about the other's culture, resulting in greater mutual understanding and respects (Reisinger and Turner, 2002). In multi-ethnic countries like Malaysia and Indonesia, domestic tourism can help achieve cross-cultural understanding and build a sense of nation unity among diverse groups of people.

Negative Socio-culture Impacts

Over-commercialism of local ethnics' products as well as over-modification of these products to suit tourists' demand results in loss of authenticity of traditional arts, crafts and customs. Initially, high-quality handicrafts are produced to accommodate tourists' demand. As mass tourism becomes the norm, the production of these handicrafts is accelerated. The mass production of these items leads to a decrease in their authenticity and quality appearance.

The acculturation theory otherwise known as demonstration effects by tourists when local host is submerged by outside culture brought about by a seemingly more affluent and successful tourists is prevalent (Gartner, 1996; Reisinger and Turner, 2002). Residents observe and imitate the behavioural, dress and life-style patterns of international tourists, without understanding their cultural basis. Locals, for example, the 'beach boys' who are in direct contact with the tourists at seaside destinations, prefer to dress in western beach attires, adopt foreign slang in their conversation and even smoke pots to blend with the latter. These practises ensure a loss of the host's cultural character, social identity and self-respect. A site within a tourist destination patronised by tourists due to readily available goods and services they are accustomed to back at home like alcohol plus 'shadow' activities which by law are forbidden in their home countries may results in an enclave landscape. Tourism exacerbates social

problems of drugs, alcoholism, crime and prostitution, although tourism is seldom the basic cause of these problems.



Plate 9: An enclave landscape in Banjul, The Gambia.



Plate 10: A notice board in a village in Perhentian Island, Malaysia.

Cohen (1984) argue that misunderstanding and conflict of interest arise between tourists and local residents because of difference languages, customs, religious value, and behavioural patterns. Violations of local dress code by tourists may be resented

by residents and leads to conflict of strong religious values. Tourism exploitation could also take place when tourists behave unruly, for example, stripping to their undies or simply being naked in a considered sacred place by locals (Berita Harian, 13th June, 2015). The Uluru or widely known as Ayers Rock in central Australia and Mount Kinabalu in Sabah, Malaysia, are two such tourist sites where deplorable behaviours of western tourists were recorded.

Conclusion

This chapter has explained both the positive and negative impacts of tourism within the United Nations World Tourism Organization's prescribed three domains; economic, environment and socio-culture. Tourism negative impacts should be checked at all times, a necessity to rightly balanced development and protection (Arni et. al. 2015). Relevant government policies could be enacted and put in place to reduce these negative impacts.

In a wider perspective, the authors suggest readers to look into some form of measurement framework after stocking their understanding on the impacts of tourism to the surroundings. Potter's (1978) general framework, for example, presents a useful impact assessment for planning and development purpose of tourism.

Table 6.1: A general framework for assessing the impact of tourism

1. Examine context.
2. Forecast future if tourist development does not proceed/had not proceed.
3. Examine tourist development.
4. Forecast future if development proceeds/examine what happened when development occurred.
5. Identify in quantitative and qualitative terms differences between 2 and 4.
6. Suggest amelioration measures to reduce adverse impacts.
7. Present the results.
8. Make a decision.

(Potter, 1978)

In line with the rapid growth of tourism, particularly considering tourism as the world's top industry, it is seemingly logical to treat planning, developing, and managing tourism to the utmost importance.

Chapter 7

Environmental Impact Assessment, Carrying Capacity and Limits of Acceptable Change

The previous chapter has delineated the tourism industry's impacts on the economy, environmental and socio-culture attributes of nations, be it positive or negative. The current chapter will discuss the assessment tools use in managing these impacts. The assessment of tourism's impacts on the environment is important due to the fact that various environmental or natural features of the earth or socio-culture of the earth are tourist attractions themselves. Many of these attractions are housed in a fragile environment whereby intense tourist activities may have grave consequences to the environment. Issues in tourism capacity take commendable attention from scholars (Khairil et al. 2009). This environment needs to be continuously monitored and controlled.

Environmental Impact Assessment

It was half a century ago, in the early 1970s, when the Environmental Impact Assessment was established. The term impact and effect are often use synonymously when underlining EIA (Wathern, 1988). The terms have both spatial and temporal meanings. EIA is defined as a systematic process of identification of potential impacts, particularly negative ones, stemming from a proposed development plan (Ramli and Halip, 2009). This involves identifying stresses and responses of the environment to human activities. EIA is a form of 'checks and balances' through review criteria and guidance, and the involvement process of respective experts and the public in the proposed development plan (United Nations Environment Programme, 2002).

EIA is an integral part of environmental management. EIA is mandatory under Malaysia's Section 34A Environmental Quality Act 1987. The roles of assessment panels and group of informed individuals, and their expert judgment are increasingly

significant in the review of proposed development plans in Malaysia. The approving authorities in project planning include:

1. The National Development Planning Committee for federal government sponsored projects.
2. The State Executive Council for state government sponsored projects.
3. Various local authorities or regional development authorities, with respect to planning approval within their respective area.
4. The Ministry of Trade and Industry or MIDA for industrial projects.

(Ramli and Halip, 2009)

The EIA in Malaysia is carried out in sequential stages; preliminary assessment, detailed assessment and review of the EIA report. It is not the intention of this book to dwell these stages in detail due to the EIA's wide scope and complex interrelationships amongst the federal, state and local governments, whom are the public playmakers. Adding to the complexity is that land matters are under the preview of the state government. Nonetheless, EIA should contain baseline studies otherwise known as environmental description that reflect the present state of the environment. Baseline studies should contain both biophysical and socio-economic features of the proposed site. The former should include the identified site's topographical features such as soil, mineral content, slope gradient and erosion, hydrological features such as biological, chemical and physical nature of surface and groundwater, drainage basin and quantity of water sources, weather and climate conditions, air, flora and fauna, relationships among species and the ecosystem (Ibid). The socio-economic description should include the site's community's profile such as demography, population density, land use pattern, infrastructure and townscape, and the site's historical, cultural, and archaeological features.

A comprehensive framework attesting to the study of tourism and the environment, and stress and response, can be inferred from the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development's documents, namely The Impact of Tourism on the Environment (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1981a) and Case Studies of the Impact of Tourism on the Environment (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1981b). The framework consists of stressor activities in the like of permanent environmental restructuring, generation of waste residuals,

tourist activities, and effect on population dynamics. If the description within an EIA is flawed, a detrimental effect would befall on the EIA, reducing its accuracy in prediction and mitigating measures (Canning et al. 2003, cited by Ramli and Halip, 2009, p. 166).

While the authorities are tasked with approving the EIA of a proposed tourism development plan, public participation is crucial to the success of the plan implementation. The public must be involved in the inception of the plan right from the beginning. The public should not be in a reactive position. This mirrors the community-based tourism plan, which involves the host or local community right from the beginning.

Carrying Capacity

Carrying capacity concept is convoluted. Though, it has a strong concern with humanity that has passed beyond ‘tipping points’ for the safe use of the biosphere (Chapman and Byron, 2018). Carrying capacity is composed of a broad spectrum of approaches used to understand biotic interactions in the ecosystem. Thus, carrying capacity is found in many studies in wildlife management, rangeland, aquaculture, conservation biology and fishery biology. All these fields are interlinked with tourism.

