TOURISM EXPERTS' AND RESIDENTS' ATTITUDES, PERCEPTION AND SUPPORT FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT – A CASE STUDY OF BANGKOK, THAILAND

by

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ABSTRACT

The globalization paradigm accelerates competition in all markets, especially in the tourism industry. Destinations must be able to compete in a sustainable fashion in their markets. Otherwise, they will suffer a decline in tourists. These destinations could be better prepared for market competition and sustainability if they became aware of the importance of tourism stakeholders' attitudes and support for sustainable tourism development. Not taking into account these factors could lead tourist destinations to become unsustainable and to a decline in visits.

Consequently, this study introduces a structural model that explores the key actors of tourism stakeholders' (tourism experts and residents) attitude towards sustainable tourism developments and to what extent tourism stakeholders interface with destination sustainability strategies. Findings from 432 residents and 416 tourism experts-respondents from Bangkok, Thailand were analyzed.

Utilizing LISREL (Linear Structural Equations), a confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling procedure were performed successively on the collected data. The results show that the community benefits of tourism perceived by both tourism experts and residents in an urban area have a direct and positive relationship to support for tourism development.

However, the perceived negative impact of tourism has a negative effect on resident support for tourism attraction development, but not on that of tourism experts. The results also show that tourism expert and resident support for tourism attraction development has a significant positive relation to their support for destination sustainability strategies.

Furthermore, two other hypotheses based on "sustainability attitudes", "perceived positive impact of tourism", and "support for tourism attraction development" show similar results when the two groups, tourism experts and residents, are compared.
Concerning relationships, "sense of community" has a significant positive relationship to "perceived positive impact of tourism" in both tourism stakeholder groups. Additionally, "sense of community" has a significant negative relationship to "perceived negative impact of tourism" in residents, but not in the tourism experts group.

Moreover, one new relationship was added in the final model to better capture both tourism experts and residents' attitudes in urban tourist destinations. This additional relationship indicated that tourism stakeholders, who have attitudes toward sustainability, are likely to support enhancement strategies for destination sustainability.

From these findings, policy-makers need to recognize that sustainability attitudes (e.g. socio-environment, long term planning, and community participation) and sense of community will enhance the development of tourism attraction and destination sustainability strategies. Furthermore, they should give due consideration that destination sustainability strategies may be associated with good management of tourism destination organizations, upgrading of information technology, development of service facilities, expansion of creative marketing efforts and activities, and enhancing sustainable management and practices. To promote tourism attraction of Bangkok, tourism strategies should also include hosting seasonal cultural and folk events, sports and outdoor recreation facilities and activities, offering Meeting, Incentives, Conventions, and Exhibitions (MICE) programs, and supporting tourist services (e.g. hotels, restaurants, shopping centers, and souvenir shops).

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Tourism has become a leading source of foreign exchange earnings for countries around the globe. The unprecedented growth of this industry is related to an increase in cheap international flights, an increase in personal income and leisure time, the excitement of new and different locales, advances in information and communication technology, the attraction of rest and relaxation time away from home, and the globalization of capitalism. Hotel and luxury development, as well as aggressive advertising campaigns by members of the tourism industry and host countries, has also increased awareness of numerous travel possibilities, which has, in turn, created greater demand. According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), world tourism receipts amounted to US$856 billion in 2007. Tourist arrivals reached 903 million and the WTO forecasts this number will reach 1 billion in 2010 and 1.6 billion in 2020. The tourism industry is often considered a "Golden Goose", ranking as one of three major income generators in many countries around the World (Smith, 1999).

Because the tourism industry can benefit each of its destinations, every destination attempts to improve its competitive advantage over others. However, Oppermann and Chon (1997) state that tourism has many facets and apparently generates as much criticism as praise: "tourism as an economic development agent, a job generator, and a white industry, but also tourism as a black industry and a destructive force". Thus, a lack of planning and uncontrolled development at destination points has the potential to create severe problems and unsustainable tourism in the future. The World Tourism Organization (WTO) (1998) proposed several keys to success for sustained growth in communities and ultimately concluded that strategies for economic growth must originate and be directed from within the community to be successful. A commonly cited objective for understanding community opinions is that without community support, it is difficult to develop sustainable tourism in a community.

In Thailand, tourism has been promoted as a major generator of national income for the country. In 2007, the tourism industry in Thailand is expected to generate approximately US$15.9 billion dollars of income, equivalent to about 6.7 % of the country's GDP (World Tourism and Travel Council (WTTC), 2007). However, despite its significant contribution to the country's economic development, Thailand is now suffering from the negative effects of uncontrolled tourism (e.g. social, cultural and environmental degradation), and this has moved the Thai government to take concrete steps towards establishing sustainable tourism development (STD).

In order to protect and sustain a country's tourism industry for the future, ecological, cultural, and social impacts have to be minimized, while benefits to environmental conservation and local communities should grow (UNEP, 2003). As a result, the Thai Government is devoting more thought to sustainable tourism development. As can be seen from the 8th to the 9th National Economics and Social Development Plan, tourism development in Thailand has shifted toward emphasizing the issues of sustainable tourism development, and the promotion of cooperation between the private sector and government agencies. Attention is also being given to the views and participation of local authorities and residents in the monitoring and management of tourism development. In addition, in 2005, the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) established an objective to re-position and build a foundation for a sustainable and competitive tourism industry in Thailand by dividing it into major attractions and three groups of alternative destinations.

Bangkok is one of the major attractive destinations. The city has become the heart of a foreign tourist experience in the view of large numbers of visitors due to its diverse attractions and facilities, as well as being a hub of aviation, and many other factors. In 2007, about 35.9 million visitors traveled to Bangkok, of which 11.63 million were foreigners and 24.33 million were Thais. As a result, the tourism industry in Bangkok is expected to generate approximately Baht 333,411 million in revenue.

With intense competition among destinations and in order to achieve sustainable tourism development (STD), including the city of Bangkok, community support is needed (Choi and Sirakaya, 2005). Crouch and Ritchie (2000) argued that "the most competitive destination is one that brings about the greatest success, that is, the most well-being for its residents on a sustainable basis. They go on to warn that, "Competitiveness is illusory without sustainability".

Thus, understanding the extent to which tourism stakeholders actively interface with tourism developments is crucial for governments, policy makers, and businesses as one of many tools for enhancing destination competitiveness from the perspective of sustainability. In other words, it is essential to understand how the needs and desires of the tourism stakeholder, particularly residents and tourism experts, are met so that their support is sustained.

The basic assumption of this study is that the support of tourism stakeholders is necessary for STD. If tourism stakeholders express high sustainability attitudes, recognize a high sense of community, and perceive high positive and low negative tourism development impacts, they will support more tourism attraction development and destination sustainability strategies. The support of destination attraction and destination sustainability strategies by tourism stakeholders can boost the possibility of successful tourism in destinations and could help to improve destination sustainability. Accordingly, tourism destination communities will receive more economic, social, cultural and environmental benefits from enhanced sustainable tourism development. Tourists will also receive more satisfaction from their travel experience if the tourism destination and attractions are properly developed and promoted.

1.2 Problem Statement

The free trade agreements and globalization paradigm accelerate competition in all markets, especially in the tourism industry. Destinations or countries must be able to compete in a sustainable fashion in their markets. Otherwise, they will suffer a decline in tourists. These destinations could be better prepared for market competition and sustainability if they became aware of the importance of tourism stakeholders' attitudes and support for sustainable tourism development (STD). Not taking into account these factors could lead tourist destinations to a decline in visits.

As tourism stakeholders have different goals toward sustainable tourism, consensus building becomes a challenging process in STD policymaking. Therefore, this study posts its research question as "How can to be sustainability in tourism development be achieved when taking into account key tourism stakeholders' (tourism experts and residents) attitudes, perception and support?"

1.3 Rationale of the study

Tourism has become one of the main industries identified as having the potential to assist local communities in developing stronger economic diversity (Hassan, 2000). However, for tourism development to be successful, it must be planned and managed

responsibly (Long, Perdue and Allen, 1990). Gunn (1994) stated that tourism involves all of a destination city's stakeholders who compete for goods, services and resources, and at the same time generating congestion and pollution. The very nature of tourism warrants involvement of multiple stakeholder groups. With multiple groups, the potential for conflict always exists. To assist in averting or resolving these conflicts, a plan or process must be developed. Gunn also suggests that "the success and implementation of a tourism development plan is often based on the support of citizens, entrepreneurs, and community leaders".

At present, it may be said that the central idea of tourism development planning is the concept of sustainability. "Communities that use or plan to use tourism as an economic development tool to diversify their economy must develop policies for STD" (Byrd, Cárdenas, and Greenwood, 2008) Flagestad and Hope (2001) argue that sustaining competitiveness in a destination implies sustainable tourism development (where not only ecology of natural surroundings, but also social structure, culture, and the heritage are all included). The pursuit of the sustainable tourism development goal is linked to strategic planning and development. The concept of STD is broad and infers that tourism is long-term, integrated, participatory, and environmentally, socially, culturally and economically compatible. Goeldner and Ritchie (2003) give a good definition the main goal of a tourism policy from an STD perspective as "one that provides high-quality visitor experiences that can maximize the benefits to destination stakeholders without comprising the environmental, social, or cultural integrity of a destination. Thus, it could be argued that achieving this goal would depend on the extent to which tourism destinations manage to integrate these major perspectives and diverse stakeholders".

Consequently, in order to achieve STD, community support is needed (Choi and Sirakaya, 2005). The Brundtland Commission report indicated that "the law alone cannot enforce the common interest. It principally needs community knowledge and support which entails greater public participation" (WCED, 1987). Understanding the extent to which people in a community actively interface with tourism developments is crucial for governments, policy makers, and businesses. Thus, it is necessary to comprehend how the needs and desires of people in a community are met such that their support is sustained. This is why tourism stakeholders' attitudes in a community continue to be of considerable interest to researchers, especially in the field of STD, and this is the focus of this study.

However, most studies on tourism stakeholders, especially residents' attitudes, have focused on rural areas in developed countries such as the USA (Gursoy, Jurowski, and Uysal, 2002; Andereck, Valentine, Knopf and Vogt, 2005), Europe (Lindberg, Andersson and Dellaert, 2001), Australia (Fredline and Faulkner, 2000), while similar studies in urban areas are limited (Lee, Li and Kim, 2007). Further, a good portion of research activities on STD focuses on the natural environment and protected areas despite the fact that most tourists travel in cities and urban areas (WTO Statistics, 1999, cited in Dodds and Joppe, 2003). Hinch (1996) asserted that initiatives on sustainable tourism contextualized in urban locations are as important as those that are undertaken in rural areas. Hinch defined sustainable urban tourism as "the maintenance of the features of the community to facilitate the preservation of the different dimensions of the urban environment - built, natural, and cultural". In essence, this implies consideration not only of 'green issues', but also the protection of non-ecological resources such as historical landscapes, ancestral buildings, and cultural sites. Therefore, studying STD in urban areas seems to be a challenging research issue.

Moreover, although a number of the existing tourism studies have been performed by asking only residents about their perception toward tourism development, it can be argued that there are various levels of support for STD within a community. Particularly,

tourism experts' attitudes about the influencing factors of the tourism planning and decision-making process, including sustainability attitudes, sense of community, and perceived positive and negative tourism development impacts, have not been thoroughly studied, and have become a challenging research topic. It may be said that understanding tourism stakeholders (residents and tourism experts) and their concerns about STD assists policy makers with their deliberations and future planning. Discovering the attitude, perception, and support for STD that tourism experts have about a community is significant for a tourist destination in terms of planning and marketing itself successfully. Furthermore, if residents' attitudes, perception and support for STD coincide with tourism experts concerning what steps the destination has to take, sustainable tourism development is possible. Therefore, this study proposes to advance a development paradigm by investigating the conflict and congruency relationship in attitudes, perception and support for STD between residents and tourism experts.

After a review of tourism literature, it can be seen that (notwithstanding studies on community perceptions and attitudes toward tourism development that have been conducted from various perspectives) the dynamic and complex natures of the factors of destination, especially tourism stakeholders' attitudes, perception, and support for sustainable tourism development, including support for tourism attractiveness development and support for destination sustainability strategies, have not, as yet, been clearly addressed. In general, most of the existing tourism research has been conducted by asking local people in a community about their positive or negative attitudes toward tourism (Perdue, Long, and Allen, 1987; Yoon, Gursoy, and Chen, 2001; Teye, Sonmez, and Sriakaya, 2002, Yoon 2002). As suggested by many studies (Dwyer, Forsyth and Rao, 2000; Mihalič, 2000; Ritchie and Crouch, 2003), Destination sustainability can be enhanced by the proper matches between tourism attractions and the enhancement policies of destination sustainability. Thus, understanding tourism experts and residents' attitudes, perception and support for STD, especially including support for tourism attraction development and support for destination sustainability strategies can be considered important parts of the planning process for sustainability and important indicators for the successful development of tourism destinations.

While a number of studies have attempted to measure resident attitudes toward tourism using different methodologies such as cluster analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA), multiple regression, factor analysis, or structural equation modeling (SEM), very few studies have dealt in any depth with understanding tourism experts and residents' attitudes within an STD framework using SEM. Structural equation modeling (SEM) is a technique for simultaneously estimating the relationships between observed and latent variables (the measurement model), and the relationships among latent variables (the structural model). As the use of SEM in resolving complex issues in social science fields has soared in popularity over the past decade, the use of SEM in this study to examine tourism experts and residents' attitudes, perception and their support for STD is a significant tool for improving research quality.

Bearing in mind the above discussion, this study examines the similarities or dissimilarities of relationships between tourism experts' and residents' attitudes, perception, and support for STD. Support for STD in this study is much more specifically defined–concerning level of acceptability of types of tourism attraction and destination sustainability strategies-than it has been in the past. The attitudes of tourism experts and residents of Bangkok, the capital city of Thailand and an urban area, will be the focus of this study.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study areas are as follows:

- To develop hypothetical models that will show the causal effects of various factors affecting key urban tourism stakeholders' (tourism experts and residents) support for sustainable tourism development
- To test and refine the proposed hypothetical model
- To evaluate the direction of these causal effects between key tourism stakeholders' (tourism experts and residents) efforts towards STD
- To provide policy recommendations to tourism and hospitality policy-makers

1.5 Organization of the study

This chapter introduces the introduction of the study, and the research problems and questions upon which the study is based. The rationale of the study is discussed. The hypotheses and research objectives are defined. A description of the model to be tested in this study is presented. Operational terminologies and concepts for this study are defined, as well.

The second chapter reviews the literature relevant to sustainable tourism development and each of the series of proposed constructs. The theoretical background and previous conceptual and empirical research findings are discussed. The third chapter presents the conceptual framework that is developed for evaluating the relationship between various factors on tourism stakeholders' perceptions of tourism impact and also shows how these perceptions affect their attitudes in the context of sustainable tourism development. The fourth chapter presents the research methodology used in this study to empirically test the research hypotheses.

The fifth chapter describes key characteristics of the tourism stakeholders (tourism experts and residents). The assessment and refinement of the measurement scales which is used for testing the hypothetical model in the next chapter are also explained. The sixth chapter provides a test of hypotheses and a discussion of the results. Finally, the seventh chapter summarizes the findings and draws the contributions and implications of the study.

1.6 Definition of Terms

For better readability, this section presents the definitions of key terms used in this study. More details on the conceptualization as well as explanations of these terms will be presented in Chapter 2.

Sustainability attitude: The degree to which people hold beliefs and attitudes about the relationship between citizens and sustainable tourism development as judged explicitly by three sustainability criteria: socio-environmental impact of tourism, long-term planning, and community participation.

Sense of Community: This phrase refers to a special attachment between people and their social surroundings. This concept should be included as "person-environment congruence, attachment and social interaction, and social support and social networks with understanding of people's connectedness to the geographical boundaries of a community" (Davidson and Cotter, 1986)

Tourism Attraction: The various types of tourism products and services that tourism destinations provide to tourists.

Destination sustainability strategies: The destination's ability and strategies to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitors while providing them with satisfaction and doing so in a profitable way, as well as enhancing the well-being of the destination host and pre-serving the natural capital, environmental, social, and cultural integrity of the destination for future generations.

Tourism Development Impacts: These refer to a complex process of interchanges between tourists, host communities, and destinations.

Tourism Stakeholder: any group or individual who can affect or be affected by the tourism industry within a particular community and who has interests in the planning, process, delivery, and/or outcomes of the tourism industry.

Tourism Expert: refers to any group or individual who directly works in the tourism industry within a particular community and who has thorough knowledge of tourism destination strategies and planning, management efficiency and tourism attractors, and who also participates in the planning, process, delivery, and/or outcomes of the tourism industry. Usual examples of tourism experts include tourism government officers, tourism associations, tourism operators, tourist guides, tourism business owners, and tourism-related teaching professionals.

Sustainable tourism development policy: A policy that provides high-quality visitor experiences that can maximize the benefits to destination stakeholders without compromising the environmental, social, and cultural integrity of a destination.

CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature relevant to the study of tourism destination sustainability. First, a review of relevant concepts of sustainable tourism development (STD), including: contemporary thought on sustainable development, sustainable development and sustainable tourism, principles of STD, STD and the evolution of tourism planning thought, and STD in urban areas are provided. The discussion of these concepts serves as the research background for the research questions and the study objectives. The next section provides a review of the theory to be employed in this study, i.e., the social exchange theory. A discussion of the linkage between the theoretical background and the components of the hypothetical model in this study is then presented. Subsequently, the relevant field research that pertains to the hypothetical model will be discussed. In particular, these sections are devoted to the development of a hypothetical model for tourism destination sustainability, and address the basis for the relationships among constructs to be tested in this study.

2.2 Review of Relevant Concepts

2.2.1 Contemporary thought on sustainable development

"The primary goal of sustainable development is to meet the basic needs of society and extend the opportunity for a higher quality of life" (WCED, 1987). To achieve this goal, the economic system must be able to produce a continuous source of surplus and a source of technical knowledge. There must also be a social structure that facilitates the resolution of conflicts. As important as the previous two are for achieving sustainability, the environment have to be protected. Sustainable development is dynamic, flexible and adaptable.

It may be argued that the idea of sustainable development has evolved from a strictly environmental concept to a concept that incorporates the issue of equity of access to the natural resources. This equity of access creates human well-being and distributes costs and benefits (social, cultural, environmental, and economic).

Crucial to sustainable development is the inclusion of stakeholders throughout the process (Carter and Darlow, 1997). "Sustainable development will not be successful unless stakeholders are allowed to participate in the decision-making process" (Hunt and Haider, 2001). Increased public involvement can facilitate equity in resource allocations (WCED, 1987).

Consequently, multiple authors and organizations have developed definitions and descriptions for sustainable development. These include general definitions of sustainable development as well as industry specific definitions.

Butler (cited in Nelson, 1993) proposed the definition of sustainable development in the context of tourism as:

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

Many other industries, as well, such as forestry and agriculture, also developed definitions which related to sustainable tourism. For example, in forestry, sustainable development is defined as "a process of innovation in forest use and management that arises in response to social, economic, ecological, and cultural conditions that exist for a given forest at any point in time" (Jenkins and Smith, 1999). Sustainable agriculture has been defined as "an integrated system of agricultural production so that economic benefits are maintained while the environmental resources (land, water, and genetic) are protected and the social needs of the community are met" (Liu and Fu, 2000). The variety of definitions and the usage of sustainable concepts have caused sustainability to develop into an unclear idea whose definition and methods of conducting measurements lack general consensus (Murphy, 1998; Phillis and Andriantiatsaholiniaina, 2001). Furthering this idea, Robson and Robson (1996) considered sustainability to be an impossible term. They argued that "true sustainability cannot be obtained because any change in the environment or society will impact future generations' use of the resources" (Robson and Robson , 1996). Although tourism has the possibility to become an agent of development, due to the way it requires resources, it should not be considered as an environmentally harmless industry as such. Therefore, only with careful planning does it have the potential to operate and contribute in a sustainable manner.

In sum, even though sustainable development can be considered a relatively imprecise concept, it has achieved wide use as a policy objective that integrates environmental and developmental concerns (Alipour, 1996). The current management and planning structure for sustainability, however, is trial and error, rather than using specific knowledge and prediction to establish sustainable policy (Phillis and Andriantiatsaholiniaina, 2001).

2.2.2 Sustainable development and sustainable tourism

Sustainable development was identified as a global issue by the WCED. The WCED (1987) indicated the need for all industries to develop practices and principles based on sustainable development ideals. Tourism must be involved if sustainable development is to be successful.

Wide-ranging and intensive discussion on the sustainable principle has been an area of great tension between market-led activity and green strategies. The sustainable principle has been one of the main challenges of recent times. Tourism activity requires the continuing application of the sustainable principle to ensure the sustainability of tourism development.

Tourism planners, managers, and scholars have generated the terminology and principles of sustainable tourism and sustainable development from varying experiences. Meanwhile, the World Tourism Organization (WTO), along with many researchers (Manning and Dougherty, 2000; Murphy, 1998; Hassan, 2000) recognized the importance of sustainable development to the tourism industry and that many of the tourism concepts that were being discussed in the 1970s and 1980s were related to the idea of sustainable development. Tourism has the ability to impact, both positively and negatively, multiple facets of a community. Therefore, to maximize the benefits while minimizing the costs, tourism must be developed in a sustainable manner. Manning and Dougherty (2000) affirmed that maximizing the benefits while minimizing the costs is important for sustainable and competitive tourism.

Understanding the need to incorporate sustainable concepts into tourism development, many authors have attempted to delineate or describe sustainable tourism (Swarbrooke, 1999; Alipour, 1996; Garrod and Fyall, 1998; Hunter, 1995), but there is not

a generally accepted meaning. The World Tourism Organization (WTO) (1998) developed the most accepted definition, which stated that "sustainable tourism was development that met the current needs of the stakeholders, while also protecting the resources for use in the future". The resources include those that are social, economical, and environmental. Another definition for sustainable tourism is: "Sustainable tourism development is aimed at protecting and enhancing the environment, meeting basic human needs, promoting current and intergenerational equity and improving the quality of life of all people."(Inskeep, 1991).