Definition of carrying capacity with respect to tourism

Carrying capacity forms an essential guideline to be used when formulating a tourism plan at any level. It is a tool to how to measure a site’s capacity to absorb multitude of activities without facing a detrimental effect.

In tourism, carrying capacity is defined as ‘... the maximum number of people who can use a site without an unacceptable decline in the quality of experience gained by visitors’ (Mathieson and Wall, 1982, pg. 21). United Nations World Tourism Organization (undated, p.5), on the other hand, defines carrying capacity as ‘The maximum number of people that may visit a tourist destination at the same time, without causing destruction of the physical, economic, socio-cultural environment and an unacceptable decrease in the quality of visitors’ satisfaction’. The UNWTO’s definition has a notion that is underpinned by the three domains of sustainability; physical or environmental, economic and socio-culture. Both definitions invoke a quantitative element. Both definitions spur the notion of establishing the upper limits

of development without tampering visitors' satisfaction when visiting tourism sites. Based on the concept of maintaining a level of development and use, these definitions amount to tourists' visits that will not result in environmental or socio-cultural degradation or be perceived by tourists as depreciating their enjoyment and appreciation of the area. At the same time the development shall be done at optimum utilisation of tourism resources.

By establishing the upper limits on development, and therefore the number of tourist arrivals (the quantifying element), the carrying capacity analysis will provide feedback to market analysis. In such a case, any necessary adjustments can be made to the market projections and targets.

Types of Carrying Capacity

There are many types of carrying capacity:

1. Physical carrying capacity.
Capacity is reached when existing historical sites and/or the infrastructure can no longer support the tourist number.
2. Environmental Carrying capacity.
Capacity is reached when environmental problems start to occur due to excessive tourist interaction with the environment.
3. Ecological Carrying capacity.
Capacity is reached when native wildlife population is endangered due to tourist activities.
4. Economic carrying capacity.
Capacity is reached when beneficial local activities can no longer be carried out as this is squeezed out by tourist functions.
5. Social carrying capacity.
Capacity is reached when indigenous population or host population or tourists can no longer tolerate the behaviour of other tourists.
6. Perceptual carrying capacity.
Capacity is reached when tourists no longer enjoy themselves due to observable damage caused by previous visits by tourists.

(Baud-Bovy and Lawson, 2000).

For tourism landscape whether it is in an urban or rural setting or places considered inhabited there are some criteria to ponder on when dealing with carrying capacity, especially when tourism destinations' image may have different values in the eyes of the visitors. As Hofstede (1980) argue, people from different cultures have different values.

Criteria for determining carrying capacity for tourism image or visitor satisfaction.

Physical

Overall cleanliness and lack of pollution of destination environment.

Lack of undue congestion of destination environment.

Attractiveness of the landscape or townscape (quality and character of architecture design).

Maintain of the ecological system, and flora and fauna of natural attraction features.

Economic

Cost of the holiday and value for money.

Social cultural

Intrinsic interest of the indigenous community and culture.

Quality of local arts, handicrafts, cuisine and cultural performance.

Friendliness of residents.

Infrastructure

Adequate standards of transportation facilities and services.

Adequate standards of utility services.

Adequate standards of other community facilities and services.

Carrying capacity varies according to sites, depending on the following list of attributes, though the list is not considered exhaustive (Baud-Bovy and Lawson, 2000, p. 11):

- The fragility of the environment and local socio-cultural lifestyles and customs.
- The quality of experience sought by tourists in choosing that destination.
- The benefits sought from tourism and the extent to which the local community is involved.

- The facilities and services that are available, and the extent to which the infrastructure can meet demand.

Some scholars nonetheless argue that the carrying capacity approach has failed in the visitor management of designated wilderness. McCool (2013), for example, has this view when applying some visitor management cases in wilderness areas of the United States. Wilderness area or protected natural area is one of the many forms of tourist destinations. As an alternative, McCool proposes the Limits of Acceptable Change developed by the United States Forest Service in place of the carrying capacity.

Limits of Acceptable Change

The Limits of Acceptable Change propounded by Stankey et al. (1985) provides a tourism or visitor management framework within a protected area or wilderness which accentuates tourism planning. LAC can be embedded in visitor or tourism management of protected area. LAC's value is in providing a structure for planners or managers in working through maze of complexities when integrating preservation and goals (McCool, 2013). LAC has also been adapted in nature-based tourism planning. It is more applicable to a site that has a single management authority (Gartner, 1996).

The Bob Marshall Wilderness was the first wilderness area to apply LAC in its visitor management (Stankey et al. 1985). Bob Marshall Wilderness was named after an early forester who worked for the United States Government. He was also a conservationist and the co-founder of The Wilderness Society in the United States. The Bob Marshall Wilderness was a congressionally designated protected area established in 1964. It is located in the western part of the state of Montana, the United States.

Lac uses indicators and standards within the process framework, designed to assess management effectiveness (McCool, 2013). As a planning framework, LAC incorporates the following propositions:

- Any level of human use (e.g., tourism in this case) of a natural area result in some change to biophysical conditions and to visitor experience.
- The character and amount of resulting change at some point becomes unacceptable to at least some constituencies.
- Diversity in biophysical and social conditions exists and may be desirable.

- Preservation of heritage and access (for visitation) are goals that are partly competing but partly overlapping.
- Management is required to maintain human-induced impacts within a certain level of acceptability or appropriateness.

These propositions are later on derived into the following steps.

Table 7.1: The Steps and Description of Limits of Acceptable Change

LAC Step	Brief Description
(1) Identify area concerns and issues	Citizens and managers meet to identify what special values, features or qualities within the area require attention, what management problems or concerns have to be dealt with, what issues the public considers important in the area's management, and what role the area plays in both a regional and national context. Scientists also become involved because they may often hold information not readily available. The dialogue among scientists, managers and public helps unify agreement about important values and issues. This step encourages a better understanding of the natural resources base, such as the sensitivity of biodiversity to recreation use and tourism development, a general concept of how the resource could be managed, and a focus on principle management issues. LAC is a very much an issue-driven process.
(2) Define and describe opportunity classes	Protected areas contain a diversity of biophysical features – waterfalls, canyons, valleys, beaches, reefs, forests, swamps, wetlands – with some evidence of human occupation and use. These features may vary significantly in terms of the amount and type of development. Likewise, social conditions, such as level and type of use, visitor density, and types of recreation experiences, vary from place to place. The type of management needed may vary throughout the area. Opportunity classes describe subdivisions or zones of the natural resource where social, resource, or managerial conditions will be maintained. For example, peripheral regions or easily accessible areas of parks may receive higher levels of use and many show evidence of greater levels of impact. In some protected areas, isolated rest camps exist where the environment has been subject to significant modification. The classes that are developed in step 2