As generally defined, STD may be divided into three dimensions: the environmental dimensions (natural and built), the economic dimensions (community and business), and the social dimensions (host and visitor) (Swarbrooke, 1999, as shown in Figure 2.1)

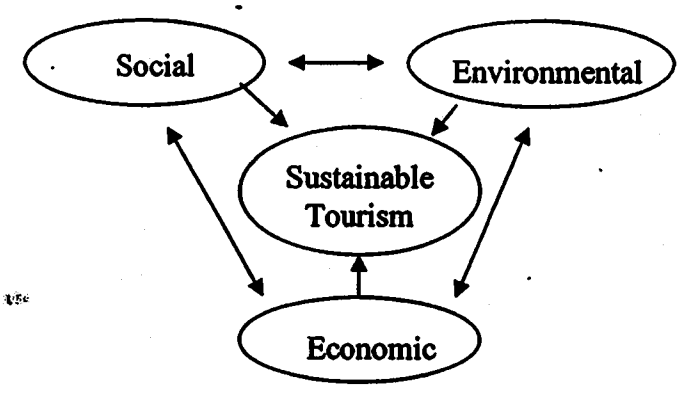

Figure 2.1 Dimensions of Sustainable Tourism and Relationship

The concept of sustainable tourism has gone through a multi-staged evolutionary process. There has been a distinct evolution in the way sustainable tourism has been described (Clarke, 1997). Sustainable tourism was first described as the polar opposite to mass tourism. Within this approach, sustainable tourism was seen to have opposing characteristics when compared to mass tourism. Sustainable tourism operates on a small scale, while mass tourism operates on a large, unsustainable scale (Clarke, 1997; Hardy and Beeton, 2001; Swarbooke, 1999).

The opposing view has changed into a field of tourism types where tourism could also change from one concept into another. No longer were sustainable tourism and mass tourism viewed as opposing concepts. The current concept of sustainable tourism has developed to include the idea that mass tourism could be made more sustainable through positive actions. This concept was supported by the Center for Environmental Design Research and Outreach (CEDRO) at the University of Calgary. CEDRO emphasized that sustainable tourism is more than just eco-tourism, green tourism, or alternative tourism. It is more than just a business, but part of the social and environment field.

Sustainability, therefore, is seen as a goal rather than as a definable end-point. As a result, operationalization of the current knowledge became the focus, and codes of practice and guidelines were introduced. Furthermore, sustainable tourism was also viewed as a goal which is related to all types of tourism regardless of scale.

2.2.3 Principles of sustainable tourism development (STD)

As tourism professionals began to incorporate sustainable development into their planning of tourism products, marketing programs, and delivering guest services, multiple

goals and principles were developed. Like the multiple definitions of sustainable tourism, the principles are based on the views and emphases of individual authors.

UNESCAP (2000) has also listed 18 principles of sustainable tourism development for those who wish to be guided by the ethics of sustainable and responsible tourism. The principles include:

1. Community involvement in development and implementation of tourism activities
2. Stakeholders' input on tourism activities
3. Ensuring quality employment
4. Generating tourism benefits that are equally distributed among stakeholders at the tourism destination
5. Providing intergenerational equity
6. Having long-term vision/horizon concerning tourism activities
7. Harmonization among the needs of visitors, the place, and the community
8. Linking with a broader set of initiatives and economic plans
9. Strong coordination among stakeholders
10. Cooperation among attractions, business, and tourism operators
11. Conducting impact assessments of tourism development proposals
12. Producing practical guidelines that contain indicators and threshold limits for whole levels of stakeholders
13. Avoiding the traditional growth-oriented model of tourism planning
14. Setting-up appropriate education and training programs
15. Providing satisfying quality tourism experiences
16. Reflecting the limits of acceptable use of resources
17. Ensuring the maintenance and enhancement of heritage and natural resources
18. Providing sustainable tourism marketing by the provision of high quality tourist experiences

All the above are seen as difficult to implement at the same time. However, as presented by UNESCAP (2000), these principles should be an integral part of tourism planning and a target of tourism activities. Furthermore, STD has also been studied comprehensively by several other researchers such as Alipour (1996), Garrod and Fyall (1998), Swarbrooke, (1999), Markwick (2000), Tosun (2001), Vincent and Thompson (2002), and Sharpley and Telfer (2002), as shown in Table 2.1, where some principles of STD which focus on management of a community's resources in order to meet economic well-being, preserve resources, insure equity in the distribution of costs and benefits, secure self-sufficiency, and also satisfy the needs of the visitors are presented.

Table 2.1 Principles of Sustainable Tourism Development

Author	Principles/ Meaning
Alipour (1996); Garrod and Fyall (1998) WTO (1998)	All resources, natural, historic and cultural, should benefit the present community while being preserved for future generations.
Alipour (1996); WTO (1998)	Development should be conducted so that the negative impacts and externalities to the environment, community, and visitor are minimized.
Alipour (1996)	Visitor satisfaction should be maintained or enhanced.
Garrod and Fyall, (1998); Markwick	Development initiatives in a community should consider the interests of all stakeholder groups.

(2000); Swarbrooke (1999); Vincent and Thompson (2002)	
Garrod and Fyall, (1998); Sharpley and Telfer (2002)	Research should be undertaken through all stages of tourism development to monitor impacts, solve problems, allow stakeholders to react to adjust.

Recently, the WTO (1998) described the latest concept of the sustainable development of tourism in this way:

"The sustainability principle refers to environmental, economic, and socio-cultural aspects of tourism development, and a suitable balance must be established between these three dimensions to guarantee its long term sustainability".

Economic sustainability ensures that development is economically efficient and that resources are managed in such a way that they can support future generations. Environmental sustainability is concerned with ensuring development that is compatible with the maintenance of essential ecological processes, biological diversity and resources. Socio-cultural sustainability ensures that development increases people's control over their lives, is compatible with the culture and values of people affected by it, and maintains and strengthens community identity. Furthermore, sustainable tourism development requires the informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, as well as strong political leadership to ensure wide participation and consensus building. Sustainable tourism should also maintain a high level of tourist satisfaction and ensure a meaningful experience to the tourists.

However, Tosun (2001) has criticized implementing STD in developing countries such as Turkey. He argued that the priorities of a national economy, the lack of a contemporary tourism development approach, the structure of the public administration system, the emergence of environmental matters and over-commercialization, and the structure of the international tourism system are offered as 'the challenges of STD' in the context of the developing world. He concluded in his research that, although the principles of STD are beneficial, their implementation is an enormously difficult task to achieve, owing to the prevailing socio-economic and political conditions in the developing world. Any operation of STD necessitates hard political and economic choices, and decisions based upon complex socio-economic and environmental trade-offs. Moreover, he stated that implementation of any hard decisions may not be possible unless international organizations encourage and collaborate with governments of developing countries to implement the principles of STD.

Liu (2003) has made some criticisms of sustainable tourism, as well. He points out some critical issues for further research on STD:

1. The main objectives of further research on STD are learning how to manage tourism development in an approach that is suitable for all tourism stakeholders.
2. Further research on the application of the principles of sustainable development to conventional mass tourism, not only alternative tourism, will be necessary.
3. Researchers from various disciplines should be able to study together to develop and generate additional knowledge of STD

2.2.4 Sustainable tourism development and the evolution of tourism planning thought

Despite the fact that there were different terms used to capture the evolution of tourism studies and planning approaches, similar themes emerge as shown in Table 2.2

Table 2.2 The Evolution of Tourism Planning Thought

Getz (1987)	Tourism planning focus
Boosterism Approach	Tourism is a fully valuable motion and appears that way in marketing strategies centered simply on promotional campaigns.
Economic Approach	Tourism used as a tool by governments to achieve economic restructuring.
Physical/Spatial approach	Managing tourism impacts; risk plans may ignore more socio/cultural factors.
Community-based Approach	Recognised need for the social impact perspective; Better forms of tourism: ecotourism, sustainable tourism, etc; Responsive to host communities

Getz (1987) made it clear that these traditions of tourism planning tended to emerge in parallel rather than consecutively and examples of each remain evident in a variety of situations throughout the world. In retrospect, he consistently indicated that tourism planning was, in the past, seen as a simplistic process focused simply on encouraging mass tourism. This simplistic form of tourism planning, however, only began in the1960s when tourism businesses began to be recognized as a significant industry due to its growth (Burns, 1999). As indicated in Getz' research (1987), a 'boosterism' approach to tourism planning prevailed throughout 1960s. This approach employed different promotional strategies as dominant marketing tools to increase visitation. However, it should be noted that the so-called marketing ideas were asymmetrical in the logic that they focused mainly on promotion. The focal belief was simply that tourism is good; therefore, "more is better". An "economic approach" to the tourism industry was highly ranked by many countries. Tourism- related industries became a prevalent means to promote economic gains. The positive impacts of tourism development were evident in the considerable generation of employment and increase in foreign exchange earnings. Marketing is the primary tool of this economic approach. As time advanced, marketing techniques became more complicated. Evidence of positive economic impacts can be seen in the numbers of earlier articles and texts, to a large extent, devoted to the economic analysis of tourism. Concepts such as multiplier effect and input-output models were introduced. However, as tourism development proceeded during the 1970s, an uneven allocation of benefits and acknowledgement of tourism's negative impacts became more apparent. The consequences of unbalanced or disorganized tourism planning and development have brought hard lessons for several places where social and environmental impacts were severe. Tourism scholars started to think about the multitude of negative impacts of mass tourism. The 'physical/spatial approach', created by Getz (1987), is included in this approach. One of its main concerns was to emphasize the negative impacts of tourism in relation to the host community. As a result of this, the boosterism belief has been increasingly discredited and tourism practitioners have gradually undertaken a more cautious approach. There are several studies pertaining to this school of thought. They were directed at defining stages and models of tourism development. These studies addressed the relationships between tourism development and host communities. The core research of this school of thought includes:

- Doxey (1975), who proposed an 'irredex' which is used to assess host-guest interactions and relationships.
- Butler (1980), who offered a model to explain the evolution of tourist areas. Tourist destinations are seen to evolve through the stages from exploration to either decline

or rejuvenation. The emergence of social impacts on host communities becomes more significant when the development reaches the consolidation stage.

In addition to this research, the last two decades have witnessed a burgeoning number of studies emphasizing on the negative impacts of tourism. The research stated above indicated that positive and negative impacts on destination were linked closely to the growth of tourism. As tourism development has proceeded, both the positive and negative impacts became more and more visible.

The evolution of a destination life cycle model (Butler, 1980) provides a significant conceptualization in indicating the dynamism of destination areas that tourism planners have made use of. However, tourism planning literature is concerned not just with how to extend the destination's growth stage, but it is also related to the evaluation of tourism resources in order to identify desirable rates and acceptable forms of change in the environment, and in local residents' perceptions of tourism development.

The recognition of increased negative community impacts and the re-evaluation of tourism's relationship with host communities presents considerable challenges to the tourism industry and tourism planners and has led to a strong call for a tourism planning approach which could promote a more rigorous understanding of tourism and what can be done to predict and alleviate its negative effects. Increased awareness grew simultaneously in response to the ideas of STD.

In the tourism field, community based tourism planning, a "community based approach" which was created by Getz (1987), has come to the forefront, receiving substantial attention and advocacy by scholars (Murphy, 1985; Gunn, 1994; Timothy, 1999). The main principle of this approach is a quest for community input through residents' active participation in the tourism development process. Murphy (1985) argued that residents' input is required because "the industry uses the community as a resource, sells it as a product, and, in the process, affects the lives of everyone". In other words, tourism draws extensively from the community's resources. Therefore, tourism must not exploit resources for its own benefit without considering what return is possible for the community. It may be argued that the community will benefit more from tourism development if the community members participate fully both in making decisions that affect their welfare and in implementing these decisions. Therefore, the community based planning process requires the involvement of local people and decision makers at each step in the process. This produces a significant shift of tourism planning from being centralized (a top-down approach) to being decentralized (a bottom-up approach).

The physical/spatial approach seems to enjoy considerable support in a multiplicity of situations all over the world. As a result, it often shows to be the main tourism planning viewpoint. Nevertheless, the principle of STD is more clearly perceptible in Getz's model, and this perception is acknowledged by Hall (1995). Hall (1995) argued that if the economic, physical/spatial, and community-based approaches are associated with tourism planning, it may be suggested that many of the key principles of STD will have been met.

2.2.5 Sustainable tourism development in urban areas

Tourism in urban areas has grown because it is these built-up areas that offer a wide range of attractions and which tend to be highly rigorous spatially. Shaw and Williams (1994) argued that the attractions of cities play an important role when considering a tourism destination. Urban areas attract domestic and international tourists such as holidaymakers, as well as business travelers, and meeting, convention, and exhibition attendees. However, as suggested by Asworth (1992), tourism studies in urban areas are often neglected. It is not only that tourism studies have neglected the urban

context, but urban studies have also failed to observe the importance of tourism activities to city life. During the 1990s, there was an increase in research on urban tourism, particularly on non-traditional destinations.

Starting in North America and spreading to Europe, Australia, New Zealand and Singapore, the development of urban tourism has become an essential part for economic development (Hinch, 1996). Swarbrooke (1999) stated that "tourism-based urban regeneration has become a major phenomenon in the past two decades". Most scholars appear to concur that the role of tourism-led local economic development (LED) in urban areas has been most successful in the case of American cities. Even in these success stories, however, he also cautioned that "by implementing a tourism-led strategy, cities are committing themselves to a long-term program with no guarantee of success". Black (1987) stated that urban tourism suffers from long-standing underestimation and misunderstanding.

The WTO (1999) pointed out that urban areas face a double challenge. The first of these is the tourists' expectations and the need to make more attractive in urban areas whilst the second challenge is to guarantee the proper management of the urban environment for the benefit of local residents. A strong commitment is needed from all tourism stakeholders to maintain the environment and prevent deterioration.

Urban tourism can be seen as a heterogeneous matter. The concentration points for human interaction, which may involve tourists, can be found in urban areas. These points of interaction may produce a pattern of tourist interactions that become complex and may differ greatly from one city to another.

The complexity of urban tourism, as structured by Black (1987), is composed of five factors. First, because urban areas are huge with dense populations, 'visiting friends and relatives' constitutes a major tourist segment in many cities. Second, most cities are major travel nodes that are related to initial access advantage (infrastructure). Third, urban areas tend to be a locus of economic activity, which is characterized by the concentration of manufacturing, trade and finance. Fourth is the availability of the commerce, industry, and service sectors. Fifth is the wide variety of cultural experiences available.

Although there are a number of studies on STD, its application to STD in urban area is still limited. A good portion of STD research activities focus on the natural environment, regardless of the fact that the majority of tourists travel in cities and urban areas (WTO statistics, 1999, cited in Dodds and Joppe, 2003). Hinch (1996) asserted that initiatives on sustainable tourism contextualized in urban areas are as important as those which are undertaken in rural areas.

As noted earlier, cities or urban areas have complex spatialities that lend themselves to be tourist attractions over and above their roles as areas, facilities, and activities enjoyed by residents. Cities or urban areas have attracted huge numbers of tourists due to sightseeing, entertainment, a full range of accommodation, quality restaurants, nightlife, theatres, concerts, spectator sporting events, historic sites, museums, galleries, zoos and shopping. Some cities, such as Bangkok, are a part of a tour or a stopover to break up a long trip. Lately, urban areas are starting to show some of the same problems with tourism that have been recognized in other environments. The growth of tourism in urban areas presents various challenges not only to safeguard of the environment, but also the conservation of heritage, the preservation of the social fabric and cultural values, and the maintenance of the desired quality of life for residents. It may be said that sustainable tourism development in urban areas must consider both the 'green issues' and non-ecological resources, including the conservation of historical landscapes, the preservation of heritage buildings, and the sustenance of cultures, traditions and customs. In this context, Mowforth and Munt (1998) offered three important dimensions of

sustainable tourism beyond the ecological. These are economic, social, and cultural sustainability. Economic sustainability refers to the economic gains from tourism that are sufficient to cover the costs and inconveniences incurred by development. Social sustainability refers to the ability of a local community "to absorb inputs, such as extra people, for short or long periods of time, and to continue functioning either without the creation of social disharmony as a result of these inputs or by adapting its functions and relationships so that the disharmony can be alleviated or mitigated". Cultural sustainability concerns the ability of a community to retain or adapt elements of their cultural activities which distinguish them from other communities.

Ultimately, STD in urban areas is about maintaining the historic continuity of those areas so that succeeding generations of residents, as well as tourists, can continue to experience and sample their environmental, economic, social, and cultural aspects. If the uniqueness of places is eroded, their appeal to both locals and tourists will be severely undermined and the tourist industry of a nation or city will lose its sustainability. More importantly, cities and countries owe it to their residents to preserve the uniqueness of their cultural landscapes, to maintain the everyday way of life of their citizens, and to preserve the diversity of their natural habitats. When societies have a sense of self-respect for their own cultural identity and heritage, the tourist attractiveness of place and people becomes automatically sustainable and competitive.

2.2.6 Stakeholder theory

The concept of stakeholders has its roots in business and management literature. The Stanford Research Institute (SRI) was the first to formally introduce the stakeholder concept in 1963. The SRI stated (1963) that a stakeholder is any "group without whose support the organization would cease to exist". Stakeholder theory was not prominent in management literature until 1984 when Freeman wrote *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach.* This work developed the current definition of a stakeholder. A stakeholder is "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm's objectives" (Freeman, 1984). This view was revealing in that Freeman was the first management writer to so clearly identify the strategic importance of groups and individuals beyond not only the firm's stockholders, but also its employees, customers, communities, suppliers, governments, and the general public. The stakeholder concept is intended to "broaden management's vision of its roles and responsibilities beyond the profit maximization functions to include interests and claims of non-stockholding groups" (Mitchell, Agle, and Wood, 1997).

Since Freeman first proposed his stakeholder approach to strategic management, it has been incorporated into business studies (Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Clarkson, 1995; Sautter and Leisen, 1999).

Donaldson and Preston (1995) reviewed many of the studies in management literature concerning stakeholder theory. They argued that stakeholder theory is descriptive/empirical, normative, and instrumental.

- The descriptive/empirical aspect is used to describe how organizations manage or interact with stakeholders.
- The instrumental aspect is used to identify the connections, or lack of connections, between stakeholder management and the achievement of corporate goals.
- The normative aspect is used to prescribe how an organization ought to treat stakeholders on the basis of some underlying moral and philosophical principle with the proper respect and consideration due their own stakes. Based on this

aspect, all stakeholders need to participate in determining the direction of the organization in which they have a stake (Donaldson and Preston, 1995).

Stakeholder theory is not only an academic exercise. It has relevant applications in the management of an organization. Freeman (1984) indicated that for an organization to manage its stakeholders, it had to identify the stakeholders and their interests, understand the process needed to manage the relationship with the stakeholders, and manage the transactions between the organization and its stakeholders. Donaldson and Preston (1995) argued that, in stakeholder management, all stakeholders do not need to be involved equally in the decision-making process. It does require that all interests are identified and understood.

The definition of stakeholders varies among many authors. Some scholars define stakeholders broadly while others prefer to use a more narrow definition. Many authors (Freeman, 1984; Clarkson, 1995; Waddock, Bodwell, and Graves, 2002) have found it useful to differentiate stakeholders as either primary or secondary. Clarkson (1995) has defined primary ones as those who have a "formal, official or contractual" relationship with the organization. Specifically, Clarkson asserts that a primary stakeholder "is one whose continuing participation is critical to the survival of the corporation". Included in this group are shareholders, employees, customers, suppliers, and related government agencies. Clarkson (1995) also defines secondary stakeholders as those who influence or affect, or are influenced or affected by, the corporation, but are not engaged in transactions with the corporation and are not essential for its survival. Included in this group are communities and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and activists.

Mitchell et al. (1997), holding another perspective, combine the concepts of *power*, *urgency*, and *legitimacy* to create a model of stakeholder identification to assist in the analysis of stakeholder salience. They indicate that salience (as perceived by managers) will be positively related to the number of these three stakeholder features that managers perceive the stakeholder to possess. Using their model, the most salient stakeholder would have an urgent (time sensitive) claim against the organization, the power to enforce its will on the organization, and be perceived as legitimate in exercising its powers.

2.2.7 Stakeholder theory and sustainable tourism development

The use of stakeholder theory is not limited to business and organization-related literature. Stakeholder theory has been applied in planning and tourism management (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Yuksel, Bramwell and Yuksel, 1999; Sautter and Leisen, 1999).

Tourism planners should consider the interests of all stakeholders before proceeding with STD. Incorporating stakeholder views can add knowledge and insight which may reduce conflicts in the long term (Yuksel et al., 1999). Sautter and Leisen (1999) found that as agreement across stakeholder interests increased, the likelihood of collaboration and compromise also rose. If collaboration between stakeholders occurs, the level of support for STD may increase, as well.

Aside from Sautter and Leisen (1999), there are now increasing numbers of researchers and industry professionals advocating the inclusion of stakeholders in the tourism planning process (Hardy and Beeton, 2001; Markwick, 2000; Sheehan and Ritchie, 2005). Two distinct areas of thinking have emerged in the tourism literature. The first notion is closely related to the classical idea of stakeholder management, i.e., the central agency considers the interest of the stakeholders and develops policies and practices based on the stakeholders' power and influence. Those with more power would be given more consideration than those with less (Hunt and Haider, 2001; Tosun, 2001).

The second idea of stakeholder theory that has emerged over the past few years includes the concept of collaborative thinking (Bramewll and Sharman, 1999; Yuksel, et al., 1999). It implies that consideration should be given to each stakeholder group without one being given priority over the others (Sautter & Leisen, 1999). In particular, stakeholder identification and involvement is the main step towards achieving community partnerships and collaboration within tourism (Hardy and Beeton, 2001; Sheehan and Ritchie, 2005). Yuksel et al. (1999) stated that while collaborative planning may be time consuming and difficult, it can be justified because it can potentially "avoid the costs of resolving conflicts in the long term, it is more politically legitimate, and it can build on the store of knowledge and capacities of the stakeholders". Collaboration and partnerships are essential to the development of bonds and networks among diverse stakeholders for their benefit (Briassoulis, 2002).

Hardy and Beeton (2001) applied stakeholder theory to identify stakeholder groups and understand their perception of sustainable tourism. Sheehan and Ritchie (2005), by applying stakeholder theory, identified a great diversity of various important stakeholders. They also determined stakeholder management strategies of the tourism destination management organization (DMOs). Additionally, Markwick (2000) demonstrated the need for stakeholder management in his discussion of golf course development in Malta. He stated that conflict arose from different stakeholder groups having different interests in relation to the costs and benefits of the development.