	<p>represent a way of defining a range of diverse conditions within the protected area setting. And, while diversity is the objective here, it is important to point out that the conditions found in all cases must be consistent with the objectives laid out in the area's organic legislation or decree. In this step, the number of classes are also defined as well as their general biophysical, social, and managerial conditions.</p>
<p>(3) Select indicators of resource and social conditions</p>	<p>Indicators are specific elements of the resource or social setting selected to represent (or be 'indicative of') the conditions deemed appropriate and acceptable in each opportunity class. Because it is impossible to measure the condition of and change in every biophysical feature or social condition within a protected setting, a few indicators are selected as measures of overall health, just as we relatively frequently monitor our blood pressure rather than more complete tests of blood chemistry. Indicators should be easy to measure quantitatively, relate to the conditions specified by the opportunity classes and reflect changes resulting from visitor use and tourism development. Indicators are an essential part of the Lac framework because their state reflects the overall condition found throughout an opportunity class. It is important to understand that an individual indicator might not adequately depict the condition of a particular area. It is the bundle of indicators that is used to monitor conditions.</p>
<p>(4) Inventory resource and social conditions</p>	<p>Inventories can be time-consuming and expensive components of planning; indeed they usually are. In the LAC process, the inventory is guided by the indicators selected in step 3. For example, level and type of development, use density, and human-induced impacts on biophysical attributes (e.g., soils, vegetation, coral) may be measured. Other variables, such as location of infrastructure (parking, roads, trails, trailheads, interpretive facilities, accommodation, picnic sites, shipwrecks, and docks) can also be inventoried to develop a better understanding of area constraints and opportunities. And, inventory information will be helpful later when evaluating the consequences of alternatives. Inventory data are mapped so both the condition and location of the indicators are known. The inventory also helps managers establish realistic and attainable</p>

	standards. By placing the inventory as step 4, planners avoid unnecessary data collection.
(5) Specify standards for resource and social conditions	In this step, the range of conditions is identified for each indicator considered appropriate and acceptable for each opportunity class. By defining those conditions in measurable terms, the basis for establishing a distinctive and diverse range of settings is established. Standards serve to define the “limits of acceptable change.” They are the maximum permissible change in conditions that will be allowed in a specific opportunity class. They are not necessarily objectives to be attained. The inventory data collected in step 4 play an important role in setting standards. The standards defining the range of acceptable conditions in each opportunity class should be realistic and attainable; they should not mimic existing (unacceptable) conditions.
(6) Identify alternative opportunity class allocations	Most protected area settings could be managed in several different ways. Protected areas often differ significantly in the amount of development, human density (both residents and visitors), and recreational opportunities available. In this step, we begin to identify some different types of alternatives. Using information from step 1 (area issues and concerns) and step 4 (inventory of existing conditions), managers and citizens can begin to jointly explore how well different opportunity class allocations address the various contending interests, concerns, and values.
(7) Identify management actions for each alternative	The alternative allocations proposed in step 6 are only the first step in the process of developing a preferred alternative. In addition to the kinds of conditions that would be achieved, both managers and citizens need to know what management actions will be required to achieve the desired conditions. In a sense, step 7 requires an analysis of the costs, broadly defined, that will be imposed by each alternative. For example, many people may find attractive the alternative to protect a specific area from any development, and restore to pristine condition any impacts that might exist. However, this alternative might require such a huge commitment of funds for acquisition and enforcement that the alternative might not seem as attractive.
(8) Evaluation and selection	With the various costs and benefits of the several alternatives before them, managers and citizens can proceed to the

of a preferred alternative	evaluation stage, and can select a preferred alternative. Evaluation must take into consideration many factors, but examples would include the responsiveness of each alternative to the issues identified in step 1, management requirements from step 7, and public preferences. It is important that the factors figuring into evaluation process and their relative weight be made explicit and available for public review.
(9) Implement actions and monitor conditions	With an alternative finally selected, and articulated as policy by decision-makers, the necessary management actions are put into effect and a monitoring programme instituted. Often, an implementation plan, detailing actions, costs, timetable, and responsibilities, will be needed to ensure timely implementation. The monitoring programme focuses on the indicators selected in step 3, and compares their condition with those identified in the standards. This information can be used to evaluate the success of actions. If conditions are not improving, the intensity of the management effort might need to be increased or new actions implemented.

Source: Cited from Stankey et al. (1985) in McCool (2013, pp. 296-297).

Conclusion

This chapter has laid out in detail three management tools in addressing the impacts caused by tourism activities. The first, the EIA, not only covers environmental features of a site identified for development but also its socio-culture and socio-economic attributes. Carrying capacity on the other hand, a tool that cannot simply be ignored in tourism planning due to its ability to identify and determine the ‘quantitative threshold’ – the maximum number of tourists who could visit a site without unacceptable decline in the quality experience of the tourist. LAC reflects the maximum permissible change in conditions triggered by human activities. The success of LAC in wilderness management in the United States on the other hand should be taken cautiously when applying the tool to other countries. The same results cannot be extrapolated to other sites, for example, in nature-based tourism site in Malaysia due to different conditions like prescribed laws and jurisdiction of land matter.

Chapter 8

Conclusion and Future of Tourism Planning

Acceleration of development in many parts of the world (see chapter one), parallels with increased negative impacts on the economy, environment and socio-culture (chapter six). The world is getting more complex, with rapid changes of the environment brought about by extensive and intense human activities and external factors like extreme weather conditions, severe floods, massive earthquakes and wars. Rapid deterioration of the environment, at least in the case of Malaysia, for example see Berita Harian (5th July, 2022) 'Ladang Musang King di Gunung Inas perlu dihenti', has led to people being weary of the environment they live in.

We must be mindful that there are many potential issues that may spark crises. Crises and disaster may strike unknowingly in some corners of the world, sending ripples of destructive forces to its other sides. Henderson (2007) posits that crises are products of institutional stresses. Crises are triggered with unexpectedness and danger, catalyzed by powerful events. Crises undermine existing human socio-culture and economic structures, and their modes of operation. Crises that hit the tourism industry could be traced back to the processes of development rooted in economics, environmental, socio-culture and politics. However, a crisis is often an opportunity to rethink, reassess or reinvent old processes (Malaysia Investment Development Authority, undated).

Crises are more amenable to control (Henderson, 2007). Disasters on the other hand, are in the like of extreme weather conditions which may impinge on industrial activities, including tourism. We often hear about natural disasters brought about by earthquakes and tsunamis. On 6th February 2023, an earthquake, with a magnitude of 7.8 on the Richter Scale hit southern Turkey, bordering Syria (The Center for Disaster Philanthropy, 2023). The aftermath of the earthquake and a subsequent powerful one plus the aftershocks impacted an estimated 15.7 million people in Turkey and Syria.

The Indian Ocean tsunamis otherwise known as the Aceh tsunamis was triggered by a very powerful undersea earthquake off the coast of Sumatera, with a 9.1 magnitude at 7.59 am December 26, 2004 (Britannica, 2023). Seven hours after the earthquake struck, a tsunami hit across the Indian Ocean leaving trails of destruction in Sumatera, southern Thailand, Sri Lanka, Maldives, southeast India and eastern Africa. 225,000 people were left dead. Sumatera alone had more than 200,000 deaths. These crises and disasters contribute towards the complexity to how the world works. This complexity needs radical ways of thinking and doing to ensure tourism planning results in a dynamic 'blueprint'.

Comprehending Challenging Issues

Low-carbon Tourism

A variety modes of transportation enables tourists to reach their destinations of choice. However, the same modes of transportation also contribute to carbon emission. Jetliners carrying millions of passengers including tourists crisscross the globe with seeming ease. This practise amongst others contributes to the uncontrolled release of carbon dioxide. Bhaktikul et al (2020) add that increased tourism activities, human behaviour and culture accounts significantly to carbon emissions. Tang et al. (2018) add, transportation contributes to 75% of carbon dioxide emissions, accommodation and catering 21% and tourism activities four percent.

Carbon footprint reflects the amount of carbon dioxide emissions associated with the activities of a person or other entity (Selin, 2010). Increased carbon footprints will increase the concentration of greenhouse gases. These gases, acronymed GHGs, are trapped in the earth's atmosphere. The National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration scientists agree that GHGs are the cause of global warming and climate change (Edgell and Swanson, 2019). The severity of the condition has led to an agreement amongst developed nations to reduce greenhouse gases emission through the Kyoto Protocol which was held in Japan in 1997.

Low-carbon tourism could reduce carbon footprint (Che Leh et al, 2021). Low-carbon lifestyle which infuses low-carbon tourism permeates through the concern to curb global climate change. This lifestyle is embraced, for example, by Thailand. The country

through the Tourism Authority of Thailand identifies 20 low-carbon travel routes across Thailand. Activities pertaining to some domains of focus can be found along the 20 low-carbon travel routes (Forbes Asia, 2023). The Thai authority is promoting the movement by focusing on five domains of travel; gastronomy, wellness, adventure, history and slow life.

A recent unprecedented incident of colossal scale drastically reduced carbon footprint. Maneenop and Kotcharin (2020) noted that COVID-19 resulted in closed international borders, grounding most airlines, and with that reduced GHGs emissions. We shall come back later with COVID-19 under this chapter's subtheme 'health pandemic'.

Extreme Climatic Conditions

Gone were the days when the Mediterranean region was the place sought by many to stay or visit due to its ideal climatic conditions. The climate was cool during winter and warm during summer making the region ideal to have outdoor activities all year-round (Leong, 1971). Nowadays, severe dry hot seasons hit the region perennially, culminating with bush fires in countries like Greece and Turkey. Even, at the time of writing this chapter, the Northwest Territories of Canada is engulfed with 240 wildfires, with thousands are being evacuated (BBC News, 18th August 2023). The Island of Maui in Hawaii was ravaged with wildfires that erupted into an inferno, with 100 lives lost (CNN.Com, 18th August 2023). This is unprecedented in the history of the United States.

Some places are deluged by big floods. These tragic events would pose a serious question to tourism planners on the safety of tourists, some of whom love to wander the countryside.



Plate 11: The fury of nature in Stelu, Kelantan, an aftermath of a big flood that hit Peninsular Malaysia's east coast in 2004. A makeshift bridge was constructed and used next to the collapsed bridge.

The trend in the warming of the world exacerbates the melting of glaciers, and the rise in sea level. Stewart et al (2016) argue that shifting climatic conditions have receded glaciers in New Zealand's southern island. Glaciers are the natural wonder of the earth and are natural tourist attractions. This phenomenon has significant implication to the tourism industry when receding glaciers would possibly diminish tourists' experience. Global warming would also affect tourism in the Alps when the number of ideal snow skiing days are reduced. Many small island destinations in tropical regions like the Maldives, Mauritius, and the Caribbean islands may see the rise of sea level. Maldives may face greater challenges when the average height of the atoll island-nation is only a few meters from the sea level.

Health Pandemic

COVID-19 began to spread globally at the end of 2019 based on reports coming from WHO (World Health Organization, 2020). COVID-19 brought upheaval to all countries. Industry most stricken is likely the tourism industry since it is the world's largest industry. The world's tourism industry grinded to a halt. Resorts, hotel premises,

tourist destinations and restaurants closed. Workers were laid off. Money became scarce. Malaysia is no exemption.

Some countries proactively employed the 'travel bubbles' to mitigate their draining coffers. Herewith, the travel bubbles are known as travel corridors and corona corridors (named after the corona virus). Early concepts of travel bubble were recorded much earlier, for example by Urry (1990), when he posited that tourists travel and immerse in commoditized foreign culture and gaze at the landscape. The present concept, which is in response to the COVID-19 pandemic is essentially a manifestation of an exclusive partnership between two or more countries that have demonstrated considerable success in combating and containing the virus within their respective borders. It is a formula that would entail tourism business recoveries. However, travel bubbles have come and 'burst'. Some countries made efforts to find the right tonic to ease travelling across borders. Singapore, for example, had its own fast track to quarantine-free travel (Trip.com Singapore, 2023). Starting from 8th September 2021, the 'Vaccinated Travel Lanes' allowed travellers from Germany and Brunei to enter Singapore without serving a stay-home notice. New Zealand, on the other hand, allowed New Zealand travellers in the Cook Islands to travel back to New Zealand via quarantine-free flights (Bywater, 2021). Though, certain conditions had to be met in order to be eligible to book for the flights:

- A traveller needs to spend the 14 full days before his/her date of departure in either New Zealand or the Cook Islands.
- The traveller has not had a positive COVID-19 test in the 14 days before he/she departs.
- The traveller is not waiting for the results of a COVID-19 test taken in the past 14 days.

COVID-19 has left a deep scar on the tourism industry. The closing of international, national and state borders imposed by governments to contain the spread of the virus has immobilized people, therefore severely impacting the tourism industry. Out of this scenario emerged a new tourism landscape. Staycation which is a portmanteau expression is the new lifestyle that deals with the combination of stay and vacation. Taking a staycation means to stay at home during a vacation rather than traveling to a destination, which is presumed to be the point of vacations (West, 2018). Sharma

(2009, p.25) defined staycations as a neologism referring to ‘the activity of making a vacation out of staying at home.’ In this instance, COVID-19 may dissuades people from travelling. Thus, they submerge themselves in vacation-like activities at home or nearby. Pawłowska-Legwand and Matoga (2016) added that the change in lifestyle patterns and a growing emphasis on achieving a harmonious work-life equilibrium among urbanities is a manifestation of the concept.

Digitalization

The 21st century has given rise to sophisticated electronic commerce. The widespread use of e-commerce tools like QR codes and mini-programmes, smart phones and Artificial Intelligence amongst others spearheaded the 4th Industrial Revolution. Digitalization which stems from these features, together with current and advanced social media like the immensely popular TikTok, has further revolutionised how people interact with each other.

Edgell and Swanson (2019, p. 89) postulate ‘One of the biggest impacts on tourism demand today is the ease of the use of e-commerce tools. The internet is now used by most people as they plan their travel. It affords the traveler more power of choice through greater access to information and has a powerful influence on which destination a tourist chooses for their vacation. It also allows the potential traveler to preview the destination and the local amenities’. The tourism supply side has now been blessed with immense opportunities. ‘... destination facilitating access to tourism and hospitality products, services, spaces and experiences through ICT-based tools. It is a healthy social and cultural environment, which can be found through a focus on the city’s social and human capital. It also implements innovative, intelligent solutions and fosters the development of entrepreneurial businesses and their interconnectedness’ (The European Capital of Smart Tourism, undated). What is compelling is that small players in the tourism industry have equal footing with big corporations in promoting their products and services. The tourism industry is largely composed of thousands of Small and Medium-sized Enterprises. At the macro perspective, businesses that managed to stay afloat or gain footing during COVID-19 leveraged on technological solutions (Barykin et al. 2021) provided by current and latest e-commerce tools.