Jamal and Getz (1995) argue the "necessity of involving key stakeholders and refining processes for joint decision-making on destination planning and management issues within a community-based domain". They further provide six key conditions for facilitating planning collaboration. These conditions include stakeholders believing that: they are interdependent, they will benefit from collaboration, decisions will be implemented, the key groups (identified as being government, tourism associations, resident organizations, tourism business, and special interest groups) are involved, the convener is legitimate in the areas of expertise, resources, and authority, and that the process is effective for collaboration.

Therefore, for success to be achieved in STD all stakeholder interests must be identified and understood and key stakeholders must be involved in the planning process.

2.3 Review of the Theoretical Framework

2.3.1 Review of social exchange theory

Social exchange theory derives from economic rational choice theory and the study of relationships and "exchange". It argues that individuals evaluate alternative courses of action so that they get best values at lowest cost from any transaction completed. Molm (2001) argues that "the philosophical roots of social exchange begin with the assumptions of utilitarian economics, broaden to include the cultural and structural forces emphasized by classical anthropologists, and enter sociology after further input and modification from behavioral psychology."

To date, social exchange theory has its origin in several disciplines, including marketing (Bagozzi, 1975), behavioral psychology (Homan, 1991), anthropology (Levi-Strauss, 1969), economics (Ekeh, 1974), social psychology (Gouldner, 1960), and sociology (Blau, 1964).

For example, it has been thought from the utilitarian economists' perspectives that people can be viewed as rationally seeking to maximize their material benefits, or utility, from transactions or exchanges with others in a open market (Tuner, 1986). Additionally,

social exchange theorists reformulate this principle by asserting alternative assumptions. Homans (1991) explained social exchange theory in this way: "Humans do not pursue to maximize profits, but they always attempt to make some profit in their social transactions with others".

Levi-Strauss (1967), who developed a structural exchange perspective, presents another point of view concerning social exchange theory. He states that exchange must be viewed according to its function in integrating the larger social structure. The exchange is more than the result of psychological needs and should be interpreted as a reflection of a pattern of social organization that exists as an entity.

From the behavioral psychology perspective, "social exchange is based on the actions of one person providing the rewards or punishments for the actions of another person and vice versa in repeated interactions" (Blau, 1964). Psychological rewards and punishment are reconciled with economic benefits (utility) and costs (Ekeh, 1974). Thus, people will behave so as to yield the most reward and the least punishment and also will repeat those behaviors that have proved rewarding in the past.

Social exchange theory also explains how actors in relationships and networks obtain valued tangible and intangible resources (e.g. support and service) through interactions with other actors by exchange with a cost-benefit perspective based on self-interest (Homan, 1991). Actors contribute to the exchange only when they expect benefits in return. Thus, contributions are made with a hope of future benefits. In addition, Emerson (1976), who developed the concepts of power and dependence in exchange, said that power in exchange relations or networks is based upon the dependence of the actors on one another for resources of value. While resources can be instrumental involving economic or social goods and services, as well as purely symbolic, as in a brand name or reputation, the term "actor" refers to a person, a role-occupant, or a group that acts as a single unit. Interdependence and specialization create the necessity for exchange, and all organizations adopt a wide variety of strategies for coping with this interdependence (Grembowski, Cook, Patrick and Roussel, 2002).

Within the marketing perspective, Kotler and Levy (1969) and especially Bagozzi (1975) brought social exchange theory to the attention of the marketing discipline, and have argued that most human dealings (and not just those between for-profit firms and their customers) can be understood as a form of market exchange. The research from Bagozzi (1975) suggests that "exchange involves a transfer of something tangible or intangible, actual or symbolic, between two or more social actors". Indeed, in the area of consumer behavior, Zaltman and Sternthal (1975) argued that exchange is the very important of consumer behavior.

Although different perspectives of social exchange have emerged, theorists agree that social exchange involves a series of interactions that generate obligations (Emerson, 1976). Within social exchange theory, these interactions are usually seen as interdependent and contingent on the actions of another person (Blau, 1964). The common assumption that can also be found in various social exchange theoretical thoughts and disciplines is "utilitarianism" (Turner, 1986).

As indicated above, social exchange theory's explanatory value has been studied in such diverse areas as organizational justice (Cropanzano, Prehar, and Chen, 2002; Konovsky, 2000), leadership (Liden, Sparrowe, and Wayne, 1997; Settoon, Bennett, and Leden, 1996), strategic alliances (Muthusamy and White, 2005), health care (Grembowski et al., 2002), and marketing (Poore, Pitt, and Berthon, 2003), among others.

Within the context of tourism, researchers still lacked theories explaining relationships between tourism stakeholders' attitudes and tourism impact until Ap (1992) applied social exchange theory to tourism. As described by Ap (1992), social exchange is

"a general sociological theory concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interaction situation". Exchanges must occur to have tourism in a community. Harrill and Potts (2003), in their study of Charleston, South Carolina, argue that social exchange theory involves the trading and sharing of resources between individuals and groups. These interactions can occur between individuals, role occupants, or groups acting as single units. Resources can be any item, concrete or symbolic, and may be material, social, or psychological in nature. Getz (1994), in a study of Scotland's Spey Valley, found that residents who found the exchange beneficial for their well-being seemed to support tourism development and had positive reactions to tourists. Residents who viewed the exchange as problematic opposed tourism development.

Social exchange theory was stated as a theoretical frame work to explain residents' reactions to tourism development (Ap, 1992; Madrigal, 1994; McGehee and Andereck, 2004). Those studies focused on how residents assessed the positive and negative of tourism development, and some studies explained residents' support for future tourism development based on their evaluations of the positives and negatives of tourism development impacts (Jurowski, Uysal, and William, 1997; Gursey et al., 2002)

For instance, Madrigal (1994) assumed that social exchange theory is an economic analysis of interaction that focuses on the exchange and mutual dispensation of rewards and costs between tourism actors. He also pointed out that the underlying assumption of this exchange is a disposition to maximize the rewards and minimize the costs of residents' experiences. Perdue et al. (1987) also stated that this theory is a foundation for examining residents' attitudes toward tourism. They concluded that support for tourism was positively related in the case of people who perceived positive impacts from tourism, and negatively correlated in the case of people who perceived negative impacts from tourism.

Results from the research of Andereck, et al. (2005), who investigated residents' perceptions of tourism's impact on communities, suggest residents recognize many positive and negative consequences. These findings are also consistent with social exchange theory in that those who viewed tourism as a development priority also perceived greater benefits from it in their communities than others, and so were more likely to have positive attitudes regarding tourism. This idea was generally supported.

Gursoy, et al. (2002) attempted to explain how and why residents have different views of tourism by using a principle of social exchange theory. The principle they suggested is that residents are willing to be involved in exchanges with tourists if they can receive benefits, rather than incurring unacceptable costs. Based on the empirical findings, the model asserts that 'the state of the local economy', 'perceived benefits', and 'perceived costs' contribute directly to a community's 'support for tourism', while 'community concern', 'eco-centric attitude', and 'utilization of tourism resources' by residents make an indirect contribution. Thus, support for tourism development was considered as the residents' willingness to enter into a tourism exchange based on their perceptions of the benefits and costs of exchange factors. Moreover, the authors concluded that theoretically, if residents perceive the distribution of benefits over costs as positive, they will seek to maintain the exchange relationship.

According to Yoon et al. (2001), who studied residents' attitudes and support for tourism development by using a structural equation model, local residents are likely to participate in exchange (support tourism development) as long as the perceived benefits of tourism exceed the perceived costs of tourism. Their empirical findings support this statement in that "total impact of tourism" was positively associated with "the support for tourism development". Additionally, environmental impact was negatively associated with "the support of tourism development." As a result, if residents received benefits and rewards from tourism, they were likely to support tourism development.

Andereck and Vogt (2000) also supported the social exchange theory in that those residents who perceived tourism positively supported most specific types of tourism development. Additionally, Lee and Back (2006), using SEM, attempted to examine the underlying relationship among economic, social and environmental impact, benefits and support for casino development. The results of this study show that the benefit factor was found to be the most important factor affecting residents' support level, which was consistent with the social exchange theory.

Nevertheless, McGehee and Andereck (2004) argue that support for social exchange theory was mixed. Personal benefit from tourism predicted both the positive and negative effects of tourism and support for additional tourism did predict tourism planning. This argument was consistent with Long et al. (1990). However, the results of this study show that personal benefit is not a significant predictor of tourism planning. This finding is particularly interesting in that it does not align with social exchange theory–if residents had a vested interest in tourism development, it would seem that they would want to see that it is developed properly or, alternatively, prefer to see few restrictions on tourism development.

As tourism stakeholders (tourism experts and residents) have been considered important key players that influence the success or failure of sustainable tourism development, their participation and involvement must be taken into account in tourism planning. Among those different theories that have been applied to investigate tourism stakeholders' attitudes toward tourism (such as social carrying capacity theory (Allen, Long, Perdue, 1988), social representations theory (Pearce, Moscardo, and Ross, 1996; Fredline and Faulkner, 2000), dependency theories (Preister, 1989); growth machine theory (Cannan and Hennessy, 1989; Martin, Bonnie, McGuire and Allen, 1998), Max Weber's theory of substantive and formal rationality (McGeehee and Meares, 1998), social exchange theory seems to offer the appropriate theoretical structure in that it facilitates a rational explanation of both the benefits) and costs impacts of tourism and can apply to test of relationships between and among the exchange factors and their consequences. It may be said that, social exchange theory can logically explain how the exchange factors affect the results or outcomes of the exchange process. The assumptions and principles of the theory offer an explanation of the process involved in the exchanges between tourism resources and people. The tourism literature suggests that economic, environmental, and socio-cultural impacts are probably to affect tourism stakeholders' perceptions and support of tourism.

Thus, this study will use social exchange theory as the principle for studying the relationships among the construct (sustainability attitudes, sense of community, perceived positive impact of tourism, perceived negative impact of tourism), and their results, including support for tourism attraction development, and support for destination sustainability strategies.

2.3.2 Community's attitudes and tourism development impact

Any impacts from tourism causing annoyance or anger in the host community may lead to problems for the long-term sustainable development of the tourism industry. Murphy (1985) argued that "if tourism is to merit its pseudonym of being the hospitality industry, it must look beyond its own doors and employees to consider the social and cultural impacts it is having on the host community at large". It has now become widely recognized that planners and entrepreneurs must take the view of the host community into account if the industry wants to pursue the goal of sustainable tourism development. As tourists need to feel welcome, a community or destination that fails to provide genuine

hospitality is at a disadvantage to those that can. As tourists need to feel welcome, a community or destination that fails to provide genuine hospitality is at a disadvantage to those that can.

Most tourism impact studies are conducted by measuring a community's attitude toward tourism and the effects that are perceived by community residents. Jafari (1986) noted that, "historically, tourism research focused on the positive aspects of tourism impacts in the 1960s, the negative aspects in the 1970s, and a more balanced, systematic approach in the 1980s". Research in the past decade has shifted focus from the impacts themselves to the study of local people at the community level.

In the tourism literature, a number of studies have investigated community's attitudes and tourism development (McGehee and Andereck, 2004; Akis, Peristianis, and Warner, 1996; Chen, 2000; Hernandez, Cohen, and Garcia, 1996). The results of these studies have suggested that community support for tourism development is essential for the successful operation and competitiveness of a tourism destination (Juroski et al., 1997; Yoon et al., 2001). This is because tourism relies heavily upon the goodwill of the local community and understanding local communities' reactions toward tourism development is essential in achieving the goal of favorable host community support.

One of the many relationships that researchers have explored (concerning community's attitudes and tourism) is community's attitudes and tourism development impacts. Most previous studies found that community's attitudes and perceptions in terms of economic, environmental, social and cultural impacts have affected communities' support for tourism development and business (Murphy, Pritchard, and Smith, 2000; Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004; Teye et al., 2002)

Most of these studies have been conducted based on social exchange theory and they have indicated that local communities are likely to participate in an exchange with tourists if they believe that they are likely to gain benefits without incurring unacceptable costs. It can said that if residents perceive the positive impacts of tourism development to be greater than the negative impacts, they are inclined to become involved in the exchange and, subsequently, endorse future tourism development in their community.

Economic benefits are the most important elements sought by community from tourism development. Hence, when researchers examine community's perceptions of the effects of tourism, the perceived economic impacts are often assessed (Dyer, Gursoy, Sharma, and Carter, 2007; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Jurowski *et al.*, 1997; Liu and Var 1986). Several researchers have focused on employment opportunities (Dyer et al., 2007) and the revenue communities derive from this industry (Davis, Allen, and Cosenza, 1988; Gursoy et al.,2002). An improving standard of living (Ko & Stewart, 2002; Andriotis & Vaugham, 2003), income distributions for hosts and government (Perdue, et al., 1987), development and maintenance of infrastructure and resources(Ko and Stewart, 2002), tax revenue (Lankford and Howard, 1994; Dyer et al., 2007) are given as other examples of the economic benefits of tourism development impacts. However, some studies found that tourism not only brings economic growth but also imposes economic burdens upon destinations in less industrialized countries. These may include the lack of compensation for skilled workers (William and Lawson, 2001; Jamieson, Goodwill, and Edmunds, 2004), higher cost of living and inflated prices for land and housing (Ko and Stewart, 2002; Teye, et al., 2002; Jamieson et al., 2004; Sirakay, Teye, and Sonmez, 2002).

Moreover, other benefits and costs associated with the social, cultural and environmental impact of tourism have been identified. Tourists affect the people of the host communities as a result of their direct and indirect associations with them. The social and cultural impacts of tourism are reflected in the ways in which tourism is contributing to changes in value systems, individual behavior, family relationships, collective life style,

moral conduct, creative expressions, traditional ceremonies, and community organization. The social and cultural dimension, however, is not restricted to actual physical interaction; it is also affected by the modernization and development which tourism brings. While much research has been conducted on community's perception of social and cultural impacts of tourism development, the results sometimes produced contradictory analysis. Although economic benefits are often assumed to largely improve the quality of life of residents, social and cultural factors may not always be as positive (Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987). Some studies stated that residents tended to perceive the economic impacts of tourism positively, but the social and cultural impacts of tourism development negatively (Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004). Increasing crime, prostitution, and threats to families are examples of the social/cultural impacts of tourism (Lee and Back, 2006; Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004; Ko and Stewart, 2002; Sirakay et al., 2002; Tosun, 2002; Linderberg and Johnson, 1997) which may negatively affect a community's way of life (Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004; Andereck and Vogt, 2000). In contrast, some studies have found that tourism improved community services, development of cultural activities, and cultural exchange opportunities between tourists and residents (Dyer, et al., 2007; Kuvan and Akan, 2004; Sirakaya et al., 2002; McCool and Martin, 1994), and also improved community spirit (Lee and Back, 2006), the preservation of cultural identity (Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004; Andereck and Vogt, 2000), the quality of life (Swarbrooke, 1999), and enhanced the image of the community and culture (McGehee and Andereck, 2004).

The tourism research also produced mixed results for a host community's perception of the physical and environmental impacts of tourism. Doggart and Doggart (1996) argued that the tourism industry has the potential to unwittingly undermine itself by being insensitive to the environmental impacts it is causing. Essentially, the physical and environmental impacts of tourism on the destination can be traced back to the interactions between tourists and the physical environment. The impacts are often anthropogenic, i.e., caused by the relationship between human beings and the environment. Tourists, through their daily consumption habits, impact the environment as these products and services require the use of resources. Tourist attractions and facilities like viewing platforms, visitor centers, and infrastructure need to be developed and maintained. It could be said that the environmental impacts of tourism are not completely different from what is demanded by locals at tourist destinations. This is true for cases where the standard of living of tourists and the level of development of destination countries are the same. On the other hand, the physical and environmental conditions (of public amenities, as well) at tourism destinations may not be the same as the conditions of the tourists' home country. Apart from supporting tourists' activities in tourism destinations, tourism also contributes additional physical and environmental burdens due to different consumption needs and lifestyles.

Several recent studies have investigated host community attitudes toward the physical and environmental impacts of tourism. Some researchers have suggested that host communities may view tourism as having both positive and negative physical and environmental impacts. The traffic congestion is one of the issues that emerged most often as the negative impact of tourism (Snaith and Haley, 1995; Linderberg and Johnson, 1997; Williams and Lawsons, 2001; McGehee and Andereck, 2004; Lee and Black, 2006). Other studies reported community concern with litter (Andereck et al., 2005; Snaith and Haley, 1995; Williams and Lawsons, 2001), crowding and congestion (McGehee and Andereck, 2004; Andereck and Vogt, 2000; Lee and Black, 2006; Andereck et al., 2005), creating air and water pollution (Kuvan and Akan, 2004), increasing noise levels (Dyer et al., 2007; Lee and Black, 2006; Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004), destruction of natural resources (Walpole and Goodwin, 2001; Lee and Black, 2006; Yoon et al., 2001), and deterioration

of historical resources (Ko and Stewart, 2002). In contrast, perceived positive environmental impacts of tourism included additional park areas (Dyer et al., 2007), incentives for the conservation of natural resources (Andereck, et al., 2005; Andriotis and Vaughan, 2003), incentives for restoration of historic buildings (Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004; Andriotis and Vaughan, 2003; Lee and Back, 2006; Andereck and Vogt, 2000), recreation opportunities for visitors and residents (Haley, Snaith, and Miller, 2005), and better public services (McGehee and Andereck, 2002; Sirikaya et al., 2002; Ko and Stewart, 2002).

As noted earlier, in previous research, perceptions of impacts or attitudes about the economic, socio-cultural, and environment aspects of tourism were measured using multiple item agreement scales. Although the items that emerged from each study were slightly different, a few commonalties exist as shown in this study. Most studies discovered one or more positive impact or benefits dimensions and one or more negative impacts dimensions. The conclusion that can be made from this study is that people in a great diversity of communities seem to be positively disposed toward tourism development. This does not imply that they do not have concerns about the negative impacts tourism either can or does have in their communities, although the specific concerns vary by community.

In sum, the tourism literature suggests that the local community's perception of tourism development impacts is varied. It may be said that impact perceptions have been found to vary substantially between individual sites. In attempting to isolate the explanatory variables which determine host community attitudes toward the impact of tourism, The Faulkner and Tideswell (1997) review of the principal literature concludes that a wide range of potentially salient criteria is evident and that the results of intensive academic effort have been inconclusive at best- the presence of a wide range of opinion diversity within and between communities has invalidated any possibility of a generally accepted set of variables which can reliably explain or predict the full spectrum of potential host community reaction.

Some communities perceive tourism as having both positive and negative impacts; some are likely to perceive tourism as having negative social, cultural or environmental impacts; and others are inclined to regard tourism as having positive impacts on the local economy, community, or/and environment. As for support for tourism development, if people believe that tourism creates more benefits than costs for the community, they tend to have a favorable view of tourism. Conversely, if the people believe that tourism brings more costs than benefits and causes deterioration in the community's quality of life, they are not likely to support tourism development.

Therefore, an investigation of the perceived impacts of tourism development is critical for examining a tourism stakeholder's attitude and support of tourism development or opposition to tourism development. We can say that a tourism stakeholder's perceptions of tourism impacts are one of the critical factors when implementing further tourism planning and development.

Consequently, as the success and sustainability of any tourism development projects rely on the level to which the development is planned and managed with the support of the tourism stakeholders, tourism destination sustainability can be enhanced through the local community, particularly as concerns the support of tourism stakeholders who have received the benefits of tourism development impacts.

2.3.3 Concept of destination competitiveness in sustainable tourism perspective.

The notion of destination competitiveness must be consistent with the notion of competitiveness in international economics and international business literature. The concept of competitiveness has been adapted from economic theory and applied to firms or companies (Porter, 1990). Despite all the discussions on competitiveness, no clear definition or model has yet been developed. It has proved to be a very broad and complex concept, challenging attempts to summarize it in universally applicable terms. Waheeduzzan and Ryans (1996) regard "the notion of competitiveness as associated with four major groups of thought: a) comparative advantage and/or price competitiveness perspective, b) a strategy and management perspective, c) a historical and socio-cultural perspective, and d) development of indicators of national competitiveness".

From a strategy and management perspective, the five-forces model and the national-diamond model as proposed by Porter (1980, 1990) have been widely argued in terms of their applicability to a variety of industries. The former model identifies the basic sources of competition at the company and product level, while the latter addresses competition in terms of the determinants of national advantage in particular industries or industry segments. The major idea of both models is that a company or industry should find better ways to compete by continual improvement of the firms' or industries' products and processes with the purpose of making competitive advantage.

In the tourism context particularly, it may be argued that while the five-forces model could be applied at the level of the company in tourism industries, the national-diamond model suggests the fundamental structure of competition among national tourism industries; that is, the nation as a tourism destination.

Accordingly, in the tourism context, the concept of competitiveness has been applied to different destination settings and types as well as expanded into the sustainability of destinations.

Over the last two decades, since the paradigm of conventional tourism development has substantially shifted to a new approach of developing sustainable tourism in destinations, the notion of competitiveness has expanded to meet the needs of new environmental standards while sustaining an optimal level of socio-economic benefit. Flagestad and Hope (2001) state that "sustainable tourism development can be defined as sustaining competitiveness or competitive advantage in a destination where sustainable, in environment terms, refers not only to the ecology of the natural surroundings, but also the local social structure, culture, and heritage".

Destination competitiveness has also been defined as the ability of a destination to maintain its market position and share and/or to improve upon them through time (d'Hartserre, 2000). Destination competitiveness also refers to a destination's ability to create and integrate value-added products that sustain its resources while maintaining market position relative to competitors (Hassan, 2000).

A comprehensive study undertaken by tourism researchers on the subject of tourism destination competitiveness and sustainability is that of Crouch and Ritchie (1999, 2000, and 2003). They suggest that "the most competitive destination is the one that brings about the greatest success, that is, the most well-being for its residents on a sustainable basis". They go further to warn that, "Competitiveness is illusory without sustainability". To be competitive, a destination's development of tourism must be sustainable, not just economically or ecologically, but socially, culturally, and politically as well. It can therefore be argued that the most competitive destination is the one that most effectively creates sustainable well-being for its residents.

In sum, the competitiveness of destinations in sustainable tourism perspectives involves a multiplicity of industries that contribute through their value-added activities to the overall competitive position in the marketplace. At the same time, destinations will achieve high market growth and become more competitive due to successful value-added programs. In the absence of an environmental commitment, however, short-term market success might, in fact, lead to the deterioration of the destination's attractiveness. Sustained market competitiveness requires a balance of development at an acceptable rate of return to all tourism stakeholders.

Accordingly, this study defines destination competitiveness in sustainable tourism perspectives as "...that which makes a tourism destination truly competitive in its ability to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitors while providing them with satisfying, memorable experiences, and to do so in a profitable way, while enhancing the well-being of destination residents and preserving the natural capital of the destination for future generations..." (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003).

2.3.4 Development of destination sustainability strategies

The success of tourism destinations in world markets is influenced by their relative sustainability. While the study of tourism destination competitiveness from the perspective of sustainability and community's attitudes toward tourism development continue to gain interest among tourism researchers (d'Hauteserre, 2000; Hassan, 2000, Mihalic, 2000; Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Dwyer and Kim, 2003), rarely do researchers study the relationship between the two, especially in the sustainable urban tourism perspective.

Tourism relies on a range of physical, ecological, social, and cultural resources. Unplanned or poorly managed actions, even in large cities or urban destinations, can seriously harm the resource base and may also damage the sustainability of the destination. This observation suggests that a strategic approach for the development of urban tourism has to be adopted and that an urban policy for tourism development has to account for sustainability concerns. It may be stated that the growth in tourism in urban destinations needs a planned development strategy to achieve long-term destination sustainability. Particularly in urban areas, effective local planning and strategies are required to protect and balance the integrity of the three dimensions of the urban environment–the built, the natural, and the cultural (Hinch, 1996).

Tourism destination sustainability strategies must meet the needs and wants of all tourism stakeholders such as improved living standards and quality of life of local community and satisfied the demands of tourists and the tourism industry. In order to meet the demands of the local community, tourists, and the tourism industry, these strategies should simultaneously aim to continue to attract visitors so that the quality of life of the local community is improved and the physical and environmental resource base for tourism (encompassing natural, built, and cultural components) are safeguarded.

To date in the tourism literature, despite a number of studies aim to provide the definitions and the modeling of destination competitiveness (Swarebrooke, 1999; Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Mihalic, 2000; Hassan, 2000; Formica, 2000; Go and Govers, 2000; Buhalis, 2000), however, study on competitiveness of a destination, particularly in the sustainability perspective is limited. Poon (1993) suggests "four key principles which destinations must follow if they are to be competitive: a) put the environment first, b) make tourism a leading sector, c) strengthen the distribution channels in the market place and, d) build a dynamic sector".

Go and Gover (2000) described integrated quality management for tourist destinations and price-based promotions for achieving competitiveness in seven European

countries. This study stated that, in order to meet the challenge of competitors and to increase market share, maintaining and improving a high quality supply is required to sustain market position. As a result, an integrated approach to problem-solving through relevant fields of knowledge, such as urban and regional planning, cultural and heritage preservation, and economic development is needed for the effective development and implementation of integrated quality management for tourism destinations.

Mihalic (2000) studied destination competitiveness that can be related to natural and man-made tourism components, as well as social and cultural environments, from the environmental perspective. This study asserted that competitiveness of destination can be increased by managerial efforts related to environmental impact and environmental quality management. Furthermore, destination competitiveness can also be enhanced through certain environmental marketing activities and strategies. The concept of environment refers to the physical environment and includes natural and man-made components, as well as social and cultural components (Hinch, 1996; Sworebrooke, 1999; Ritchie and Crouch, 2003). The environmental component was also taken into account in Hassan's model (2000). Hassan (2000) argues that tourism destinations involve multi-faceted components of natural/cultural resources and a multiplicity of businesses so a systematic framework or analytical model for destination planning and development is necessary for sustainability. Hassan's model defined a destination's commitment to the environment as one of the four determinants of tourism competitiveness and also included comparative advantage, industry structure, and demand factors. By environmental commitment, he referred to a commitment to the environment that would influence the potential for sustained market competitiveness. He argues that sustained market competitiveness requires a balance of growth orientation and environmental commitment at an acceptable rate of return to all industry partners (e.g., hospitality, transportation, and entertainment) involved in the marketing of the destination. Sustaining the longevity of a given destination in the market place becomes a function of turning the destination's comparative advantage into competitive market position.

According to tourism competitiveness and sustainability researchers Ritchie and Crouch (2003), "to be competitive, a destination's tourism development must be sustainable from economic, ecological, social, cultural, and political perspectives". They also point out that "a destination's competitiveness is a country's ability to create added value and so increase the national wealth by managing assets and processes, attractiveness, aggressiveness and proximity, and thereby integrating these relationships within an economic and social model that takes into account a destination's natural capital and its preservation for future generations" (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003).

Ritchie and Crouch (2003) have affirmed that the generic competitiveness models (e.g. the diamond model) derived by Porter (1998) may be utilized in a tourism context. Porter (1998) extended his competitiveness concept with a cluster-driven competitive advantage of a number of industries located in the same geographical area. This concept is more useful for planners and policymakers in the tourism industry because the experience of the tourist will be based on the overall impression of the destination visited. As an example, a guest may not return to a hotel, even if his stay was excellent, if, for instance, the restaurant nearby offered poor service. On the other hand, an efficient system of personnel training can create added value. Porter (1998) stated that "a host of linkages among cluster members result in a whole greater than the sum of its parts". In a typical cluster, for example, the quality of a visitor's experience depends not only on the appeal of the primary attraction, but also on the quality and efficiency of complementary businesses such as hotels, restaurants, shopping centers, and transportation facilities. Because members of the cluster are mutually dependent, good performance by one can boost the

success of the others. All businesses involved can more benefit in terms of increased opportunities and revenues. Moreover, working together in an integrated system supports the development of economies of scale, which may be critical to competitiveness.

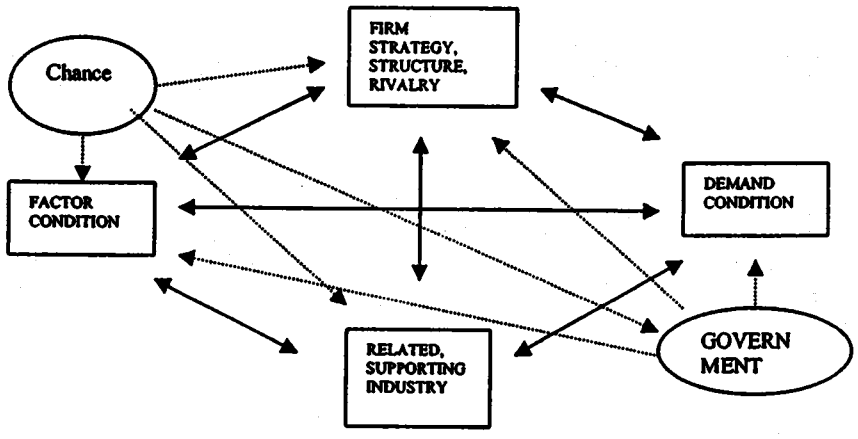

Figure 2.2 Porter's Diamond Model

Porter's diamond models in Figure 2.2 might be useful to understand and enhance the competitiveness of national tourism industries. Factor conditions (both inherited and created factors of production) are the inputs to an industry and include human resources, physical resources, capital resources, and infrastructure. Demand conditions, particularly domestic demand and its internationalization to foreign markets are also considered inputs. A high level of demand supports improvement of industry. Related and supporting industries that posses their own advantages can stimulate industry (e.g. the leisure and recreation, retailing and entertainment industries share activities that complement the tourism industry). The next point is structure and rivalry. A climate of competition stimulates improvement and discourages stagnation. For example, strong price competition continues to stimulate the demand for air travel. Furthermore, government policies concerning the tourism industry and chance events that suddenly alter circumstances introduce opportunities for some and threats for others. These events are also situations in which planners and policy-makers in the tourism industry may create strategies for increased destination competitiveness.

Ritchie and Crouch (2003) refined and presented the concepts and propositions underlying the destination competitiveness and sustainability model (see Figure 2.3) to a point where it has now reached its current form.

It emphasizes that a systemic analysis of the comparative and competitive advantages or forces contributing to destinations is required. Along with this model, comparative advantages represent the tourism resources available at a destination, while competitive advantages relate to a destination's ability to use these tourism resources effectively over the long term. Furthermore, it has five key categories with relatively complex interrelationships (destination policy, planning and development, core resources and attractors, supporting factors and resources, destination management and qualifying determinants). These categories are underpinned by a number of destination-related factors.

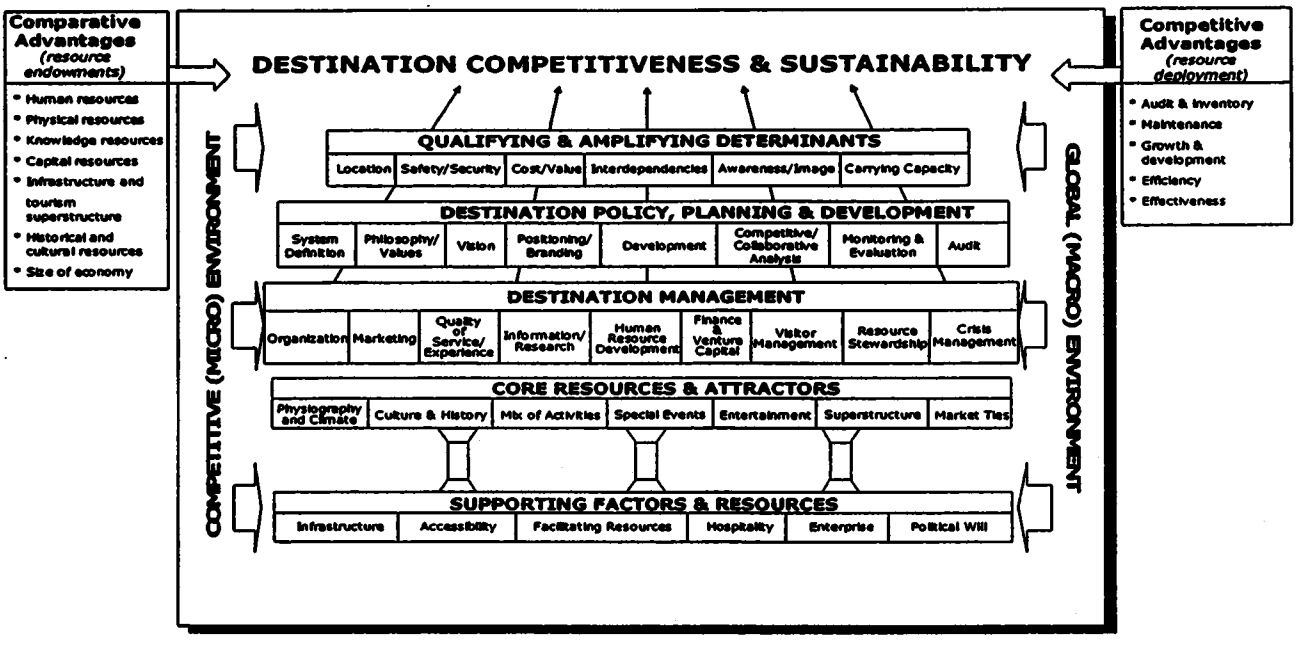

Figure 2.3 Crouch and Ritchie Model

The aforementioned "core resources and attractors", include the main fundamentals of destination appeal. The factors included within this component of the model are physiography and climate, culture and history, market ties, mix of activities, special events, entertainment and tourism superstructure. Physiography includes landscape and climate while market ties include linkages with the residents of tourism-originating regions. Tourism superstructure is comprised primarily of accommodation facilities, food services, transportation, and facilities. Finally, there are major attractions and entertainment which include gambling, theatres, operas, and circuses. With the exception of market ties, therefore, these factors seem to be consistent with mainstream destination attractiveness studies.

According to Crouch and Ritchie (1999), developing tourism strategies in harmony with the social, cultural, and physical environment of a destination can provide substantial competitive advantage. It may be said that for destinations to sustain their competitive position, particularly concerning tourism attraction, they need to develop integrated activities and products that are usually derived from local culture, ecological education and heritage, and historical orientation to outdoor adventure sports. These activities and products will enhance the competitiveness and sustainability of the destinations in appealing to an emerging global travel segment that tends to be above average in education, environmentally aware, experience-oriented, and ready to accept local culture.

The other components of the model, however, extend the determinants of the Ritchie and Crouch model by adding a wider range of factors that help link the destination attractors with factors more generally originating in studies of other types of competitiveness. The "supporting factors and resources" are factors that provide the foundation for building a successful tourism industry and simultaneously include, in particular, the elements of a destination's general infrastructure, a range of other facilitating resources and services, a level of cooperation and competition between entrepreneurs, and the level of political support to create sustainable tourism, with factors influencing the destination's hospitality and accessibility.

The third factor of the model, "destination management", focuses on activities that can influence the other factors in four ways: 1) by implementing the policy and planning frame work, 2) by enhancing the appeal of the core resources and attractors, 3) by

strengthening the quality and effectiveness of the supporting factors and resources and (4) by adapting best to the constraints or opportunities imposed or presented by the qualifying and amplifying determinants. Even as the most studied aspect of management focuses on destination marketing, Ritchie and Crouch suggest that a much wider set of management activities should be considered to maintain and enhance the sustainable competitiveness of destination, including organization, quality of services, information/research, venture capital, crisis management, and the maintenance of tourism resources and attractors.

In particular, marketing of destinations, including product development, pricing strategies, and the selection of targets of tourist numbers have the potential to enhance and strengthen the competitiveness of destinations. The model also argues that a destination's competitiveness and sustainability can be enhanced through the regular monitoring of visitor satisfaction and the tracking of industry performance. Such information by special research projects is crucial in order to ensure destination productivity and effectiveness.

Destination competitiveness and sustainability can also be increased by resource stewardship, which associates with effectively maintaining and sustaining tourism resources. The stewardship philosophy implies ensuring the effective yet sensitive deployment of all the resources within the destination. According to Crouch and Ritchie (2000), destination sustainability should be emphasized in its role in enhancing competitiveness. Hassan (2000) argues that sustainability has a larger function than natural environmental sustainability. Consequently, a destination's development for tourism must be sustainable, not just economically and ecological, but socially, culturally, and politically also.

Destination management is also related to crisis management. When crises occur, destinations which respond to such eventualities more effectively or, better still, act to prevent or minimize them as far as this is possible, enhance their competitive position. Proactive crisis management or disaster planning is therefore becoming an additional challenge and responsibility for forward-thinking destinations. According to Ritchie (2004), in the case of crisis and disaster planning and management, understanding the impact of a crisis on internal (business units, staff, managers, and shareholders) and external (other agencies, general public, media, and tourists) stakeholders and the relationship between these stakeholders is critical and these stakeholders need to develop suitable strategies to resolve any crisis satisfactorily. Additionally, the organization's function within the tourism destination should be considered in terms of its responsibility to the well-being of all aspects of the destination. The fourth fact, "qualifying and amplifying determinants", includes factors that can decrease or enlarge destination competitiveness by filtering the influence of the other three groups of factors. Thus, these determinants can limit a destination's capability to attract and satisfy potential tourists and so influence a destination's competitiveness. This fourth factor includes location, safety, cost, interdependencies, image, and carrying capacity.

A final factor, "destination policy, planning and development", was added and identified as separate from the earlier model because the researchers felt that the earlier model did not sufficiently cover critical policy, planning, and development issues. They argued that a strategic or policy-driven framework for the planning and development of the destination with sustainability goals could help to promote a competitive and sustainable destination while meeting the quality-of-life aspirations of those who reside in the destination. This factor includes critically important variables, such as system definition, community philosophy, vision, audit, competitive/collaborative analysis, development, and evaluation, all of which require explicit recognition, common understanding, and support among tourism stakeholders. For example, destination policy and planning for tourism development should be formulated as an integrative system of mechanisms designed to

work in concert, so that overall competitiveness and sustainability goals, such as both demand- and supply-oriented concerns, can be achieved.

Furthermore, Dwyer and Kim (2003) in their integrated model of destination competitiveness (see Figure 2.4) brought together the main elements of the wider competitiveness literature (Porter, 1998; Narasimha, 2000), while incorporating factors of destination competitiveness as defined by other researchers (Buhalis, 2000; Hassan, 2000; Crouch and Ritchie, 2000). The model contains many of the factors identified by Crouch and Ritchie in their seminal competitiveness research, but it differs, however, in a number of aspects. In particular, the integrated model of destination competitiveness explicitly recognizes demand conditions as an important determinant of destination competitiveness. Tourist awareness of alternative destinations, their perceptions of or satisfaction with different destinations, and their perceptions of or satisfaction with the extent to which the destination's product offerings will meet their needs, are critical to tourist flows. A destination's product must develop in a way that matches developing consumer preferences if the destination is to enhance or even maintain competitiveness. Moreover, the integrated model seems to indicate interactive rather than one-way effects from the Crouch-Ritchie model.

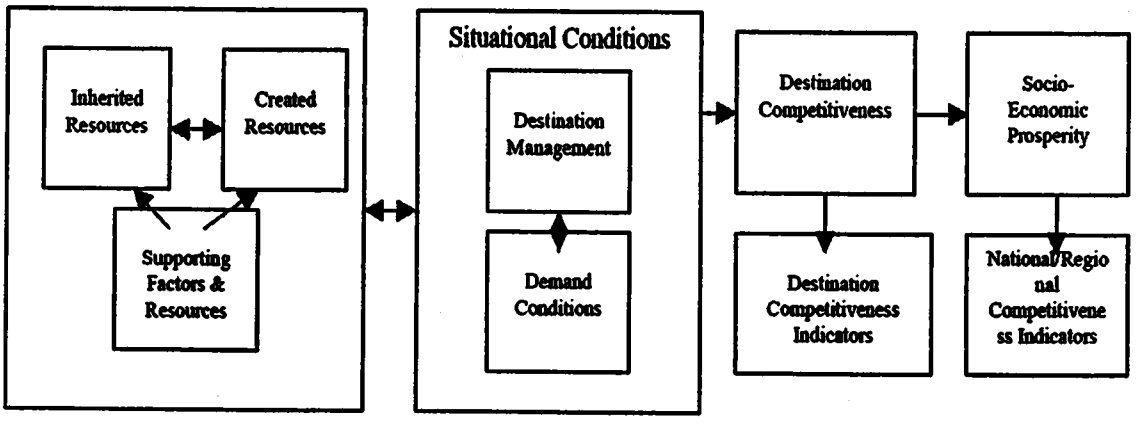

Figure 2.4 Integrated model of Destination Competitiveness

Formica (2000) defined destination competitiveness as a function of demand and supply interaction. The various combinations and blends of tourism attractions/resources that include physical distribution, importance, and value, are significant in determining a destination's attractiveness power and uniqueness. He also proposed that the components on the supply side should collaborate with marketing travel links to meet the desires of the demand markets.

In conclusion, more appropriate management efforts, policy development and evaluation, marketing activities, and sustainable management can help to maintain, create and integrate value in tourism attraction and resources so that tourism destinations can achieve better competitive positions that, in turn, may allow destinations to enhance their competitiveness from the sustainability perspective. However, having resolved that different destinations are affected by a recognized pattern of development, some tourism researchers argue that the principal factors contributing to competitiveness and sustainability will vary among destinations, and as such, destinations must take a more tailored approach to enhancing and developing tourism competitiveness from the sustainability perspective, rather than adopting a single, universal policy or strategy.

Thus, the principle subject of this study is that a destination's competitiveness from a sustainable tourism perspective in urban areas can be enhanced through appropriate

matches between tourism attraction and sustainable tourism strategies supported by tourism stakeholders, especially tourism experts and residents. Tourism may successfully position itself and its sustainability in the tourism market, depending on which tourism attractions develop value for tourists and how well destination resources are managed.

2.3.5 Tourism attraction

The various types of tourism destinations provide an amalgam of tourism products and services. The components of tourism products and services are essential for tourism development and marketing and are commonly referred to as tourism attractions and resources. Leiper (1990) said that destinations are places where people travel to and where they stay for a while in order to have certain travel experiences, which depend on the destinations' attractions/resources.

In general, these destination attractions/resources have been considered tourism supply factors that represent the driving forces generating tourist demand and also primary sources or determinants of measuring destination attractiveness (Hu and Ritchie, 1993). Hu and Ritchie (1993) also stated that two dominant points have emerged in investigating the concept of destination attractiveness: universal destination attributes and destination-specific attributes. The first suggests that some attributes have a broad, or universal, influence in a tourist's evaluation of a destination. These include climate and natural scenery which serve as the primary considerations in defining a destination's attractiveness. While the universal attributes are important for understanding the attractiveness of a destination, the second focus indicates that other socio-cultural characteristics, which depend on the type of destination and travel experience the destination provides to tourists, also play a role.

Ritchie and Zins (1978) listed eight important factors that are considered significant in the attractiveness of a country:

1. natural beauty and climate, which include the general topography, proximity to lakes, rivers, a sea, mountains, islands, hot and mineral water springs, waterfalls, the amount of sunshine, the temperature, etc.
2. culture and social characteristics, which include language, traditions, history (relics and sites), museums, architecture, religion, art, sculpture, music, dress, leisure behavior, and festivals
3. sport, recreation, and educational facilities, which include golf courses, tennis courts, swimming pools, sailing locations, movies, casinos, health spas, hiking trails, zoos, aquariums, and botanical gardens
4. shopping and commercial facilities, which include various souvenir and gift shops, boutiques, shopping malls, commercial displays, and nighttime recreations
5. infrastructure of the country, which includes the quality and availability of different means of communication, highways, lodging, health services, food services, and level of personal and material safety
6. cost of living, which involves the value received for the money spent on major services, food, lodging and transportation within the country
7. attitudes toward tourists, which involve the warmth of reception by residents and a lack of hostility towards tourism activities.
8. Accessibility of the country, which includes the physical distance to the country; the time involved in reaching the country; and practical barriers due to customs and security inspection.

According to Tang and Rochananond (1990), who studied about the attractiveness of Thailand as a tourist destination compared to other selected countries, eight major

attributes to identify the important factors affecting tourism were used. These attributes include natural beauty and climate, culture and social characteristics, sport, recreation and education facilities, shopping, infrastructure, cost of living, attitudes towards tourist, accessibility of the country. The study indicated that the most important factor affecting tourist attractiveness is 'Natural Beauty and climate'. 'Accessibility of the country' is found to be relatively not a very important in the choice of tourist destination.