Therefore, whomever within the tourism industry who prefer not to adopt any form of digitalization would be left behind and become less competitive. More so tourism e-tailers believe in real time communication to customers so that they could deliver products and services timely and efficiently (Smith, 2020). Digital Marketing and E-Tailing Technological Innovations which form the digital world today are the new norm.

World's Geopolitics

What happened in one corner of the world often could have repercussions in the world's other regions. There are places of geopolitics hotspots. Eastern Europe, eastern Asia and Western Africa, for example, are regions that are volatile or have the potential to be volatile. One has to understand the power relations between the economically and militarily advanced western society and the less than fortunate developing countries. The unfolding of the event in Niger, beginning with a coup d'état on 26th July 2023 (Armed Conflict Location and Event Data Project, 2023), may have the signature of power brokers involving western countries notably France, the Economic Community of West African States, Niger and neighbouring Burkina Faso. France has for decades mined uranium in Niger, and imported the mineral to feed its nuclear-powered plants. This may be one of the reasons that France has deep interest in the current conditions in Niger.

The increase assertion by China on Taiwan, considered by the former as a runaway province, coupled by China's claim on a vast territory of the South China Sea through its proclaimed 'nine-dash line' are seen as a potential flash point for military actions by regional countries like The Philippines, Vietnam, Malaysia, Brunei and Indonesia, and superpowers in the like of the United States and its allies. Ironically Malaysia is aggressively promoting tourism to China after COVID-19 pandemic (Tourism Malaysia, 2023a) while at the same time the country is also weary of a rising China (Cheng-Chwee, 2008). In recent times, Malaysia's armed forces have to deal with encroachment by China's People Liberation Army military planes and naval ships in Malaysia's exclusive economic zone.

At the time of writing, the war in Ukraine often takes the centre stage when dealing with the world's current geopolitics. It is easy to observe and note a polarised world

when Russia is confronted with America's military hegemony, via the North Atlantic Treaty Organization.

Conclusion

This chapter's foregoing discussion has sought to highlight some issues that face the world's tourism industry. Recent crises and disasters identified are evidences of the type of uncertainties the industry would face in future decades. Gartner's (1996, unpagged - Preface) remark, 'Yes, wars will still rage, poverty will persist, and social injustice will continue, but so will the expansion of a global economy'. This remark also has a notion that the world will continue to progress economically at the expense of its physical environment, socio-culture and economic features. Gartner continues to posit that the powerplay between tourism businesses and the world's countries contributes to this condition. The world will see a continuous expansion of tourism as long as mutual beneficial economic linkages between the two parties exist. Expansion also entails the embracement of technology whereby digitalization is the mantra for nowadays business operation.

References

- Armed Conflict Location and Event Data Project (2023). *Fact Sheet: Military Coup in Niger*. Retrieved 20th August 2023 from <https://acleddata.com/2023/08/03/fact-sheet-military-coup-in-niger/>.
- Anderson, L. T. (1999). *Guidelines for Preparing Urban Plans*. Chicago: Planners Press.
- Arni, A. G., Khairil, W. A., Abdullah, M. and Zaiton, S. (2015). Attributes of Successful Public Participation in Planning for Sustainable Tourism in Protected Areas: A Modified Delphi Study. *PERTANIKA*, 23(S), 49-64.
- Azila, A. S. and Alias, A. (2008). *Urban Planning: An Islamic Practice*. Shah Alam: Arah Publications.
- Barykin, S. E., de la Poza, E., Khalid, B., Kapustina, I. V., Kalinina, O. V. and Iqbal, K. M. J. (2021). *Tourism Industry: Digital Transformation*. DOI. 10.4018/978-1-7998-8327-2.ch05. Hershey, PA: IGI Global.
- Baud-Bovy, M. and Lawson, F. (2000). *Tourism and Recreation Handbook of Planning and Design*. Oxford: Architectural Press.
- BBC News (18th August, 2023). *Canada Wildfire: Evacuees flee Yellowknife as fire nears northern city*. Retrieved 19th August 2023 from <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-us-canada-66526554>.
- Berita Harian (5th July, 2022). *Ladang Musang King di Gunung Inas perlu dihentikan*.
- Berita Harian (13th June, 2015). *Pelancong bogel dihantar keluar Sabah*. Retrieved 30th August 2023 from <https://www.bharian.com.my/berita/nasional/2015/06/61006/pelancong-bogel-dihantar-keluar-sabah>.
- Bhaktikul, K., Aroonsrimorakot, S., Laiphrakpam, M. and Paisantanakij, W. (2020). Toward a low-carbon tourism for sustainable development: A study based on a royal project for highland community development in Chiang Rai, Thailand. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 23, 10743-10762. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10668-020-01083-4>.

- Bhuiyan, M. A. H., Siwar, C., Ismail, S. M., and Islam, R. (2011). The role of government for ecotourism development: Focusing on east coast economic region. *Journal of social sciences*, 7(4), 557.
- Bridgman, P., and Davis, G. (2004). *The Australian policy handbook*. Sydney: Allen & Unwin.
- Briggs, J. and Sharp, J. (2004). Indigenous Knowledges and Development: A Post Colonial Caution. *Third World Quarterly*, 25(4), 661-676.
- Britannica (2023). *Indian-Ocean-tsunami*. Retrieved 16th August 2023 from <https://www.britannica.com/event/Indian-Ocean-tsunami-of-2004>.
- Butler, R. W. (1980). The concept of a tourist area cycle of evolution: Implication for Management Resources. *The Canadian Geographer*, 24(11), 5-12.
- Bywater, T. (2021). *Cook Island's quarantine free travel: What travellers need to know*. Retrieved 1st September 2023 from <https://www.nzherald.co.nz/travel/cook-islands-quarantine-free-travel-what-travellers-need-to-know/5PAM3WI5YRXOMBZ6KHMUNN4UM/>.
- Cairney, P. (2012). Complexity theory in political science and public policy. *Political studies review*, 10(3), 346-358.
- Canning, C., Owen, R. and Wendorf, C. (2003). *Considering the Description of Environment (Including Baselines) in EIA: A Guide for Novice Reviewers*. Unpublished manuscript prepared for the class ENVI5001: Environmental Impact Assessment. Halifax: Dalhousie University.
- Carter R. W., O'Rourke, V., Livingstone, T., McKenzie, T., Lyell, M., Brown, J., Marsden, P., Gray, J., McMackin, F., Knight, J., Kelly, K. and Roiko, A., (2013). *Strategic guidelines for sustainable tourism on the Khmer coast, report to the Ministry of Tourism, Royal Government of Cambodia*. Sippy Downs, Queensland: University of the Sunshine Coast.
- Ceballos-Lascurain, H. (1993). *Estudio de Prefactibilidad Socioeconomica del Turismo Ecologico y Anteproyecto Arquitectonico y Urbanistico del centro de Turismo Ecologico de Sian Ka'an, Quintana Roo*. Mexico City: Study made for SEDUE.