Sirakaya, McLellan, and Uysal (1996) suggested that push and pull factors as fundamental factors that influence tourism destination choices. Push factors enable potential tourists to develop attitudes toward traveling in general; on the other hand, Pull factors refer to man-made attractions, natural attractions, and socio-cultural attractions of destination. Table 2.3 summarized the factors that tend to attract visitors to a destination.

Table 2.3 Factors Affecting Travel Destination Choices

Physical Attractions	Man-Made Tourist Attractions - Infrastructure - Superstructure (facilities for sports and outdoor activities, casinos, hotels and resorts, shopping facilities)	Natural Tourist Attractions - Scenic attractions (beautiful scenery, wilderness, landscape type, opportunities, trailing, hiking) - Historical sights - Beaches - Climate (sun, snow)
Social-Psychological Attractions	Social Cultural Attractions - Attitudes of the host community (warm, hospitable) - Cultural activities (theaters, museums) - Nightlife and entertainment	Psychological Attractions - Historical interest - Family and friends - Novelty of the destination - Tourist conveniences - Accessibility - Suitability - Good food - Good accommodation - Hotel room density - Quietness of the place - Common Language
Exogenous factors	- Political and social environments - Epidemics - Natural disaster - Terrorism	
Total Travel Costs	Transport Costs - Cost of trip - Time spent traveling - Actual geographical distance	Holiday Costs - Exchange rate - Reasonable prices (relative level of consumer prices) - Good value for money (index of consumer prices)
Available Time	- Amount of travel time - Amount of vacation time	

Source: Adapted from Sirakaya, Mclellan, and Uysal, 1996.

In addition, Buhalis (2000) offered lists of six major components of tourism attractions and resources that most of the tourism literature commonly includes in assessing and evaluating the elements of tourism destinations. These are:

1. Attractions: natural, man-made, artificial, purpose-built, heritage, special events
2. Accessibility: an entire transportation system, comprised of routes, terminals and vehicles
3. Amenities: accommodations, catering facilities, retailing, other tourist services
4. Available packages: prearranged packages by intermediaries and principals
5. Activities: all activities available at the destination and what consumers will do during their visit
6. Ancillary services: services used by tourists such as banking, telecommunications, newsagents, hospitals

Mihalič (2000), who considered the environmental quality of destination competitive factors, stated that destination attractiveness includes eleven attractions and resources: natural features, climate, cultural and social characteristics, general infrastructure, basic services, tourism superstructure, access and transportation facilities, attitudes towards tourists, cost/price levels, economy, society, and uniqueness. These destination attractions comprise environmental quality, which is an integral part of the quality of the natural attractions. Thus, it was argued that maintaining a high level of overall environmental quality is important for the sustainability of most types of tourist destinations.

2.3.6 Tourism attractions in urban areas

As indicated earlier, tourism in urban areas is an extremely diverse phenomenon (Shaw and Williams, 1994). This diversity can be seen from (a) the very heterogeneous nature of urban areas themselves distinguished by their size, location, function, and age and (b) the sheer variety of facilities offered. From the perspective of attraction and facilities to supply the needs of tourism, Shaw and Williams (1994) placed urban areas into four categories: a tourist city, a shopping city, a culture city, or an historic city. Urban tourism can also be viewed from the dimension of urban environment as a leisure product.

Burtenshaw, Bateman, and Ashworth (1991) identify three main categories of urban space that also function as tourist attractions:

1. historic districts whose physical attractions are thematically promoted,
2. cultural and social quarters which compose of cultural and entertainment services such as museums, historic sites, palace
3. linear facilities such as specialized shopping centers, river embankments, as well as trails and routes through selected sections of the city.

Jansen-Verbeke (1986) stated that the urban tourism product is divided into three types of elements. The first or primary element includes activity places such as cultural, sports or entertainment facilities, and leisure settings consisting of a variety of physical and socio-cultural characteristics. Secondary elements provide the service dimension and include accommodation, food and beverage, and shopping mall. The third layer of the urban tourism product is ancillary, consisting of infrastructure-like elements related to transportation and tourist information. They also argued that, while the boundaries between these three categories can be debated, the three general groupings of elements are all required for a city or urban area to function effectively as a tourism destination.

According to the model demonstrating the linkage between urban tourism and urban forms produced by Jansen-Verbeke study in 1986, it can be seen that Bangkok has many common elements with the idea of an urban tourism attraction and products. This

conclusion is based on the spatial concentration of a variety of facilities, together with characteristic environmental features. By adapting the linkage between urban tourism and leisure, the demonstration of urban tourism attraction in Bangkok is shown in Figure 2.5

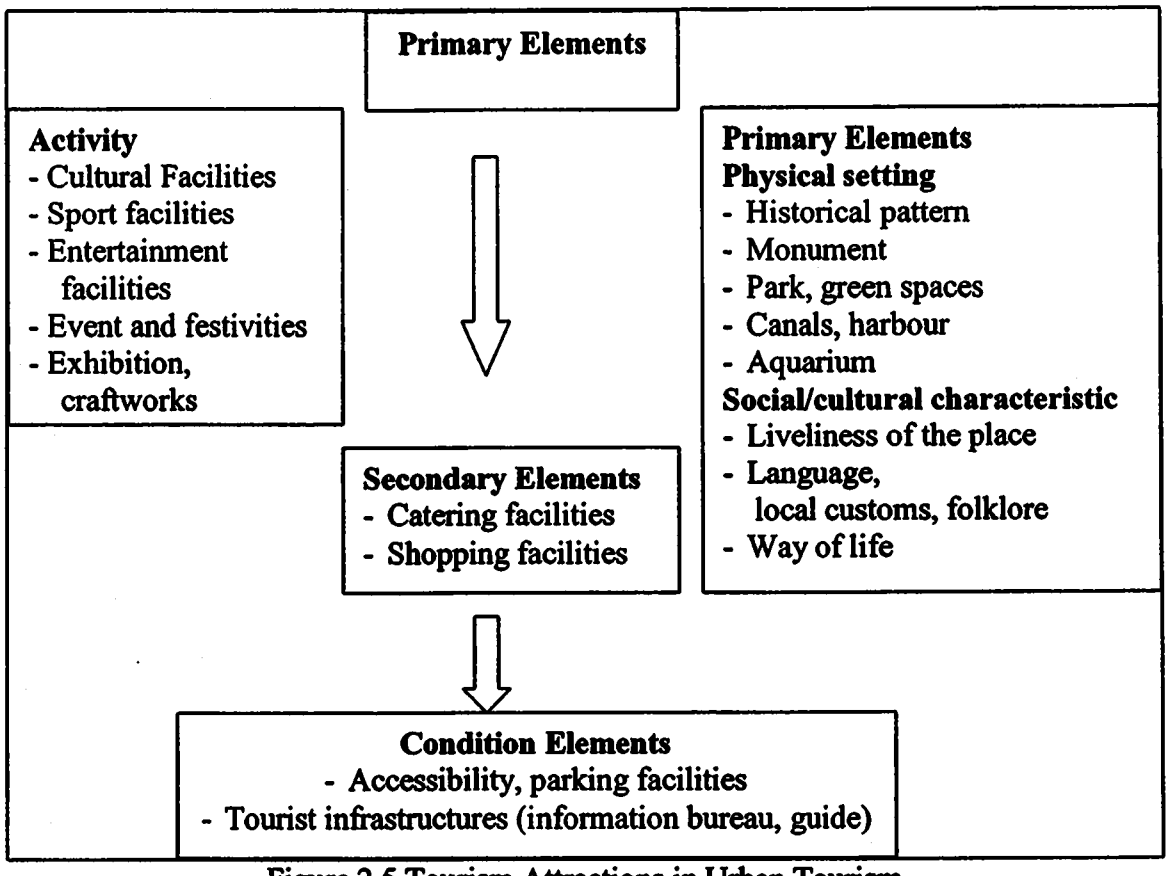

Figure 2.5 Tourism Attractions in Urban Tourism

As noted earlier, a number of studies have attempted to evaluate and classify destination attractions/resources as tourism products (Mihalic, 2000; Hu and Ritchie, 1993). Particularly, Mihalič (2000) suggested that destination attractions/resources should be acknowledged as important sources of comparative and competitive advantage factors in destination competitiveness. These are the essential components of the competitiveness of a tourism destination and are critical attributes for sustaining tourism destinations (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Hassan, 2000).

The destination attractions/resources such as natural/cultural components, heritage/ historical resources, supporting facilities/services, infrastructure, hospitality, sports/recreation activities, transportation/accessibility, and cost should all be considered as not only basic to understanding tourism planning, but also essential for successful tourism development (Pearce, 1997). Furthermore, maintaining and developing the quality of these tourism resources is essential to the sustainability of tourism destinations (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Go and Govers, 2000).

Many tourism destinations contain natural or man-made features to attract visitors. In particular, each destination could have a different advantage in its tourism attractions/resources. The measurement of tourism stakeholders' attitudes, perception and support for tourism attractions development is useful for each destination to create suitable tourism planning and strategies to enhance destination sustainability, and this is the focus of the present study.

2.3.7 Sustainability attitudes

Since the publication of the Brundtland Report (WCED, 1987), discussed earlier, there seems to have been a marked shift toward a new social paradigm of "sustainable development". There is evidence that societal attitudes toward the environment in Western countries have shifted from conventional economic growth or a dominant social paradigm (DSP) and "anthropocentric" attitudes to more environmentally benign or a new environmental paradigm (NEP) and "eco-centric" attitudes. The former attitude supports development that would transform or exploit natural and cultural habitats via unlimited growth, while the latter favors protection and regulation. In other words, eco-centric values propose that mankind must live in harmony with nature, while anthropocentric values reflect the view that nature exists primarily to serve the needs of humans.

During the last two decades within the context of tourism, the paradigm of conventional tourism development has substantially shifted to a new way of developing a destination-sustainable tourism (Hunter, 1995). Sustainable tourism was born out of desire for a better future and concern about conventional tourism development. It provides a new way of developing a destination that supports harmonized methods of development, including ecological responsibility, social compatibility, cultural appropriateness, political fairness, technological support, and finally economical viability for the host community.

To date in the tourism literature, there has been discussion of how citizen support for tourism development could vary, depending on their attitudes toward environmental concerns. Gursoy et al. (2002) studied residents' attitudes in terms of their environmental concern about eco-centric values and their impacts and support for tourism development. They concluded that residents' eco-centric attitudes have a direct impact on the support of tourism development, demonstrating a significant positive relationship with support for its development. However, the results indicated that there is an inverse relationship between eco-centric attitudes and the perceived costs and benefits of tourism.

However, Kilbourne, Beckmann, Lewis, and VanDam (2001) argued that while NEP or "eco-centric", measured by an environmental attitudes scale, cannot be viewed as a socially dominant paradigm. They also stated that the NEP was not as successful as the dominant paradigm although, as Dunlap and Van Liere argued, it has replaced the DSP. Choi (2003) also argues that neither the dominant social paradigm (DSP) nor the new environmental paradigm (NEP) is all-inclusive in that they do not cover all dimensions of sustainable growth. Therefore, the one-size-fits-all paradigm (the DSP or the NEP) are ill-suited to solve the complex problems humans confront in this new century.
Thus, it seems that by adapting the newly proposed sustainability paradigm destinations can address critical missing facets of long-term sustainable development.

Choi (2003), who developed and validated the measurement properties of a multiple-item attitudinal scale of community's attitudes toward sustainable tourism development (SUS-ATT), found and extended current discussions of community attitude studies by including the three major components of sustainable tourism: environmental sustainability, long-term planning, and community participation. All of these components evidenced strong relationships with residents' attitudes and their support for future tourism.

Therefore, people's attitudes concerning sustainable tourism in their communities may influence their support for tourism development. Unavoidably, different attitudes among tourism stakeholders are likely to exist so that better information about and a clearer understanding of their sustainability attitudes are required for the long-term success and sustainability of tourism destinations. Thus, this study adopted the multiple-item attitudinal scale (SUS-ATT), developed by Choi (2003), as a measurement tool to study

how tourism stakeholders' (tourism experts and residents) attitudes toward sustainability affect them and their support for tourism development.

2.3.8 Sense of community

Research interests in community attachments were identified in a number of disciplines, including natural resource management (Warzecha and Lime, 2001), sociology (Grieder and Garkovich, 1994), environmental psychology (Hidalgo and Hernandez, 2001), anthropology (Gupta and Ferguson, 1997), geography (Relph, 1997), and leisure and recreation (Kyle, Graefe, Manning, and Bacon, 2004). People's perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors toward their surroundings are commonly discussed in terms of research issues and topics in studies of place attachment. Additionally, several models and conceptual frameworks of people-place relationships have been developed.

Particularly, place attachment has been conceived as a "...extent and pattern of social participation and integration into community life, and sentiment or affect toward the community..." (McCool and Martin, 1994), and represents "an affective positive bond between a person and a place" (Hidalgo and Hernandez, 2001).

Since the meaning of place can be complex, referring as it does to its size, shape, and level, place attachment can also be multifaceted, and the natural physical landscapes, social life, culture, community, and history of places can be involved in building attachment to places (Kaltenborn, 1997).

Generally, it may said that a person's attachment to a place may be built by expressing the sense of belonging and certain purpose that gives meaning to his life. This implies that people have not only a deep and complex attachment to a place that is expressed through emotional and behavioral actions, but also have functional attachment to them. Place attachment usually composes of two dimensions: place dependence, which refers to the level to which individuals perceive themselves as functionally associated with places or groups, and place identity, which represents a people's symbolic/emotional relationship with their natural surrounding, including environment and places.

Traditionally, research on this concept of attachment to a place, particularly in community psychology, has yielded varying results. A review of community psychology literature reveals that the concept of community attachment still lacks a conceptual foundation or a scholarly consensus (Choi, 2003).

Whereas in tourism literature, a number of studies have applied the concept of attachment to tourism (Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004; Harrill and Potts, 2003, Yoon et al., 2001; Vesey & Dimanche, 2000; Jurowski et al, 1997; McCool & Martin, 1994). In general, it is known that people's attachment to a community is expressed in terms of community feeling, length of residency, and place of birth. These attachments may affect their perceptions concerning tourism development. The manner in which community attachment functions in tourism development studies is presented in Table 2.4

Table 2.4 Number of Items or Variable Used in Examining Community Attachment

Community Attachment scale	Study
Level of tourism development	McCool and Martin (1994)
Length of residence or place of birth	McCool and Martin (1994); Harill and Potts (2003); Vesey and Dimanche (2000)
Community involvement	Harill and Potts (2003); Vesey and Dimanche (2000)
2 item scale	Shamai (1991)
3 item scale	Deccio and Baloglu (2002)

4 item scale	Gursoy et al. (2002)
7 item scale	Jurowski et al. (1997)
10 item scale	Yoon (2002)

Source: adapted from Choi (2003)

Although community attachment has been a popular concept to explore, research from various studies shows little in the way of reliably consistent results. One reason that the association of community attachment with key impact variables has not been consistent may be the use of less theoretically tested scale items (Choi, 2003). For example, Um and Crompton (1987), using length of residence and birthplace to study residents' community attachment, found that, except for the environmental dimension, the more attached residents were to a community in terms of length of residence and birthplace, the less positively they perceived tourism development in their community.

Conversely, McCool and Martin (1994) stated that community attachment has a favorable relationship with positive attitudes about tourism and an unfavorable relationship with negative views of tourism. Jurowski (1998) also reported that residents with stronger feelings for their community were more supportive of tourism development and more optimistic about the impacts of tourism on the quality of life in their community. Additionally, Gursoy and Rutherford (2004) stated that attached residents are likely to evaluate the economic and social impacts of tourism positively, which suggests that they are more concerned about positive economic and social benefits. They found a positive relationship between residents' attachment and support for tourism development as well. Concerning the relationship between place attachment and residents' support for tourism, Gursoy et al. (2002) reported that no relationship was found between the two.

Comparatively, the findings of Harrill and Potts (2003) and Vesey and Dimanche (2000) are notable because the authors used virtually the same survey instrument (Lankford and Howard's 1993 TIAS scale) in similar settings (the historic districts of Charleston and New Orleans, respectively). In a study of New Orleans' French Quarter, Vesey and Dimanche (2000) found that community attachment was related to positive perceptions toward tourism development. The authors suggested that residents who have lived in their neighborhood for a long time and are involved with the neighborhood were positive about tourism because of its economic benefits and contributions to historic preservation. In contrast, Harrill and Potts (2003) found that in a study of Charleston's historic district, residents had negative attitudes toward tourism development, indicating that some residents perceived themselves as losing their collective investments, primarily real estate, through property taxes and other taxes used to fund tourism development.

As prior studies indicate that the relationship between community attachment and support for tourism is inconclusive and varies widely in the research, Davidson and Cotter (1986) suggest that sense of community (SOC) is a suitable concept to measure place attachment. Environmental psychology studies have extensively employed the concept of sense of community to define the affective tie linking individual to place. The work of Mannarini, Tartaglia, Fedi, and Greganti (2006) confirms that "the sense of community seems to be a more exhaustive indicator of the ties between people and the urban environment they live in".

To date, no known study has examined the concept of SOC within the context of sustainable tourism development studies in urban area. Like the concept of community attachment, the concept of SOC was identified in various definitions in diverse disciplines. For instance, Unger and Wandesman (1985) define SOC as a "feeling of membership and belongingness and shared socio-emotional ties". Among these, most researchers have agreed that the concept of SOC contains meaning of a special attachment between people

and their social surroundings. Based on this definition, Davidson and Cotter (1986) developed a Scale of Sense of Community (SSC) to consider several concepts, including person-environment congruence, alienation, quality of life, attachment and social interaction, and social support and social networks in an attempt to describe people's connectedness to the geographical boundaries of a community.

Additionally, McMillan and Chavis (1986) offer the following definition of community: "a feeling that members have of belonging, a feeling that members matter to one another and to the group, and a shared faith that members' needs will be met through their commitment to be together." They offered a clearer and more articulate theoretical model of SOC. They further delineated its content in terms of affective, cognitive and behavioral components. When people have a sense that they belong to an identified community, they anticipate receiving resources from that community. People then reciprocate by responding in kind when the community requires something of their resources. In other words, people care for, and are cared for by, those with whom they feel they belong.

In a study done by Choi (2003), it was found that the sense of community can explain previous studies' findings (using a sense of community scale) that highly attached residents to a community in rural area are more likely to support tourism development than those who are less attached.

In conclusion, peoples' attachment to community is apparently an important concept in identifying their relationship with natural and environmental locations, People may have different attitudes and behaviors toward their community depending upon the degree or value of their attachment. As the success of sustainable tourism development is highly affected by tourism stakeholders' support, information about their relationships and attachment to community are an important source of determining sustainable tourism development. Thus, this study applied the concept of SOC in studying key tourism stakeholders' (tourism experts and residents) support of sustainable tourism development.

2.4 Summary

In summary, this chapter provides background concerning the literature on sustainable tourism development that is relevant to this study. The concept of sustainable tourism development is broad and refers to tourism that is long-termed, integrated, participatory, and environmentally, socially, culturally, and economically compatible. Achieving STD requires the support of numerous and diverse parties involved in the tourism industry. These include a wide range of interest groups from public sector agencies to community groups in destinations such as tourism experts and residents.

Among the different theories that have been applied to investigate community attitudes toward tourism, the social exchange theory seems to be the most appropriate in that it facilitates a rational explanation of both the positive and negative impacts of tourism and can apply a test of relationships between and among the exchange factors and their consequences. The assumptions and principles of the theory help to explain the processes involved in the exchanges between tourism resources and people in a community.

Since tourism experts and residents are considered key players that influence the success or failure of sustainable tourism development, their attitudes, perceptions, participation and also involvement must be considered in tourism planning. Consequently, this study will employ the social exchange theory as the principle theory for studying the relationships between the construct (sustainability attitudes, sense of community, perceived positive impact of tourism, and perceived negative impact of tourism), and its results,

including support for tourism attraction development, and support for destination sustainability strategies.

This review provides the basic understanding of the research concepts. Based on this review, further elaboration will be made in the next chapter to develop the hypothetical model and to propose hypotheses for intensive empirical analyses.

CHAPTER III
DEVELOPING A TOURISM DESTINATION SUSTAINABILITY MODEL

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 introduces the background and purpose of the research problem and the purpose of this study. Chapter 2 presents a review of relevant literature that lays the groundwork for the study. In this chapter, based on the literature review in Chapter 2, a hypothesized model is presented in Figure 3.1. It describes the overview of this study which includes the basic concepts of interest and their directional relationships.

3.2 Proposed Hypothetical Model

Within the considerable body of work related to tourism impacts and community attitudes toward tourism, attempts to model community's attitudes toward tourism have been, to date, accompanied by an increasing sophistication of the research tools available to investigate the subject in depth and reveal new relationships. A comprehensive account of tourism impact studies is provided by Weaver and Lawton (2001) who classified community attitudes covered in the literature into two broad areas, which can be summarized as intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Likewise, Andriotis and Vaughan (2003) also present a broad coverage of literature on methodological approaches to measuring community attitudes. Within the extensive quantitative research on community attitudes, Andriotis and Vaughan (2003) argued that quantitative methods can be distinguished according to the statistical techniques they use: bivariate techniques which investigate the influence of single factors and multivariate techniques which investigate the influence of two or more factors. A review of literature in this study shows that the bivariate technique (single factors) is usually examined through the extrinsic dimensions. These refer to variables affecting community's reactions at the macro level which have, therefore, a degree of homogeneity in community, and the intrinsic dimensions which suggest that the community is heterogeneous and, consequently, peoples' perceptions may vary according to their characteristics. Table 3.1 summarizes the extrinsic and intrinsic dichotomy as identified and tested by various studies.