- Chapman, E. J. and Byron, C. J. (2018). The Flexible Application of Carrying Capacity in Ecology. *Global Ecology Conservation*, 13, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gecco.2017.eoo365>.
- Che Leh, F., Isa, N. K. M., Ibrahim, M. H., Ibrahim, M., Yunus, M. Y. M. and Ibrahim, J. A. (2021). Low-Carbon Tourism Approach as An Alternative Form for Tourism Development: A Review for Model Development. *PERTANIKA*, 29(4), 2431-2451.
- Cheng-Chwee, K. (2008). Project MUSE: Today's Research. Tomorrow's Inspiration. *Contemporary Southeast Asia*, 30(2), 159-85.
- CNN.Com. (18th August, 2023). *Everything was on fire: The hours that brought Lahaina to ruins*. Retrieved 19th August 2023 from <https://edition.cnn.com/interactive/2023/08/hawaii-wildfires-timeline-maui-lahaina-dg/index.html>.
- Cohen, E. (1978). The Impact of Tourism on the Physical Environment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 5(2), 215-237.
- Cohen, E. (1984). The Sociology of Tourism: Approaches, Issues, and Findings. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 10:373-392. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.so.10.080184.002105>.
- Cook, R. A., Yale, L. J. and Marqua, J. J. (2010). *Tourism: The Business of Travel*. London: Pearson.
- Din, K. H. (1982). Tourism in Malaysia competing needs in a plural society. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9(3), 453-480.
- Dredge, D. and Jenkins, J. M. (2007). Introduction to tourism planning and policy. In D. Dredge and J. M. Jenkins (eds.), *Tourism Policy and Planning*, pp. 1–31. Milton: Wiley & Sons.
- Dye, T. (1972). *Understanding Public Policy*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Easton, D. (1953). *The Political System*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.
- Eber, S. (Ed.) (1992). *Beyond The Green Horizon*. A Discussion paper commissioned from tourism concern by WWF UK. Surreynd: World Wide Fund for Nature.

- Edgell, D. L. S. and Swanson, J. R. (2019). *Tourism Policy and Planning: Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow* (3rd ed.) Oxon: Routledge.
- Elliot, J. (1997). *Tourism: Politics and Public Sector Management*. New York: Routledge.
- Forbes Asia (August, 2023). *New Ways to Explore Thailand, Responsibly*, 19(5), 25. Singapore: FORBES ASIA.
- Ganbold, S. (2023). *Statista: Number of international tourist arrivals in Asia-Pacific region from 2012 to 2021, by subregion*. Retrieved 27th August 2023 from <https://www.statista.com/statistics/261703/international-tourist-arrivals-in-asia-and-the-pacific-by-region/>.
- Gartner, W. C. (1996). *Tourism Development: Principles, Process, and Policies*. New York: John Wiley.
- Glosari Pelancongan (2022). *Glosari Pelancongan* Jilid 2. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa Pustaka.
- Goh, E. (2009). Information Communication Technology. In E. Goh, M. Mansor and N. A. Ramli (eds.) *Integrated Environmental Concepts: Sustainable Development, Environmental Management and Ecological Principles*, pp. 125-134. Pulau Pinang: Universiti Sains Malaysia.
- Gunn, C. A., and Var, T. (2002). *Tourism planning: Basics, concepts, cases*. London: Routledge.
- Hall, C. M. (2000). *Tourism Planning: Policies, Processes and Relationships*. Harlow: Pearson.
- Hall, C. M. (2008). *Tourism Planning: Policies, Processes and Relationships* (2nd ed.) Harlow: Pearson.
- Hall, C. M. (2021). Constructing Sustainable Tourism Development: The 2030 Agenda and the Managerial Ecology of Sustainable Tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(7), 1044-1060.
- Hall, C. M. and Boyd, S. (2005). Nature-based Tourism in Peripheral Areas: Introduction, in C. M. Hall and S. Boyd (eds.) *Nature-Based Tourism in Peripheral Areas: Development or Disaster?*, pp. 3-17. Clevedon, U. K. : Channel View Publications.

- Hamzah, A. (2004). Policy and planning of the tourism industry in Malaysia. *Proceedings of The 6th. ADRF General Meeting Bangkok 2004*, 1-21.
- Harrison, D. (1988). *The Sociology of Modernisation and Development*. London: Routledge.
- Harvey, D. (2005). *Spaces of neoliberalization: towards a theory of uneven geographical development*, 8. Franz Steiner Verlag.
- Haywood, K. M. (1988). Responsible and responsive tourism planning in the community. *Tourism management*, 9(2), 105-118.
- Henderson, J. (2007). *Tourism Crises: Causes, Consequences and Management*. Burlington : Elsevier.
- Hettne, B. (1990). *Development Theory and the Three Worlds*. Harlow: Longman.
- Hills, J. (2013). *Wealth in the UK: distribution, accumulation, and policy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's Consequences*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hudman, L. and Jackson, R. (2003). *Geography of Travel & Tourism* (4th ed.) New York: Thomson.
- Inskeep, E. (1991). *Tourism Planning: An Integrated and Sustainable Development Approach*. Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley.
- Institut Tadbiran Awam Malaysia (1991). *Malaysia Kita*. Kuala Lumpur: INTAN.
- International Air Transport Association (2022). *The Founding of IATA*. Retrieved 1st July 2022 from <https://www.iata.org/en/about/history/>.
- Karegar, M. A., Dixon, T. H. and Malservisi, R. (2015). A three-dimensional surface velocity field for the Mississippi Delta: Implications for coastal restoration and flood potential. *Geology*, 43 (6), 519–522. doi:10.1130/g36598.1.
- Khairil, W. A., Radam, A. and Yaacob, M. R. (2010). *Development of Small Tourism Enterprises in the Peripheral State of Kelantan*. Kuala Lumpur: Universiti Putra Malaysia Press.

- Khairil, W. A., Salleh, M. R. and Nor Khomar, I. (2009). Tourism Facilities and Resource Management: A Conceptual Perspective. In Y. A. Aziz, H. Hassan, W. M. W. Hassan and M. S. Othman (eds.) *Current Issues in Tourism and Hospitality Services in Malaysia*, pp. 73-84. Kuala Lumpur: Universiti Putra Malaysia.
- Klomegah, K. K. (12th February 2023). *Explainer: How Ukrainian War Impacts on Russia's Tourism Industry*. Retrieved 18th September 2023 from <https://moderndiplomacy.eu/2023/02/12/explainer-how-ukrainian-war-impacts-on-russias-tourism-industry/>.
- Kusyuniadi, I. (2018). Policy Implementation Study on Spatial Planning for Environmental Conflict (Study Location: Rembang Regency). *E3S Web of Conference* 31, 09015. <https://doi.org/10.1051/e3sconf/20183109015>.
- Leong, G. C. (1971). *Ilmu Alam Fizikal dan Kemanusiaan* (2nd ed.). Kuala Lumpur: Fajar Bakti.
- Lew, A. A. (1987). A framework of tourist attraction research. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14(4), 553-75.
- Lew, A. (2017). Tourism planning and place making: place-making or placemaking? *Tourism Geographies*, 19(3), 448-466.
- Link BC (2008). *Transforming communities through tourism: a handbook for community tourism champions*. <http://linkbc.ca/siteFiles/85/files/TCTT.pdf>.
- Lusticky, M., Kinci, T. and Musil, M. (2011). Tourism Development Planning in Selected EU Countries. *Management Research and Practice*, 3(1), 48-61.
- Malaysia Investment Development Authority (undated). *Smart Tourism: Future of Tourism in Malaysia*. Retrieved 17th August 2023 from <https://www.mida.gov.my/smart-tourism-future-of-tourism-in-malaysia/>.
- Malaysia National Eco tourism Plan (2016). *Malaysia National Eco tourism Plan 2016-2025*. Kuala Lumpur: Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture of Malaysia.
- Maneenop, S. and Kotcharin, S. (2020). The Impacts of COVID-19 on the global airline industry: An event study approach. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 89. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jairtraman.2020.101920>.