Table 3.1 The Extrinsic and Intrinsic Dichotomy of Community's Attitudes toward Tourism

Factor	Studies
Extrinsic	
- Geogrpahic setting	Liu, Sheldon, and Var (1987)
- Stage of the host destination's development	Doxey (1975); Johnson, Snepenger, and Akis (1994); Long, Perdue, Allen (1990); Madrigal (1994)
- Type of tourists	Yoon, Chen, and Gursoy (1999); Buhalis (2000)
- Seasonality patterns of activity	Butler (1980); Ritchie (1988), Sheldon and Var (1984)
Intrinsic	
- Distance that resident live from tourist zones	Jurowski and Gursoy (2004); Harrill and Potts (2003); Williams and Lawson (2001); Madrigal (1994); Snaith and Haley (1999)
- Economic and/or	McGehee and Andereck (2004); Ko and Stewart (2002);

employment dependency on the tourism	Teye,Sonmez, and Sirakaya (2002); Long,Perdue and Allen (1990); Korca (1998); Um and Crompton (1987); Gursoy, Jurowski, and Uysal (2002); Deccio and Baloglu (2002); Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996)
- Length of residency	McGehee and Andereck (2004); Yoon, Chen, and Gursoy (1999); Snaith and Haley (1999); Lankford (1994); Liu and Var (1986); Sheldon and Var (1984)
- Level of knowledge about tourism and local economy	Lankford (1994), Davis, Allen and Cosenza (1988)
- Ecocentric Attitude	Jurowski,Uysal, and Williams (1997); Gursoy, Jurowski, and Uysal, 2002, Yoon (2002)
- Community Attachment	Gursoy, Jurowski, and Uysal (2002), Yoon (2002); Deccio and Baloglu (2002); Davis, Allen, and Cosenza (1988); McCool and Martin (1994); Lankford and Howard (1993); Um and Crompton (1987)
- Community satisfaction	Ko and Stewart (2002)
- Planning	Long, Perdue, and Allen (1990); McGehee and Andereck (2004)
Socioeconomic factors	
- Gender	McGehee and Andereck (2004); Teye,Sonmez and Sirakaya (2002); Chen (2000); Harill and Potts (2003); Iroegbu and Chen (2001)
- Age	McGehee and Andereck (2004); Chen (2000); Tomljenovic and Faulkner (2000)
- Education	McGehee and Andereck (2004); Teye,Sonmez,and Sirakaya (2002); Hsu (1998); Iroegbu and Chen (2001)
- Income	McGehee and Andereck (2004); Teye,Sonmez,and Sirakaya (2002); Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996)

Sources: adapted from Weaver and Lawton (2001); Andriotis and Vaughan (2003)

Conversely, the attitudes of people in community have also been investigated using multivariate techniques (multiple factor) approaches that, unlike the single factor approaches, examine more than one variable simultaneously. Multiple factor studies recognize that the attitudes of people in community are made up of positive and negative perceptions of the economic, social, and environmental implications of tourism development. In the tourism literature, to date, there are various techniques to examine community attitudes using multiple factors: factor analysis, cluster analysis, and LISREL.

Andriotis and Vaughan (2003) argued that among 28 studies in tourism that used multivariate statistics between factor analysis and cluster analysis in their research, the majority (71.4%, or 20 studies) have used factor analysis. Table 3.2 presents recent attitudinal tourism studies that have utilized factor analysis, cluster analysis, or LISREL.

Table 3.2 Community's Attitudes Studies That Have Utilized Multivariate Techniques

Multivariate Technique Used	Studies
Factor analysis	Andereck, and Vogt (2000); Faulkner and Tideswell (1997); Hsu (2000); Lankford and Howard (1994); Liu, Sheldon, and Var (1987); Korca (1998); Madrigal (1994); McCool and Martin (1994); Perdue, Long, and Allen (1990); Yoon, Chen and Gursoy (1999); Chen (2000); Tomljenovic and Faulkner (2000); Tosun (2002); Kuvan and Akan (2005); Haley, Snaith, Miller (2005); Sirakaya, Teye, and Sonmez (2002); Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, and Vogt (2005)
Cluster Analysis	Davis, Allen, and Cosenza (1988); Ryan and Montogomery(1994); Fredline and Faulkner (2000); Williams and Lawson (2001); Andriotis and Vaughan (2003)
LISREL	Lee and Back (2006); Dyer, Gursoy, Sharma, Carter (2007); Gursoy, Jurowski, and Uysal (2002); Ko and Stewart (2002); Gursoy and Rutherford (2004); Yoon, Gursoy, and Chen, (2001)

While a number of conceptual models and theories have been advanced to explain the relationship between communities' attitudes and perceptions toward tourism development and its impacts, to date, there has yet to be a study that measures the similar and dissimilar relationships among tourism experts and residents' attitudes toward sustainability, sense of community and its tourism impact, and their support for tourism development. Thus, based on the social exchange theory as discussed in the previous chapter, the hypothetical model, as shown in Figure 3.1, proposes that support for STD is related by tourism experts' and residents' attitudes and perceived positive and negative impact of tourism. It suggests that these perceptions are influenced by the tourism experts' and residents' attitudes toward tourism sustainability and their sense of community .The proposed hypothetical model examines the structural relationship among six constructs, consisting of two exogenous constructs: a) sustainability attitudes (SUSATT), b) sense of community (SOC); and four endogenous constructs: c) perceived positive impact of tourism (TDPI), d) perceived negative impact of tourism (TDNI), e) tourism stakeholders' support for tourism attraction development (STAD), and f) tourism stakeholders' support for destination sustainability strategies (SDSS).

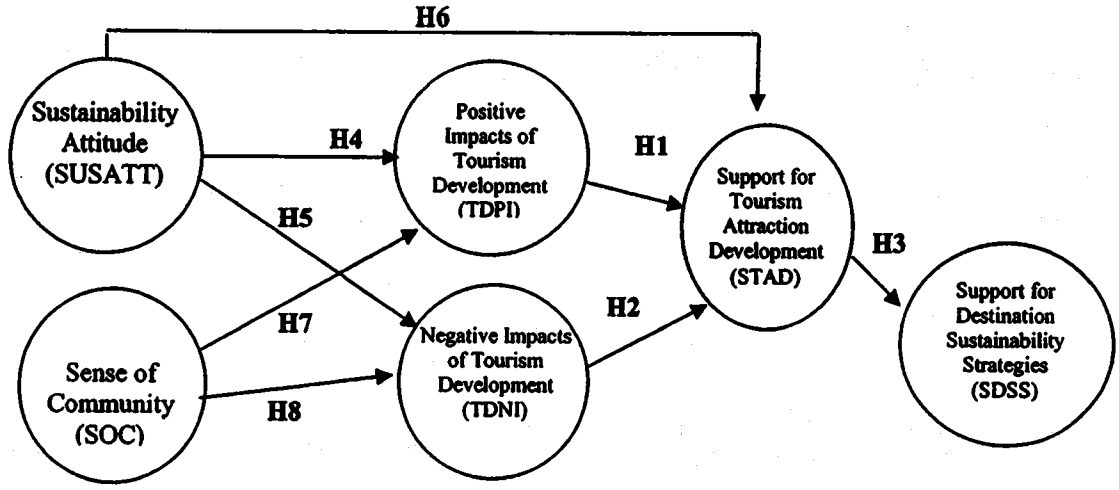

Figure 3.1 Proposed Hypothetical Model

3.3 Research Hypotheses

3.3.1 Community perception and support for tourism development

Several researchers have examined the relationship between tourism stakeholder's attitudes, particularly residents, toward tourism's impact and other effects attributable to tourism in the context of the social exchange theory in rural areas (Andereck et. al., 2005; Gursoy et al., 2002; McGehee and Andereck, 2004, Fredline and Faulkner, 2000; Ap, 1992; Perdue, et al., 1987). However, very few studies have looked at the relationship between how tourism stakeholders (residents and tourism experts) perceive tourism impact and how this perceived impact relate to their support for specific types of tourism attraction in urban areas in developing Asian countries.

As applied to community' attitudes toward tourism, social exchange theory suggests that people are likely to support tourism development as long as they believe that the expected benefits exceed the costs. Furthermore, the way by which people evaluate the positive and negative effects of tourism is influenced by a number of factors and they can be categorized as falling under economic, social, cultural, and environmental factors (Ko and Stewart, 2002; Yoon, et al., 2001).

Using social exchange theory, Perdue et al. (1987), in a study of 16 rural Colorado communities and Ko and Stewart (2002), in a study of Cheju Island, found a positive relationship between perceived positive impact of tourism and support for additional tourism development and negative relationship between perceived negative impact of tourism and support for additional tourism development. Gursoy et al.'s study in five counties surrounding Virginia (2002) reported that community's perceived positive tourism impact has contributed to their support for natural and cultural tourism development. However, these studies only asked respondents to indicate whether they would support or oppose tourism attraction. The level of acceptability of specific types of tourism attraction likely to be supported by resident has received limited studies.

From the above discussion, the question of whether or not perceived tourism impacts affects the level of tourism experts' and residents' support for specific types of tourism attraction within urban areas in developing Asian countries is still an open question that has yet to be fully examined. To address this question, two hypotheses are proposed.

Hypothesis 1: The positive impact of tourism is positively related to support for specific tourism attraction development.
Hypothesis 2: The negative impact of tourism is inversely related to support for specific tourism attraction development.

Pearce (1989) argued that shortsighted and inappropriate tourism planning and strategies often leads to the degradation of the natural, cultural and environmental resources of the community. Attitudes toward strategic planning in tourism were tested in a few studies. McGehee and Andereck (2004) noted that support for additional tourism has a strong positive association with support for tourism planning. Yoon (2002) also indicated that if stakeholders prefer developing a tourist attraction, they were more likely to support destination competitiveness strategies. Thus, a third hypothesis is added.

Hypothesis 3: Support for tourism attraction development is positively related to support for destination sustainability strategies.

Further, two other factors that were found to affect the way tourism is perceived and the manners in which tourism stakeholders react to tourism development were also included in the model: and they are, sustainability attitudes and sense of community, and these are discussed below.

3.3.2 Community attitudes and sustainability in tourism

Sustainable tourism is rooted in sustainable development in the sense that if tourism is to contribute to sustainable development, it must be economically viable, environmentally sensitive and socio-culturally appropriate. Two schools of thought were developed along the lines of sustainable tourism - the functional approach and the political economy approach. Nasser (2003) concluded that both approaches are useful in understanding the true nature of sustainable tourism. The functional approach emphasizes on the considerable economic importance of the industry to all participants. It also focuses on ways by which efficiency may be improved and how the industry's adverse effects may be minimized through good management and appropriate policy measures. The political-economy approach looks at the need for the industry in taking more responsibility in the long-term maintenance of resources by allowing government and local communities to hold higher stakes in tourism development.

Sustainable tourism has been widely viewed as a vehicle by which the negative impacts of tourism can be addressed and by which long-term viability can be achieved. It is praised by Bramwell and Lane (1993) as "being a positive scheme that will reduce the tension and friction ensuing from the evident complex interactions among the tourism industry, tourists, the environment and the host communities".

If local needs are to be met, sustainable tourism requires the participation of local communities. Conversely, local communities that are poorly informed, marginalized or alienated from decision making are likely to respond with inhospitable attitudes toward current and future tourism developments (Butcher, 1997). Visitors need to feel welcomed at a destination. Destinations that fail to provide this genuine hospitality are at a disadvantage to those that do. Hospitality represents the social capital associated with a destination and while it is relatively intangible, it plays a significant role in the sustainability of tourism initiatives.

Researches on comparing between tourism experts' and residents' sustainability attitudes in urban areas are not only limited but also reveal inconsistent results,

highlighting the need for further research. Of the limited existent data, they vary not only in their definition of sustainability but they also put forward different results on stakeholders' attitudes and their preferences regarding the preservation and utilization of tourism resources. In view of the above, the following three additional hypotheses are proposed.

Hypothesis 4: Attitudes toward sustainability are positively related to the positive impact of tourism.
Hypothesis 5: Attitudes toward sustainability are inversely related to the negative impact of tourism.
Hypothesis 6: Attitudes toward sustainability are positively related to tourism stakeholders' support for tourism attraction development.

3.3.3 Community attitudes and sense of community

As stated in Chapter 2, only a few studies have dealt with community attachment in relation to attitudes toward tourism development (McCool and Martin, 1994; Gursoy et al., 2002). As most of these studies show no consistent relationship, Choi (2003) suggested that the definition of community attachment may not be suitable for scrutiny and instead what is appropriate is to emphasize the 'sense of community' and how it influences tourism impacts. McMillan (1996) defined the sense of community as "a spirit of belonging together, a feeling that there is an authority structure that can be trusted, and an awareness that trade and mutual benefit arise by being together, and a spirit that comes from shared experiences that are preserved as art". Schweitzer (1996) emphasized that people who have a strong sense of community reflect more stable feelings of safety and security, actively participate in community affairs, and are more likely to vote, volunteer and offer support. Because community support for tourism is likely to be expressed through welcoming behaviors towards visitors, people in community who have a stronger sense of community seem to have a more positive perception of the impacts of tourism, and will therefore provide more support to tourism. The above discussion leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 7: The sense of community is positively related to the perceived positive impacts of tourism.
Hypothesis 8: The sense of community is inversely related to the perceived negative impacts of tourism.

3.4 Summary

In this chapter, a proposed hypothetical model based on the conceptual framework of six constructs has been elaborated. It specified the relationship and direction among six constructs, consisting of two exogenous constructs: a) sustainability attitudes (SUSATT), b) sense of community (SOC) and four endogenous constructs, c) perceived positive impact of tourism (TDPI), d) perceived negative impact of tourism (TDNI), e) tourism stakeholders' support for tourism attraction development (STAD), and f) tourism stakeholders' support for destination sustainability strategies (SDSS). Based on these considerations, eight hypotheses have been proposed. The next chapter will present the methodological design for the empirical test of these hypotheses.

CHAPTER IV
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The hypotheses developed in the previous chapter were based on a theoretical deduction process. This chapter shows the research methodology used in this study to empirically test the research hypotheses. The first section describes how six constructs comprising the proposed hypotheses model are operationalized and measured. It then proceeds to describe the research design and how the data were collected. The last section of this chapter will provide a discussion of the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)–the main statistical approach applied in this study to test the constructs, the proposed hypothetical model, and the hypotheses.

4.2 Measurement of Construct

It is contended in the literature that every tourism impact study is unique involving "idiosyncratic peculiarities" related to its case, making it difficult to derive "worldwide validity" (Tosun, 2002). Thus, the researcher is encouraged to make necessary adjustments to previously used methods and questions, and attempt to formulate questions not found in existing literature, as called for by the particular case studied. Thus, lists of questions were developed in this study to measure the respondents' attitudes toward tourism in general, and their perception of, and support for sustainable tourism development of an urban destination in this particular area. The questions were developed based on a review of literature and relevant theories, previous empirical studies and results. The final items used were then screened by tourism professors and practitioners and experts. In particular, information was sought concerning (1) exogenous and (2) endogenous constructs:

4.2.1 Exogenous constructs

As shown in Table 4.1, two constructs were measured using a five-point Likert-type scale questionnaire where 1 represents "Strongly Disagree" up to 5 connoting "Strongly Agree".

The first construct referred to sustainability attitude. It was composed of eighteen questions which were further divided into three second-order constructs: nine items for socio-environment, five items related to long-term planning, and four items concerning community participation. These survey questions were extracted from studies done by Choi and Sirakaya (2005).

The second construct pertains to the sense of community. It comprised of twelve questions which were taken from the sense of community index developed by Perkins, Florin, Rich, Wandersman and Chavis (1990).

4.2.2 Endogenous constructs

Endogenous constructs were tested using four constructs as discussed earlier under Conceptual Model. As shown in Table 4.1, a five-point Likert scale was utilized for all items of endogenous constructs (5 = strongly agree or highly support; 1= strongly disagree or not at all support). The perceived impacts of tourism by residents were measured by nine items for perceived positive and eight items for negative impacts. These impact items

were extracted from empirical studies of Yoon et al. (2001); Andereck and Vogt (2000); Ko and Stewart (2002) and McGehee and Andereck (2004).

Queries on support for tourism attraction construct were taken from studies of Yoon (2002); Andereck and Vogt (2000), Jansen-verbeke (1986), and Buhalis (2000). Nine items were used in this study (see Table 2). On the other hand, the items on SDSS were selected from previous studies of Yoon (2002); Ritchie and Crouch (2003), Dwyer and Kim (2003), and Heath (2003). The final items used in this construct were then screened by tourism experts. Through this process a total of 33 items were identified.

Table 4.1 Observed Variables

Tourism Development Positive Impacts (TDPI)[a]

1. Creates jobs and attracts investment (TDPI1)
2. Improves standard of living (TDPI2)
3. Gives economic benefit to local residents (TDPI3)
4. Encourages a variety of cultural activities (TDPI4)
5. Promotes more cultural exchanges between tourists and residents (TDPI5)
6. Preserves the cultural identity of the destination (TDPI6)
7. Improves the image of the destination (TDPI7)
8. Improves the park and recreation areas (TDPI8)
9. Stimulates incentives for the restoration of ancestral buildings (TDPI9)

Tourism Development Negative Impacts (TDNI)[a]

1. Increases cost of living (TDNI1)
2. Increases rate of crime (TDNI2)
3. Encourages prostitution (TDNI3)
4. Disrupts traditional and local cultures (TDNI4)
5. Stimulates increased traffic congestion, noise, and pollution (TDNI5)
6. Leads to overcrowding in destination (TDNI6)
7. Destroys nature and the environment (TDNI7)
8. Influences entry of negative practices in the residents' way of life (TDNI8)

Sustainability Attitude (SUSATT)[a]

- ***Socio-Environment (SSE)***

1. Tourism development must enhance the preservation of the environment.
2. The diversity of nature must be valued and protected.
3. Community environment must be protected and improved for the current and for future generations.
4. Proper tourism development requires that natural habits be protected at all times.
5. Tourism must be developed in harmony with the natural and cultural environment.
6. Tourism development must promote positive environmental ethics among all members of the community.
7. Tourism developers should be strengthening efforts for environmental conservation.
8. Tourism must improve the environment for future generations
9. Regulatory environmental standards are needed to reduce the negative impacts of tourism development.

Table 4.1 Observed Variables (Continued)

- ***Long Term Planning (SLTP)***

1. I believe tourism development requires well-coordinated planning.
2. When planning for tourism, we cannot be shortsighted, but needs to take a long term view of its impacts.
3. I believe that successful management of tourism requires advanced planning.
4. Tourism development plans should be continuously improved.
5. The tourism industry must plan and develop manuals for operation for use in the future.

- ***Community Participation (SCP)***

1. Tourism decisions must be made by all in the community regardless of a person's background.
2. Community residents should have the opportunity to be involved in tourism decision-making.
3. It is acceptable to exclude community residents from tourism development decision in some situations.
4. Everyone in the community must be involved in the processes related to tourism development for sustainable tourism development.

Sense of Community (SOC) [a]

1. I think my destination is a good place for me to live. (SOC1)
2. People on this destination do not share the same values. (SOC2)
3. My neighbors and I want the same things (environment) from the destination. (SOC3)
4. I can recognize most of the people who live on my destination. (SOC4)
5. I feel at home on this destination. (SOC5)
6. Very few of my neighbors know me. (SOC6)
7. I care about what my neighbors think of my actions. (SOC7)
8. I have no influence over what this destination is like. (SOC8)
9. If there is a problem on this destination, people who live here can solve it. (SOC9)
10. It is very important for me to live on this particular destination. (SOC10)
11. People on this destination generally don't get along with each other. (SOC11)
12. I expect to live on this destination for a long time. (SOC12)

Support for Tourism Attraction Development (STAD) [b]

1. Nature-based tourism attraction (STAD1)
2. Cultural or historical-based attraction (STAD2)
3. Attractions designed for large numbers of tourists (STAD3)
4. Cultural and folk events and activities (STAD4)
5. Sports and outdoor recreation facilities, activities and events (STAD5)
6. Meetings, incentives, conventions, and exhibitions (STAD6)
7. Hotels and resorts (STAD7)
8. Restaurants, food and beverages (STAD8)
9. Shopping centers, retail and Souvenirs shop (STAD9)

Table 4.1 Observed Variables (Continued)

Support for Destination Sustainability Strategies) [b]

1. Develop a strong destination image
2. Select appropriate target markets (tourist groups)
3. Overcome seasonality (peak and off-season) in tourists 'visits.
4. Increase tourists' length of stay
5. Increase tourists' expenditure per person per day
6. Improve roads, transportation, infrastructure and access facilities
7. Establish standards for tourism services and facilities
8. Develop safety programs for tourists
9. Develop education and training programs for tourism industry personnel
10. Set up standards for efficient operation of tourism government agencies
11. Set up a department dealing with tourist complaints
12. Establish the cost of providing different levels of quality for various types of tourists
13. Activate local government and agencies' roles as facilitators for tourism development
14. Develop crisis and disaster strategies to limit the severity of rapid change
15. Respond quickly to demands of the media and public when destinations are affected by emergency situations
16. Provide workshop on crisis and disaster management for tourism stakeholders
17. Establish crisis and disaster management units which include representatives from all tourism stakeholders
18. Promote a cluster of tourism businesses that are strongly linked together
19. Expand carrying capacities of tourism sites by recognizing tourism needs.
20. Exploit natural resources sensible
21. Explore environmental considerations in marketing and in tourism strategies
22. Disseminate appropriate knowledge to tourism stakeholders' on sustainable tourism
23. Introduce urgent measures to control environment quality through the use of various kinds of taxes
24. Improve and provide tourism information for tourists (e.g. brochure, handbook, map)
25. Establish information on destination's products and services.
26. Establish information on tourism stakeholders' perception and satisfaction.
27. Establish information systems on competing countries and alliances
28. Establish comprehensive information systems on tourism industry to serve tourism stakeholders.
29. Develop attractive, clear, fast and easy ways to navigate related websites
30. Establish websites providing comprehensive information that allow tourism stakeholders to upload their individual packages
31. Undertake promotion of public relation campaigns that will help tourism stakeholders realize how important know-how of E- tourism is
32. Promote and link websites with popular search engines and tourism websites.
33. Develop software infrastructure for E-tourism that will improve database

a A five-point Likert scale was used measure with assigned values ranging from 1 = "Strongly Disagree" to 5 = "Strongly Agree"

b A five-point Likert scale was used measure with assigned values ranging from 1 = "not at all support" to 5 = "highly support"

4.3 Research Design

4.3.1 Survey design

An initial measurement scale and survey questionnaire was derived from literature review and was reviewed by a panel of tourism professors and practitioners. The purpose of this procedure was to determine if there was a necessity for revision of the survey design, layout, and wording, and if it was necessary to clarify any ambiguous measurement items. Participants were asked to comment on the format of questionnaire- wording, phrases, and the order of questions, and to identify biases and ambiguities.