- Marzuki, A., and Hay, I. (2013). Towards a public participation framework in tourism planning. *Tourism Planning and Development*, 10(4), 494-512.
- Mason, K. (2004). Sound and meaning in Aboriginal tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(4), 837-854.
- Mathieson, A. and Wall G. (1982). *Tourism: Economic, Physical and Social Impacts*. Longman: London.
- McCool, S. F. (2013). Limits of Acceptable Change. In A. Holden and D. A. Fennel (eds.) *Routledge Handbook of Tourism and Environment*, pp. 285-298. Oxon: Routledge.
- Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism of Malaysia (2016). *National Ecotourism Plan 2016-2025*. Putrajaya: Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism of Malaysia.
- Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture of Malaysia (2021). *History*. Retrieved 14th September 2023 from <https://www.motac.gov.my/en/profile/history>.
- Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture of Malaysia (undated a). *National Eco Tourism Plan 2016-2025*. Retrieved 18th January 2023 from <https://www.motac.gov.my/en/download/category/86-pelan-eko-pelancongan-kebangsaan-2016-2025>.
- Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture of Malaysia (undated b). *National Tourism Policy, 2020-2030*. Retrieved 18th January 2023 from <https://www.motac.gov.my/en/download/category/114-dasar-pelancongan-negara-dpn-2020-2030>.
- Ministry of Tourism, Government of Jamaica (2018). *Vision & Mission*. Retrieved 13th September 2023 from <https://www.mot.gov.jm/page/our-vision-mission>.
- Ministry of Tourism Malaysia (undated). *Guidelines for Tourist Accommodation Premises Classification*. Kuala Lumpur: Ministry of Tourism Malaysia.
- Ministry of Tourism and Sports Thailand (2017). *The second national tourism development plan (2017–2021)*. Bangkok: Ministry of Tourism and Sports Thailand.
- Mosbah, A., and Saleh, A. A. (2014). A review of tourism development in Malaysia. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 6(5), 1-9.

- Murphy, P.E. (1985). *Tourism: A Community Approach*. New York: Methuen.
- NIKKEI Asia (2023). *NATO prepares for China... And Trump*. Retrieved 15th August 2023 from <https://asia.nikkei.com/Business/Automobiles/Tesla-becomes-latest-EV-company-to-see-promise-in-Malaysia>.
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (1981a). *The Impact of Tourism on the Environment*. Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (1981b). *Case Studies of the Impact of Tourism on the Environment*. Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.
- Pawłowska-Legwand, A., and Matoga, Ł. (2016). Staycation as a way of spending free time by city dwellers: examples of tourism products created by Local Action Groups in Lesser Poland Voivodeship in response to a new trend in tourism. *World Scientific News*, 51.
- Pearce, D. (1997). *Tourist Development*. Harlow: Longman
- Pearce, D. G. (1989). International and domestic tourism: Interfaces and issues. *GeoJournal*, 19, 257-262.
- Pleumarom, A. (2009). Asian Tourism: Green and Responsible? In D. Leslie (ed.) *Tourism Enterprises and Sustainable Development*, pp. 36-54. New York: Routledge.
- Porter, M. (1980). *Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analyzing Industries and Competitor*. New York: The Free Press.
- Potter, A. F. (1978). *The Methodology of Impact Analysis*. *Town and Country Planning*, 46(9), 400-4.
- Prasongthan, S. and Silpsrikul, R. (2023). The Connection of Slow Food Principle with Community-Based Tourism In Thailand: Investigating Generation Y Perception. *Geo Journal of Tourism and Geosites*, 48, 709-716.
- Ramli, N. A. and Halip, A. (2009). Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA), in E. Goh, M. Mansor and N. A. Ramli (eds.) *Integrated Environmental Concepts: Sustainable Development, Environmental Management and Ecological Principles*, pp. 151-172. Pulau Pinang: Universiti Sains Malaysia.

- Rashid, I. M., Samah, I. H. A., Husain, W. A. F. W., Mansor, M. F., and Hassan, S. (2020). Adopting New Heritage Model for Ecotourism Plan in National Key Economic Areas to Improve Tourism Sector Performance in Malaysia. *Journal of Environmental Management & Tourism*, 11(1 (41)), 167-172.
- Reisinger, Y. and Turner, L. W. (2002). *Cross-Cultural Behaviour in Tourism: Concepts and Analysis*. Burlington, MA: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Ross, J. A., Rich, M., Molzan, J. P., and Pensak, M. (1988). *Family planning and child survival: 100 developing countries*. Columbia University: Center for Population and Family Health.
- Sarkawi, A. A. and Abdullah, A. (Eds.) (2008). *Urban Planning: An Islamic Perspective*. Shah Alam: Arah Publications.
- Schmidt, H. (1989). What Makes Development. *Development and Cooperation*, 6, 19-26.
- Selin, N. E. (2010). *Carbon footprint*. Retrieved 14th August 2023 from <https://www.britannica.com/science/carbon-footprint>.
- Sharma, S. (2009). The great American staycation and the risk of stillness. *M/C Journal*, 12(1). <https://doi.org/10.5204/mcj.122>.
- Sharpley, R. (2002). Tourism: A Vehicle for Development? In R. Sharpley and D. J. Telfer (eds.), *Tourism and Development: Concepts and Issues*, pp. 11-34. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Shaw, S. (2006). Legal and policy perspectives on transition assessment and documentation. *Career Development for Exceptional Individuals*, 29(2), 108-113.
- Shofirun, S., Mohamad, J., Yusoff, M. M. and Sulaiman, N. (2015). Land Use Changes and Potential Conflicts in Sungai Selangor Watershed, in J. Mohamad and H. C. Goh (eds.) *Land Use Dynamics and Governance in the Sungai Selangor Watershed*, pp. 53-69. Kuala Lumpur: Universiti of Malaya Press.
- Smith, A. D. (2020). Digital Marketing and E-Tailing Technological Innovations, in Mkrttchian, V., Gamidullaeva, L. and Aleshina, E. (eds.) *Avatar-Based Models, Tools, and Innovation in the Digital economy*, pp. 37-65. Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