In a later stage, the revised questionnaire was translated into the Thai language using translation and back-translation to ensure consistency in meaning. The translated version was pilot-tested to ensure that it conveyed the same meaning and would not distort the correct understanding of the intended survey instrument. The Thai version was then pre-tested with 10 tourism experts and residents. This measure was to check the wording, structure and configuration of the questionnaire. Once the final measurement scales and design of the survey questionnaire were confirmed through these steps, the final survey questionnaires were delivered to the randomly selected tourism experts and residents along with the sampling procedures.

Consequently, the survey questionnaires were composed of two main parts. In the first part, the questionnaires asked respondents about their attitudes and perceptions, and support for sustainable tourism development. The second part consisted of questions that included respondents' personal information such as gender, age, marital status, educational level. In addition, respondents were further queried as to whether they had always lived in the area or moved in later, the length of their residence, their employment (in tourism or not), and their birthplace.

4.3.2 Sample size

This study employed Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to test the proposed hypothetical model and hypotheses. Since the number of observations is a critical issue for any statistical analysis and its assumption tests, the sample size should be addressed.

In general, there is no correct sample size in any study, though larger samples are always preferable. However, it has been suggested in SEM that it is acceptable if a minimum ratio of at least 5 respondents for each estimated parameter can be achieved (Hatcher, 1994). It is also more appropriate if a ratio of 10 respondents per parameter is obtained (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black, 1998). However, there are a number of factors that impact the sample size requirements, including model misspecification and estimation procedure (Hair, et al., 1998). Thus, it is recommended that for a maximum likelihood estimation (MLE), as the most common estimation procedure, a sample size of 200 is suitable.

More specifically, since the acceptable level of the final model in SEM is evaluated based on the fit indices, determination of sample size follows previous study results and suggestions. Several studies have reported that there is an association between sample size and the model fit indices, including the incremental fit indices and the absolute fit indices (Bollen, 1989). As a result, the model and number of fit indices such as GFI, AGFI and CFI are relatively and consistently steady across the MLE method at a sample size of 250 or larger when the latent constructs are independent.

Therefore, in order to attain the objectives of this research using SEM, and if a usable sample size of 300 or larger is obtained, the solution for the final structural model

will be acceptable. Thus, the target usable sample size in each group (tourism experts and residents) for this research was at least 300.

4.3.3 Sampling and data collection

The sample for this study was divided into two groups: tourism experts and residents. Concerning tourism experts, the major source for the sampling frame is the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), which has, for over 30 years, been a primary source of information on Thai tourism associations and professional societies.

As experts in the tourism industry in each sub-group could potentially include a large number of representatives (e.g., government tourism officers, tourism associations, tourism-related teaching professionals, and tourism business owners and operators), and as these groups could be segregated into several mutually exclusive sub-populations, this study applied a disproportionate stratified random sampling. This method was chosen to ensure that key tourism experts were represented in the study.

Concerning tourism experts, the sample was drawn from a stratified base of key tourism industry experts (government tourism officers, tourism scholars, and tourism practitioners). These tourism experts were selected because they are the main groups or primary stakeholders of the tourism industry in Thailand who directly work in the tourism industry, have thorough knowledge of destination strategies, management efficiency and tourism attractors, and who are often involved in destination planning and development.

Although these groups share the same basic objectives of identifying and attracting tourism destinations and maximizing tourism revenues to destinations, their needs were considered separately within the strategy because of their different roles within the tourism process. The involvement of tourism government officers is crucial because they are responsible for planning and implementing policies, enforcing regulations, and monitoring development to enhance the STD of destination. Tourism scholars, additionally, are responsible for teaching, researching, and offering advice concerning effective and appropriate tourism strategies to tourism planners and relevant persons in the tourism industry. Tourism business owners and operators, meanwhile, establish tourism strategies that will help them achieve business objectives–including profit maximization, satisfactory cash flow, attraction of new customers, and new product development.

Justification for utilizing tourism experts, as opposed to tourists, has strong support within the destination strategies literature. Gomezelj and Mihalic (2008) argue that "although tourists are well placed to evaluate the normal components of a destination's attractiveness, they are less able to evaluate those factors that influence competitive production, such as destination strategies and management factors". It was necessary to survey individuals who could respond to questions on tourism management. Crouch (2007) asserts that the collective experience, knowledge, and insights of tourism destination managers, researchers, and others who have spent time addressing the challenge of what makes a destination competitive and sustainable can provide a useful starting point for an analysis such as this. Enright and Newton (2004) also draw attention to the fact that it is usual for destination factors to be evaluated by tourism experts and practitioners. Their study suggests that the latter groups' views do constitute accurate measures of the attractors and competitiveness, as well. Furthermore, Gearing, Swart and Var (1974), in particular, argue the case for using respondents who are widely experienced in dealing with tourists rather than the tourists themselves. They suggest that such experts, given their experience, would be able to speak for the tourists, and that each expert opinion would be representative of a large group of tourists.

A target number of completed questionnaires were established by drawing independent samples from each tourism expert group (See Table 4.2). Each group was sampled independently to ensure that it was represented in the study. Details of data collected from each tourism expert group are shown in Table 4.2. Respondents, at least 18 years of age, were approached to participate in the survey.

In Thailand, personal connections are considered a key mechanism for gaining inside information concerning organizations (Rotchankitumnuai and Speece, 2003). The questionnaires were distributed using two methods. The first was distribution of questionnaires by contacting the directors of government tourism officers from such organizations as the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), the Ministry of Tourism and Sports, the deans of tourism-related faculties, and other professionals, including those at Chulalongkorn University, Mahidol University, Bangkok University and Assumption University. These individuals were willing to help the researcher distribute questionnaires to the targeted respondents. As the second method involved only tourism practitioners, the researcher obtained a name list of tourism business owners and operators and permission from an appropriate authority to distribute questionnaires directly to those respondents who attended monthly Tourism Association meetings from December, 2005 to May, 2006. These professional gatherings include organizations such as the Association of Thai Travel Agents (ATTA), the Thai Travel Agents Associations (TTAA), and the Association of Domestic Travel (ADT). A convenience sampling method was applied because it was impossible to control respondents in these open sites. A self-administered questionnaire was distributed and delivered to respondents before the beginning of monthly meetings by the survey team, which was composed of one researcher and two research assistants. The purpose of the survey was immediately explained, i.e., it was being conducted by a PhD student from the Asian Institute of Technology. They were subsequently asked about their willingness to respond. The questionnaire was left with those who agreed to respond and picked up by the survey team at the end of the monthly meetings.

A total of 416 questionnaires (41.6 % response rate) was returned and coded for data analysis. Based on our process, in which we spoke directly to some potential respondents to encourage them to answer, it was discovered that the main reason for no response from some potential respondents was that they did not have time to fill out the questionnaire. Also, their habits are to talk/listen, rather than to read/write (i.e. they are much more comfortable with verbal communication).

Table 4.2 Details of Data Collected from Bangkok Tourism Experts

Group of respondents (% response rates)	N Distributed (%)
Government officials and councils (41.3)	300 (30)
Colleges and Universities (47)	100 (10)
Tourism practitioners (40.8)	600 (60)

Concerning residents, the sample was stratified based on 12 districts in Bangkok. These sampled districts were selected because they provided geographically specific data for various ecological, cultural and socio-economic areas in Bangkok. The chosen locations are shown in Table 4.3. The survey team was composed of one researcher and one research assistant. A self-administered questionnaire was distributed door-to-door using a geographic sampling procedure. This method has resulted in better response rates than other methods in past studies (Andereck and Nickerson, 1997). A target number of completed questionnaires were proportionately allocated based on the relative size of each population among the 12 districts (see Table 4.3). Streets in each of the districts were

randomly selected using city maps. Residents at least 18 years old were approached to participate in the survey. If the resident agreed to participate, a questionnaire was left at the home and picked up by the survey team later that day. From the 1,000 questionnaires distributed, 432 responses (43.2 % response rate) were collected and coded for data analysis. Data collection took place over a 5-month period covering December, 2005 to April, 2006.

Table 4.3 Details of Data Collected from Bangkok Residents

Name of District (% response rates)	N Distributied (%)	Name of District (% response rates)	N Distributied (%)	Name of District (% response rates)	N Distributied (%)
Jatujak (49.2)	120 (12)	Minburi (43.3)	90 (9)	Bangkok Yai (45)	60 (6)
Pravad (41.67)	120 (12)	Talingchan (41.1)	90 (9)	Pranakorn (40)	60 (6)
Bangkok Noi (45)	100 (10)	Ratchtavee (37.8)	90 (9)	Pathumwan (38.3)	60 (6)
Dusit (48.9)	90 (9)	Kannayao (46.7)	60 (6)	Sampantawon (36.7)	60 (6)

4.4 Statistical Method for the Hypotheses Test: Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

The main statistical method used in this study is Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The properties of the six research constructs were tested using the SEM in LISREL 8.54 package software. LISREL is a computer program for covariance structure analysis. It is a multivariate technique which combines (confirmatory) factor analysis modeling from psychometric theory and structural equations modeling associated with econometrics.

SEM is designed to evaluate how well a proposed conceptual model that contains observed indicators and hypothetical constructs can explain or fit the collected data (Bollen, 1989; Hair et al., 1998). It also provides the ability to measure or specify the structural relationships among sets of unobserved (latent) variables (Byrne, 2001). Latent variables are hypothetical constructs that cannot be directly measured. They can only be determined to exist as combinations of other measurable variables. Examples of latent constructs are attitudes and perceptions of value or quality. Obviously, the hypothetical model in this study was designed to measure structural relationships among the unobserved (latent) constructs that are set up on the basis of relevant theories and prior empirical research and results. Thus, the SEM procedure is an appropriate solution for testing the proposed hypothetical model and hypotheses for this study.

According to Chin (1998), the SEM-based analysis has substantial advantages over first-generation statistical techniques for multivariate data analysis because of the greater flexibility that a researcher has for the interplay between theory and data. Specifically, SEM provides the researcher with the flexibility to: 1) model relationships among multiple predictor and criterion variables, 2) construct unobservable latent variables, and 3) model errors in measurement assumptions against empirical data (i.e. confirmatory analysis). Particularly, the application of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) makes SEM ideal for refining and testing construct validity.

In the application of SEM, there are two distinct components: the measurement model and the structural equation model. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) and SEM researchers advocate the "two-step" approach. In the first step, the researcher validates the measurement model through CFA. By using CFA, a priori hypotheses regarding relationships among and between observed items and their underlying latent constructs are evaluated. In this step, the researcher also tests for construct validity by testing construct uni-dimensionality, reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988), each construct in the measurement model should be evaluated and re-specified separately before testing the overall measurement and structural equation model.

Once the overall measurement model is validated, the researcher conducts the second step, which is estimating the structural model. It is the hypothetical model that describes relationships among latent constructs and observed variables that are not indicators of latent constructs. Commonly, this model is known as the component of a general model that relates the constructs to other constructs by providing path coefficients (parameter values) for each of the research hypotheses. Specifically, each estimated path coefficient can be tested for its respective statistical significance to the hypotheses' relationship by t-value (Hair et al., 1998). In general, if an estimated t-value is greater than 1.96, the parameter indicates a statistical significance for test at the .05 level of significance.

This study followed the methods and procedures described above for data analysis. The results of this analysis will be presented in the next chapter.

4.4.1 Merits and limitations of structural equation Model (SEM)

The structural equation models (also referred to as LISREL models) have become very popular in the social science fields, especially in psychology, education, sociology, and marketing. SEM has been used extensively in the USA, but appears to be used less frequently among researchers elsewhere. The low level of interest in SEM is probably due to factors such as a lack of instruction in SEM, few quality examples of SEM applications, issues of concern and usage difficulty, and understanding comparisons with other statistical methodologies.

However, over the past decade, the use of SEM to examine complex questions in education and the social sciences has seen substantial growth in popularity. This increase can be attributed to a number of things, including a greater flexibility in representing relationships among theoretical constructs, an ability to posit latent constructs presumed to be underlying causes of observed manifest variables, the ease in evaluating the general compatibility or "goodness of fit" of a proposed model from the data being examined, and the strength of relationships among constructs (Quintana and Maxwell, 1999).

SEM integrates the best of several analyses, including multiple regression (directional relationships between a set of predictor variables and a dependent variable), path analysis (tests for theoretical relationships among independent and dependent variables and the direct and indirect effects of independent variables on dependent ones), and factor analysis (determining which variables have common variance-covariance characteristics with a latent variable of construct).

Although SEM can be used like factor analysis, there is still an important difference between them. In factor analysis, the observed variables can load on any and all factors (constructs). The number of factors is constrained. When using SEM, confirmatory factor analysis is used and the observed variables are loaded onto particular constructs. The loadings are free or fixed at particular values. Moreover, SEM may be preferable to

conventional statistical methods, for example, where a multiple regression is required to test for several dependent variables from the same set of independent ones, particularly if it is possible for one dependent variable to simultaneously cause another.

The SEM is also a powerful method for effectively dealing with multicolinearity (when two or more variables are highly correlated) which is one of the benefits of SEM over multiple regression and factor analysis.

One weak point of SEM is that all aspects of SEM modeling must be directed by theory, which is critical for model development and modification. A clear misuse of SEM can occur when data are simply fitted to a suitable SEM and theory is then expanded from the analytic result. Moreover, SEM also requires a huge number of study samples, possibly increasing a researcher's expenses and times.

4.5 Summary

This chapter addresses the design for quantitative research in this study. It describes the measurement scales of six constructs under study. All scales are of the five point Likert scale. Data collection was done with a structured questionnaire. It was designed to inquire about tourism experts' and residents' attitudes, perceptions, and support for sustainable tourism development. The chapter ends by introducing Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), the main statistical approach used in this study to assess and refine the measurement scales and to test the hypotheses under study.

CHAPTER V
ASSESSMENT AND REFINEMENT OF THE MEASUREMENT SCALES

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is comprised of ten sections. It describes key characteristics of tourism experts and residents from Bangkok, Thailand. The next sections (5.3, 5.4, and 5.6) present the assessment and refinement of the measurement scales. This procedure begins by applying exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for each construct and then implementing reliability analyses for each construct. In section 5.5 and 5.7, all constructs were considered in a joint factor analysis to conduct a preliminary test of the convergent and discriminant validities. Reliability for the six constructs was conducted again after refining the scales. In the following sections (5.8 through 5.13), the measurement model-construct validation was carried out using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The Linear Structural Equation (LISREL) program was used to test uni-dimensionality, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of all constructs. The chapter ends by summarizing the process and results of the scale refinement which is used for testing the hypothetical model in the next chapter.

5.2 Sample Characteristics

5.2.1 Tourism experts characteristics

As shown in Table 5.1, the sample includes 416 respondents representing tourism experts in Bangkok. In this group, 57.2 % of the respondents were female and 89.9 % had at least 4 years of university education. In terms of age, 26.7% were under 30, 33.9% were between 31 and 40, 27.6 % were between 41 and 50, 9.9% were between 51 and 60, and 1.9% were over 60. Concerning employment, 52.2% were tourism operators or tourist guides while 47.8% were government and council officials, college or university employees or in the others business such as hotel, airline, attractions.

Table 5.1 Tourism experts characteristics

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	178	42.8
Female	238	57.2

Age	Frequency	Percent
Less than 30	111	26.7
31-40	141	33.9
41-50	115	27.6
51-60	41	9.9
More than 60	8	1.9

Education	Frequency	Percent
Primary school	2	0.5
Secondary school	4	1
Technical or Vocational	11	2.6
Diploma or certificate	25	6

University graduate	260	62.5
Post graduate	114	27.4
Born in Bangkok	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Yes	240	57.7
No	176	42.3

Organization for whom their work (directly related to tourism)	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Government officials & Councils	124	29.8
Colleges &Universities	47	11.3
Tour operators/Tourist guides	217	52.2
Others tourism business such as hotel, airline, attractions	28	6.7

5.2.2 Resident characteristics

In Table 5.2, the results of descriptive analysis for socio-demographic information of residents indicated that among the analyzed samples (N= 432), 42.4% of the respondents were male and 75.4% of the group as a whole had at least 4 years of university education. In terms of age, 36.1% were between 21 and 30, 34.3% were between 31 and 40, while 14.6% fell between the ages of 41 and 50. Only 9% of the residents were between 51 and 60. A feature of interest is the residents' employment. Private businesses not directly related to tourism accounted for 64.4% of total employment, while the remainder (35.6%) included government and council officials, college or university employees, and other jobs.

Table 5.2 Resident characteristics

Gender	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Male	183	42.4
Female	249	57.6

Age	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Up to 20	17	3.9
21-30	156	36.1
31-40	148	34.3
41-50	63	14.6
51-60	39	9
More than 60	9	2.1

Education	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Primary school	2	0.5
Secondary school	41	9.5
Technical or Vocational	21	4.9
Diploma or certificate	42	9.7
University graduate	268	62
Post graduate	58	13.4

Born in Bangkok	Frequency	Percent
Yes	291	67.4
No	141	32.6
Organization for whom their work (indirectly related to tourism)	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Government officials & Councils	52	12
Colleges & Universities	47	10.9
Private business	278	64.4
Others	55	12.7

5.3 Assessment and Refinement of the Scales

In this research, the analytical process was carried out in several steps. To assess the unidimensionality of the constructs, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was first employed. For extracting factors in EFA, there are two basic methods: common factor analysis and principal component factor analysis. Common factor analysis explores the latent dimensions represented in the original variables, while principle component factor analysis focuses on item reduction (Conway and Huffcutt, 2003). In this step, the main objective of using EFA is to identify the latent dimensions represented in the original variables for each construct in the model. Thus, common factor analysis with principle axis factoring, promax rotation and eigenvalue >1 was chosen to apply to each of the six constructs under investigation. For a construct to be empirically unidimensional, the EFA must result in only one factor extraction. Moreover, all of its scale items must load significantly on the factor extracted. In this research, items with low factor loading (<.50) were deemed unqualified and deleted (Hair et. al., 1998).

Second, given the constructs' unidimensionality, Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's alpha) was applied to every set of indicators for each construct. Reliability, a fundamental issue in any measurement scale, is the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable. It is usually measured by internal consistency reliability that indicates the homogeneity of items comprising a measurement scale. The meaning of internal consistency is the extent to which its items are inter-correlated. Thus, high inter-item correlations demonstrate that the items of a scale have a strong relationship to the latent construct and are possibly measuring the same thing. Usually, the internal consistency of a measurement scale is assessed by using Cronbach's coefficient alpha and calculating the Cronbach's alpha along with the item-to-total correlation for each item examined in the overall reliability of the measurement scale. It is generally recommended that if a measurement scale for each construct having alpha over .70 is acceptable, as an internal consistency scale, further analysis is possible (Hair et al., 1998). Moreover, items with low item-total correlation coefficients were used for assessment.Values lower than .50 were deleted entirely.

Third, after assessing the factor analysis of each construct, the items included within a factor in "SUSATT" construct and "SDSS" construct were calculated to extract the summated scales. A summated scale is method of combining several variables that measure the same concept into a single variable in an attempt to increase the reliability of the measurement (Hair et al., 1998). Summated scales for each factor of both constructs were then utilized as observed variables to measure the two latent constructs for further analysis. The remaining four constructs (TDPI, TDNI, SOC, and STAD) consisted of items that were measured directly in subsequent analysis.

Fourth, a preliminary assessment of convergent and discriminant validities was made. Convergent validity is a form of construct validity, which refers to the degree to which multiple attempts to measure the same concept are in agreement (Campbell and Fiske, 1959). It deals with the question "do the items intended to measure a single latent construct statistically converge" (Garver and Mentzer, 1999). Operationally, convergent validity is assessed by the extent to which the latent construct correlates to items designed to measure that same latent construct. On the other hand, discriminant validity is also a form of construct validity, but it represents the extent to which measures of different concepts are distinct (Campbell and Fiske, 1959). Discriminant validity is assessed by the extent to which the items representing a latent construct discriminate that construct from other items representing other latent constructs (Garver and Mentzer, 1999).

For a preliminary assessment of convergent and discriminant validity, a joint factor analysis was performed on all items of the construct together. In this analysis, principal axis factoring and eigenvalue ≥ 1 were used. These selections allow each item to load freely on any factor and the resulting factors are allowed to correlate with each other. The result was then used to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of the six underlying constructs. Items with significant loading $\leq .50$ on any factor or those having substantial loadings on more than one factor were deleted from further analysis. Lastly, Cronbach alphas for the refined scales were calculated.

After these steps and setting the criteria, SPSS software was used to separately analyze the data set of 416 participants in the tourism expert group and 432 participants in the resident group.

5.3.1 Assessment and refinement of the scales in tourism experts

TDPI was originally measured by nine items. Factor analysis of these items resulted in one factor being extracted. However, the item "TDPI1" was not qualified because of its low coefficient (.364) and "TDPI5" was deleted because its item-total correlation is .473, which was less than the threshold (.50). With the refined scale for the 7 remaining items, the results indicated all loading coefficients ranged from .504 to .738. The reliability analysis of the seven items resulted in a Cronbach alpha of .820 and an item-total correlation range from .524 to .646. This refined scale is thus acceptable. The result for this scale assessment is presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Scale Assessment Results-TDPI

	Original Scale		Refine Scale	
	Factor loading	Item-total correlation	Factor loading	Item-total correlation
TDPI				
TDPI 1	**.364**	**.321**	**Deleted**	**Deleted**
TDPI 2	.623	.576	.575	.524
TDPI 3	.568	.530	.504	.558
TDPI 4	.665	.604	.608	.547
TDPI 5	.522	**.473**	**Deleted**	**Deleted**
TDPI 6	.682	.596	.738	.646
TDPI 7	.687	.618	.725	.646
TDPI 8	.622	.548	.667	.593
TDPI 9	.570	.516	.597	.541
	Variance extracted:		Variance extracted:	

	35.64%		46.36%	
	Eigenvalue: 3.21		Eigenvalue: 2.83	
	Alpha: .826		Alpha: .820	

As shown in Table 5.4, TDNI is measured by eight items. The results show that the item "TDNI1" is disqualified due to its low loading (.481). This item was therefore deleted. With the refined scale comprising 7 remaining items, the results of factor loadings show that all items load higher than the threshold of .50 (.673 to .805). Together, they explain 55.59% of total variance with an eigenvalue of 3.89. Reliability testing shows a Cronbach alpha of .896. Item-total correlations range from .637 to .765. The results in Table 5.4 indicate that the refined scale comprising the 7 remaining items is suitable for further study.