- Stankey, G. H., Cole, D. N., Lucas, R. C., Petersen, M. E. and Frissell, S. S. J. (1985). *The Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC) System for Wilderness Planning*. USDA Forest Service General Technical Report INT-176.
- Stewart, E. J., Wilson, J., Espiner, S., Purdie, H. Lemieux, C. and Dawson, J. (2016). Implications of climate change for glacier tourism. *Tourism Geographies*, 18(4), 77-398.
- Stojanovska-Stefanova, A. and Drasko, A. (2018). *UN goal: Sustainable Tourism as a key contributor for sustainable development in developing countries*. First International Scientific Conference, ISCTBL, Faculty of Tourism and Business Logistics, Gevgelija, Macedonia, 3(2), 152-161.
- Sustainable Tourism Laboratory (undated). *Resident Sentiment Survey*. Retrieved 9th October 2023 from <https://osucascades.edu/sustainable-tourism-lab/projects/resident-sentiment-survey>.
- Sustainable Tourism Planning & Development Laboratory (undated). *What is Sustainable Tourism and Geotourism*. Retrieved 10th October 2023 from <https://www.sustainabletourismlab.com>.
- Tang, Z., Bai, S., Shi, C., Liu, L., and Li, X. (2018). Tourism-related CO2 emission and its decoupling effects in China: A spatiotemporal perspective. *Advances in Meteorology*, 2018, 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/1473184>.
- The Center for Disaster Philanthropy (2023). *2023 Turkey-Syria Earthquake*. Retrieved 16th August 2023 from <https://disasterphilanthropy.org/disasters/2023-turkey-syria-earthquake/>.
- The Edge (29th October, 2021). *Sharp GDP drop on labour shortage as Malaysia relies heavily on foreign workers — MoF*. Retrieved 28th August 2023 from <https://theedgemalaysia.com/article/sharp-gdp-drop-labour-shortage-malaysia-relies-heavily-foreign-workers-%E2%80%94-mof>.
- The Encyclopedia of World Problems (undated). *Advocating responsible tourism: Global Strategies and Solution*. Retrieved 8th September 2023 from <http://encyclopedia.uia.org>.
- The European Capital of Smart Tourism (undated). *Gothenburg: 2020 European Capital of Smart Tourism*. Retrieved 20th July, 2023 from <https://smarttourismcapital.eu/cities-2020-winners/>.

- Telfer, D. J. (2002). The Evolution of Tourism and Development Theory, in R. Sharpley and D. J. Telfer (eds.). *Tourism and Development: Concepts and Issues*, pp. 35-78. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Telfer, D. J. and Sharpley, R. (2008). *Tourism and Development in the Developing World*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Timothy, D. J. (1999). Participatory planning. A view of tourism in Indonesia. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(2), 371-391.
- Tosun, C. (2006). Expected nature of community participation in tourism development. *Tourism Management*, 27(3), 493-504.
- Tourism Malaysia (2022). *Tourism Malaysia Strategic Plan 2022-2026*. Putrajaya: Tourism Malaysia.
- Tourism Malaysia (2023a). *Tourism Malaysia Kicks off Its 2023 Sales Mission and Roadshow to People's Republic of China*. Retrieved 4th June 2023 from <https://www.tourism.gov.my/media/view/tourism-malaysia-kicks-off-its-2023-sales-mission-and-roadshow-to-people-s-republic-of-china>.
- Tourism Malaysia (2023b). *Malaysia Tourism Statistics in Brief*. Retrieved 1st September 2023 from <https://www.tourism.gov.my/statistics>.
- Tourism South Australia (1991). *Making South Australia Special: South Australian Tourism Plan 1991-1993*. Adelaide: Tourism South Australia.
- Town and Country Act Planning 1976 (1976). *Laws of Malaysia: Act 172. Incorporating all amendments up to 1 January 2006*. Kuala Lumpur: The Commissioner of Law Revision, Malaysia.
- Toye, J. (1993). *Dilemmas of Development: Reflections on the Counter-Revolution in Development Economics* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Trip.com Singapore (2023). *Singapore's Vaccinated Travel Lane (VTL) Replaced By Vaccinated Travel Framework (VTF)*. Retrieved 3rd September 2023 from <https://sg.trip.com/guide/info/vaccinated-travel-lane.html>.
- United Nations (2022a). *Sustainable Tourism*. Retrieved 2nd February 2023 from <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/topics/sustainabletourism>.

- United Nations (2022b). *Agenda 21*. Retrieved 10th October 2022 from <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/outcomedocuments/agenda21>.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (undated). *Case Study: Angkor and The Tourism Development Strategic Plan 2012–2020*. Retrieved 20th March 2023 from <https://whc.unesco.org/en/sustainabletourismtoolkit/guide2/angkor>.
- United Nations Environment Programme (2002). *Environmental Impact Assessment Training Resource Manual (2nd ed.)*. Real Madrid: United Nations Environment Programme Publisher.
- United Nations Population Fund Cambodia (2014). *The National Strategic Development Plan Cambodia, 2014 – 2018*. Retrieved 13th March 2023 from <https://cambodia.unfpa.org/en/publications/national-strategic-development-plan-2014-2018>.
- United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development (1987). *Our Common Future*. New York: UNWCED.
- United Nations World Tourism Organization (undated). *Sustainable Development. Department of Economic and Social Affairs*. Retrieved 15th September 2022 from <https://sdgs.un.org/un-system-sdg-implementation/united-nations-department-economic-and-social-affairs-undesa-24529>.
- United Nations World Tourism Organization (2017). *UNWTO Tourism Highlights 2017 Edition*. Madrid: World Tourism Organization.
- United Nations World Tourism Organisation (1995). *What Tourism Managers Need to Know: A Practical Guide to the Development and use of Indicators of Sustainable Tourism*. Madrid: UNWTO Publications.
- Urry, J. (1990). *The Tourist Gaze: Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies*. London: Sage.
- Wathern, P. (1988). *Environmental Impact Assessment: Theory and Practice*. London: Routledge.
- Wattanacharoensil, W., and Schuckert, M. (2016). Reviewing Thailand's master plans and policies: implications for creative tourism?. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(10), 1045-1070.

- West, J. (2018). Neologisms: semiotic deconstruction of the new words “lizardy,” “staycation,” and “wannarexia” as peircean indexes of culture. In M. Danesi (ed.), *Empirical Research on Semiotics and Visual Rhetoric*, pp. 193-204. Hershey, PA: IGI Global.
- Wilson, A. R. (2013). *Situating intersectionality: Politics, policy, and power*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Wirudchawong, N. (2012). Policy on community tourism development in Thailand. *Journal of Ritsumeikan Social Sciences and Humanities*, 4(2), 13-26.
- World Bank (2022). *Natural Environment, World Development Indicators*. Retrieved 10th November 2022 from <http://data.worldbank.org/topic/environment>.
- World Health Organization (2020). *Archived: WHO Timeline – COVID-19*. Retrieved 7th July 2023 from <https://www.who.int/news/item/27-04-2020-who-timeline---covid-19>.
- World Tourism Organization (1980). *Physical Planning and Area Development for Tourism in the Six WTO Regions, 1980*. Madrid: World Tourism Organization.
- World Wide Fund for Nature Malaysia (1996). *The Malaysian National Ecotourism Plan; a study prepared for the Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism, Government of Malaysia*. Petaling Jaya: World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) Malaysia.