Table 5.4 Scale Assessment Results-TDNI

	Original Scale		Refine Scale	
	Factor loading	Item-total correlation	Factor loading	Item-total correlation
TDNI				
TDNI 1	.481	.457	Deleted	Deleted
TDNI 2	.778	.739	.758	.717
TDNI 3	.715	.673	.708	.669
TDNI 4	.681	.645	.673	.637
TDNI 5	.802	.747	.805	.752
TDNI 6	.717	.668	.724	.677
TDNI 7	.803	.746	.820	.765
TDNI 8	.712	.663	.719	.672
	Variance extracted: 51.51%		Variance extracted: 55.59%	
	Eigenvalue: 4.12		Eigenvalue: 3.89	
	Alpha: .892		Alpha: 896	

SOC was originally measured by 12 items (see Table 5.5). Factor analysis of these items resulted in one factor extracted. However, the item "SOC2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11" was deleted because of its low coefficient. A closer examination of the questionnaire indicates that these items may be confusing in the Thai version or possibly are the only four items remaining that are appropriate for exploring within the Thai context and further study may be appropriate. The remaining four items were factor-analyzed again and this resulted in one factor extracted with loading coefficients ranging from .553 to .734. Reliability analysis of the four items has resulted in a Cronbach alpha of .737 and an item-total correlation range from .517 to .752. The refined scale is thus acceptable and is presented in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Scale Assessment Results–SOC

	Original Scale		Refine Scale	
	Factor loading	Item-total correlation	Factor loading	Item-total correlation

SOC				
SOC 1	.635	.547	.626	.518
SOC 2	.309	.260	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 3	.282	.189	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 4	.363	.234	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 5	.665	.577	.657	.752
SOC 6	.048	.075	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 7	.071	.057	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 8	.005	.077	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 9	.477	.322	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 10	.564	.530	.553	.517
SOC 11	.191	.220	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 12	.622	.562	.734	.672
	Variance extracted: 51.51%		Variance extracted: 51.73%	
	Eigenvalue: 4.12		Eigenvalue: 1.67	
	Alpha: .536		Alpha: .737	

The results of STAD are shown in Table 5.6. STAD was originally measured by nine items. Factor analysis resulted in the items "STAD 1, 2, 3, 4" being deleted because their factor loading and item-total correlations were less than the threshold (.50). With the refined scale for the 5 remaining items, the results indicated all loading coefficients ranged from .517 to .854. They explain 52.93% of total variance with an eigenvalue of 2.65. Reliability testing shows a Cronbach alpha of .838 and item-total correlations range from .502 to .741. Therefore, the refined scale can be used for further analysis.

Table 5.6 Scale Assessment Results-STAD

	Original Scale		Refine Scale	
	Factor loading	Item-total correlation	Factor loading	Item-total correlation
STAD				
STAD 1	.323	.304	Deleted	Deleted
STAD 2	.454	.437	Deleted	Deleted
STAD 3	.374	.344	Deleted	Deleted
STAD 4	.598	.470	Deleted	Deleted
STAD 5	.620	.577	.517	.502
STAD 6	.673	.602	.637	.603
STAD 7	.765	.643	.854	.741
STAD 8	.772	.647	.848	.731
STAD 9	.714	.624	.724	.649
	Variance extracted: 41.06%		Variance extracted: 52.93%	
	Eigenvalue: 3.33		Eigenvalue: 2.65	
	Alpha: .818		Alpha: .838	

In Table 5.7, the sustainability attitude was originally measured by eighteen items. Factor analysis of these items resulted in three factors extracted: nine items from socio-environment (SSE), five items from long-term planning (SLTP), and four items from community participation (SCP). However, one item "SSE1" from socio-environment factor and two items, "SCP1 and SCP4" from community participation factor, did not qualify because of their low item-total correlation, which was less than the threshold (.50).

With the refined scale for the eight items from the socio-environment factor, five items from long-term planning, and two items from community participation, the results indicate all loading coefficients ranged from .503 to .880. They explain 26.11%, 20.04%, and 13.76% of total variance with an eigenvalue of 3.92, 3.0, and 2.06 (socio-environment, long-term planning, and community participation, respectively). Reliability testing shows a Cronbach alpha of .843, while item-total correlations range from .501 to .718 in the socio-environment factor, a Cronbach alpha of .799 and item-total correlations ranging from .539 to .648 in the long-term planning factor, and a Cronbach alpha of .860 and item-total correlations in the range of .510 to .580 in the community participation factor. The refined scale is therefore acceptable and it is presented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7 Scale Assessment Results-SUSATT

	Original Scale		Refine Scale			
		Item-total correlation	Factor loading	Factor loading	Factor loading	Item-total correlation
SUSATT			SSE	SLTP	SCP	
SSE 1		**.348**	Deleted			Deleted
SSE 2		.519	.750			.501
SSE 3		.575	.747			.580
SSE 4		.636	.703			.665
SSE 5		.686	.728			.706
SSE 6		.697	.661			.718
SSE 7		.638	.616			.651
SSE 8		.532	.545			.529
SSE 9		.533	.503			.542
SLTP 1		.625		.523		.647
SLTP 2		.535		.795		.547
SLTP 3		.525		.793		.539
SLTP 4		.666		.617		.698
SLTP 5		.575		.670		.600
SCP 1		**.177**			Deleted	Deleted
SCP 2		.510			.880	.580
SCP 3		.535			.865	.510
SCP 4		**.342**			Deleted	Deleted
			Variance extracted: 26.11%	Variance extracted: 20.04%	Variance extracted: 13.76%	Variance extracted: 59.91%
			Eigenvalue 3.92	Eigenvalue 3.00	Eigenvalue 2.06	
	Alpha: .875		Alpha: .843	Alpha: .799	Alpha: .860	

Finally, after assessing the factor analysis, eight items from the socio-environment factor, five items from the long-term planning factor, and two items from the community participation factor were calculated to extract the summated scales. Summated scales in each factor of this construct were then utilized as observed variables to measure the "SUSATT" construct in subsequent analysis.

5.3.2 Factor analysis of support for destination sustainability strategies (SDSS) of tourism experts

For the SDSS construct, the 33 identified items first needed to be streamlined. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with varimax rotation was performed for the purposes of reducing the number of variables from the observed items in the measurement scale. Eigenvalues greater than 1 were used for factor inclusion. In order to ensure that each factor identified by EFA had only one dimension and each attribute loaded only on one factor, attributes that had a factor loading of lower than 0.40 and attributes loading on more than one factor with a loading score equal to or greater than 0.40 on each factor were eliminated from the analysis (Hattie, 1985). EFA procedure may help to decrease multicolinearity or error variance correlation among indicators in the CFA of the measurement model (Hair et al., 1998).

Table 5.8 Factor Loading of Support for Destination Sustainability Strategies of Tourism Experts

Item Description	Factor Loading[b]
Factor 1: Destination Management Organizations and Practices (DMOP)[a]	.731
1. Provide workshop on crisis and disaster management for tourism stakeholders	.712
2. Establish crisis and disaster management units which include representatives from all tourism stakeholders	.654
3. Set up a department dealing with tourist complaints	.650
4. Develop crisis and disaster strategies to limit the severity of rapid change	.637
5. Respond quickly to demands of the media and public when destinations are affected by emergency situations	.591
6. Establish the cost of providing different levels of quality for various types of tourists	.547
7. Activate local government and agencies' roles as facilitators for tourism development.	.516
8. Promote a cluster of tourism businesses that are strongly linked together	
Variance Explained = 14.82 % Alpha = 0.905	
Factor 2: Information Technology Provision and Development (ITPD)[a]	.794
1. Establish websites providing comprehensive information that allow tourism stakeholders to upload their individual packages	.765
2. Undertake promotion of public relation campaigns that will help tourism stakeholders realize how important know-how of E- tourism is	.728
3. Promote and link websites with popular search engines and tourism websites	.692
4 Develop software infrastructure for E-tourism that will improve databases	.657
5. Develop attractive, clear, fast and easy ways to navigate related websites	.501
6. Establish information systems on competing countries and alliances	
Variance Explained = 13.42% Alpha = 0.877	
Factor 3: Standardization of Service Facilities Development (SSFD)[a]	.741
1. Develop safety programs for tourists	.714
2. Develop education and training programs for tourism industry personnel	.700
3. Establish standards for tourism services and facilities	.675
4. Set up standards for efficient operation of tourism government agencies	.657
5. Improve roads, transportation, infrastructure and access facilities	

Variance Explained = 13.16% Alpha = 0.875	
Factor 4: Sustainable Management and Practices (SMP) [a]	
1. Introduce urgent measures to control environment quality through the use of various kinds of taxes	.685
2. Explore environmental considerations in marketing and in tourism strategies	.578
3. Improve and provide tourism information for tourists (e.g. brochure, handbook, map)	.569
4. Expand carrying capacities of tourism sites by recognizing tourism needs	.517
Variance Explained = 10.86 % Alpha = 0.747	
Factor 5: Marketing Efforts and Activities (MFA) [a]	.776
1. Increase tourists' length of stay	.748
2. Overcome seasonality (peak and off-season) in tourists 'visits	.668
3. Increase tourists' expenditure per person per day	.577
4. Develop a strong destination image	
Variance Explained = 9.72 % Alpha = 0.758	

Note: a Indicators extracted from the summated scales.
b Total variance explained by Tourism experts = 49.59 % ; Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin KMO) = 0.942 ; Bartlett's test of sphericity = 7556.723, df = 435, p =0.000

The results of EFA in Table 5.8 show the five factors which were derived from 27 SDSS items, explaining 49.59 % of the variance. To test the appropriateness of the factor analysis, two measures were used. First, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was 0.942, which fell within the acceptable range. Secondly, the Bartlett's test of sphericity was 7,556.723, significant at p = 0.000, which showed a significant correlation among the variables. Table 3 shows the factor loading of each item, variance explained, and coefficient alphas of each factor. All of the factor loadings were over .50 and had an eigenvalue > 1.0. The first factor explained 14.82 percent of the variance with an alpha of .905. This factor was termed "Destination Management Organizations and Practices (DMOP)" on the basis of the interpretation of the overall item context. The item having the highest loading was "provide workshop on crisis and disaster management for tourism stakeholders", followed by the item "establish crisis and disaster management units which include representatives from all tourism stakeholders."

The second factor explained 13.42 percent of the variance with an alpha of .877. This factor was termed "Information Technology Provision and Development (ITPD)," since all of the variables loading on this factor were related to information technology, such as "establish website and develop software infrastructure for E-tourism". The third factor, with an alpha of .875, explained 13.16 percent of the variance. This factor was termed "Standardization of Service Facilities Development (SSFD)." The item having the highest loading was "develop safety programs for tourists", followed by the item "develop education and training programs for tourism industry personnel", while the lowest loading item was "improve roads, transportation, infrastructure, and access facilities."

The fourth factor explained 10.86 percent of the variance with an alpha of .747. Based on an examination of each item loaded, this factor was considered as "Sustainable Management and Practices (SMP)". The retained items were associated in terms of how to develop and manage sustainable tourism in destinations.

The fifth and last factor explained 9.72 percent of the variance with an alpha of .758. This factor was termed "Marketing Efforts and Activities (MFA)," since all of the items loading on this factor were related to marketing strategies and actions such as "increase tourists' length of stay, overcome seasonality (peak and off-season) in tourist visits", "increase tourist expenditure per person per day", and "develop a strong destination image".

Subsequently, the identified items within a factor were calculated to extract the summated scales. The summated scales in each factor were then utilized as observed

variables to measure the SDSS construct for the preliminary assessment of convergent and discriminant validities.

5.3.3 The preliminary assessment of convergent and discriminant validities of tourism experts

After the assessment of unidimensionality and reliability of each construct, 31 out of 46 items were qualified for further analysis. These items were then put into a common factor analysis with principal axis factoring extraction and an eigenvalue of 1 as a criterion (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003). This approach allows each item to be able to load freely on any factor. The results in Table 5.9 show that six factors were extracted. To test the appropriateness of the factor analysis, two measures were used. First, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was .863, which fell within the acceptable range. Second, the Bartlett's test of sphericity was 6582, significant at p=0.000, which showed a significant correlation among the variables (Hair et al., 1998). For all 31 items there were no high item loads on more than one factor, while each item load was substantially on a single factor. This result supports a preliminary justification of the discriminant and convergent validity of the scales of six constructs. The final validation of these scales would be further analyzed by using Confirmatory Factor Analysis with LISREL program.

Table 5.9 Results: Joint Factor Analysis of Tourism Experts

Items						
	1	2	3	4	5	6
SDSS						
DMOP	.865					
SMP	.759					
SSFD	.726					
ITPD	.708					
MFA	.543					
STAD						
STAD8		.864				
STAD7		.852				
STAD9		.729				
STAD6		.639				
STAD5		.504				
TDNI						
TDNI 7			.820			
TDNI 5			.801			
TDNI 2			.759			
TDNI 6			.726			
TDNI 8			.722			
TDNI 3			.711			
TDNI4			.674			
SUSATT						
SSE				.876		
SLTP				.759		
SCP				.546		
TDPI						
TDPI 6					.739	

TDPI 7					.715	
TDPI 8					.675	
TDPI 4					.624	
TDPI 9					.594	
TDPI 2					.576	
TDPI 3					.500	
SOC						
SOC12						.728
SOC5						.663
SOC1						.640
SOC10						.558
Cronbach alpha	.859	.838	.896	.702	.820	.737
Eigenvalues	4.431	4.347	4.038	3.765	3.57	1.862

The common factor analysis also resulted in the factor correlation matrix in Table 5.10. Consequently, TDPI and SUSATT have significant correlation with other factors. None of the remaining factors has non-significant correlation with any other factors. The results indicate initial support for the hypothesized relationships presented in Chapter 3. This supports the data for further verification, analysis, and testing of the hypothetical models.

Table 5.10 Factor Correlation Matrix of Tourism Experts

	SUSATT	SOC	TDPI	TDNI	STAD	SDSS
SUSATT	1.00					
SOC	0.02	1.00				
TDPI	0.20	0.17	1.00			
TDNI	0.10	-0.06	-0.18	1.00		
STAD	0.38	0.13	0.24	0.02	1.00	
SDSS	0.55	0.05	0.29	0.02	0.59	1.00

5.3.4 Assessment and refinement of the scales in residents

The construct TDPI is measured by nine items. The results show that only two items ("TDPI 1"and "TDPI 9") loaded coefficient and item-total correlation lower than the threshold of .50. The remaining seven items were factor analyzed again and resulted in one factor extracted with loading coefficients ranging from .543 to .680. The reliability analysis of the seven items resulted in a Cronbach alpha of .816 and an item-total correlation range from .502 to .667. This refined scale is thus acceptable. The summary results are in Table 5.11

Table 5.11 Scale Assessment Results-TDPI

	Original Scale		Refine Scale	
	Factor loading	Item-total correlation	Factor loading	Item-total correlation
TDPI				
TDPI 1	**.354**	**.315**	Deleted	Deleted
TDPI 2	.671	.610	.659	.537
TDPI 3	.562	.514	.543	.502

TDPI 4	.572	.515	.594	.525
TDPI 5	.561	.512	.564	.503
TDPI 6	.737	.654	.740	.667
TDPI 7	.679	.606	.680	.606
TDPI 8	.601	.532	.596	.539
TDPI 9	.522	.469	Deleted	Deleted
	Variance extracted: 35.24%		Variance extracted: 47.95%	
	Eigenvalue: 3.17		Eigenvalue: 2.77	
	Alpha: .823		Alpha: .816	

The construct TDNI is measured by eight items. The results in Table 5.12 show that all loading coefficients range from .536 to .820. Item-totals ranged from .509 to .774, which is well above threshold value (.50). The Cronbach alpha of .902 is acceptable.

Table 5.12 Scale Assessment Results-TDNI

	Original Scale		Refine Scale	
	Factor loading	Item-total correlation	Factor loading	Item-total correlation
TDNI			Keep original scale	
TDNI 1	.536	.509		
TDNI 2	.808	.763		
TDNI 3	.788	.746		
TDNI 4	.660	.627		
TDNI 5	.819	.774		
TDNI 6	.687	.645		
TDNI 7	.820	.772		
TDNI 8	.722	.681		
	Variance extracted: 54.159%			
	Eigenvalue: 4.33			
	Alpha: .902			

The SOC was originally measured by twelve items. Factor analysis of these items resulted in one factor extracted. However, the item "SOC2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11" was deleted because of its low coefficient or low item-total correlation. A close investigation of the questionnaire shows that these items may be confusing in the Thai version or possibly are the only four items remaining that are appropriate for exploring within the Thai context and further study may be appropriate. The remaining four items were factor-analyzed another time and resulted in one factor being extracted with loading coefficients ranging from .612 to .776. A reliability analysis of the four items has resulted in a Cronbach alpha of .786. The refined scale is thus acceptable and is shown in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13 Scale Assessment Results-SOC

	Original Scale		Refine Scale	
	Factor loading	Item-total correlation	Factor loading	Item-total correlation
SOC				
SOC 1	.731	.502	.704	.592
SOC 2	**.270**	**.193**	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 3	**.268**	**.188**	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 4	.724	.526	.776	.651
SOC 5	.666	.500	.702	.610
SOC 6	**.074**	**.116**	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 7	**.048**	**.018**	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 8	**.164**	**.230**	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 9	.430	**.293**	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 10	.518	**.432**	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 11	**.043**	**.104**	Deleted	Deleted
SOC 12	.648	.503	.612	.540
	Variance extracted: 21.31%		Variance extracted: 49.14%	
	Eigenvalue: 2.55		Eigenvalue: 1.97	
	Alpha: .611		Alpha: .786	

The STAD was originally measured by nine items. Factor analysis resulted in the items "STAD 1, 2, 3" being deleted because their factor loading was less than the threshold (.50). With the refined scale for the 6 remaining items, the result indicates all loading coefficients ranged from .500 to .804. They explain 48.09% of total variance with an eigenvalue of 2.71. Reliability testing shows a Cronbach alpha of .822. The refined scale is therefore acceptable and is shown in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14 Scale Assessment Results–STAD

	Original Scale		Refine Scale	
	Factor loading	Item-total correlation	Factor loading	Item-total correlation
STAD				
STAD 1	**.225**	**.265**	Deleted	Deleted
STAD 2	**.245**	**.254**	Deleted	Deleted
STAD 3	**.266**	**.248**	Deleted	Deleted
STAD 4	.566	.529	.528	.509
STAD 5	.517	.500	.500	.498
STAD 6	.684	.556	.697	.642
STAD 7	.733	.589	.744	.635
STAD 8	.791	.637	.804	.695
STAD 9	.677	.534	.700	.616
	Variance extracted: 31.75%		Variance extracted: 48.09%	
	Eigenvalue:		Eigenvalue:	

	2.86		2.71	
	Alpha: .760		Alpha: .822	

As with the group of tourism experts, sustainability attitude in residents was originally measured by eighteen items. Factor analysis of these items resulted in three factors extracted: nine items from socio-environment, five items from long-term planning, and four items from community participation. However, similar to the tourism expert results, one item, "SSE1" from the socio-environment factor, and two items, "SCP1 and 4" from the community participation factor, were not qualified because their low item-total correlations were less than the threshold (.50).

With the refined scale for the eight items from the socio-environment factor, five items from long-term planning, and two items from community participation, the results indicate all loading coefficients ranged from .502 to .902. They explain 21.91%, 23.19%, and 12.86% of total variance with an eigenvalue of 3.48, 3.29, and 1.93 for the factors socio-environment, long-term planning, and community participation, respectively. Reliability testing shows a socio-environment Cronbach alpha of .843 and item-total correlations range from .503 to .659, a Cronbach alpha of .799 and item-total correlations ranging from .517 to .660 for the long term planning factor, and a Cronbach alpha of .860 and item-total correlations ranging from .519 to .742 for the community participation factor. The refined scale is therefore acceptable and is shown in Table 5.15

Table 5.15 Scale Assessment Results-SUSATT

	Original Scale		Refine Scale			
		Item-total correlation	Factor loading			Item-total correlation
SUSATT			**SSE**	**SLTP**	**SCP**	
SSE 1		.300	Deleted			Deleted
SSE 2		.576	.769			.545
SSE 3		.582	.763			.565
SSE 4		.643	.698			.658
SSE 5		.518	.656			.542
SSE 6		.657	.643			.653
SSE 7		.633	.502			.659
SSE 8		.581	.774			.503
SSE 9		.579	.850			.596
SLTP 1		.620		.617		.660
SLTP 2		.503		.629		.517
SLTP 3		.557		.717		.574
SLTP 4		.575		.700		.598
SLTP 5		.505		.746		.523
SCP 1		.220			Deleted	Deleted
SCP 2		.554			.902	.519
SCP 3		.577			.888	.742
SCP 4		.356			Deleted	Deleted
			Variance extracted: 21.91%	Variance extracted: 23.19%	Variance extracted: 12.86%	Variance extracted: 57.97%
			Eigenvalue 3.48	Eigenvalue 3.29	Eigenvalue 1.93	

	Alpha: .871		Alpha: .843	Alpha: .799	Alpha: .860	

After assessing the factor analysis, eight items from the socio-environment factor, five items from long term planning, and two items from community participation were calculated to extract the summated scales. Summated scales in each factor of this construct were then utilized as observed variables to measure the "SUSATT" construct of the residents group in a following study.

5.3.5 Factor analysis of support for destination sustainability strategies (SDSS) of residents

Similar to the procedure and criteria for evaluating the tourism experts, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed on 33 items relating to SDSS. The eigenvalues greater than 1 were used for factor inclusion. Table 5.16 shows the factor loading of each item, variance explained, and coefficient alphas of each factor. The results of EFA in the resident group point to five factors which were derived from 27 SDSS items, explaining 56.56 % of the variance. To test the appropriateness of the factor analysis, two measures were used. The first, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), was 0.930, which fell within the acceptable range. Secondly, the Bartlett's test of sphericity was 5,472.387, significant at $p = 0.000$, which showed a significant correlation among the variables (Hair, et al., 1998).

Table 5.16 Factor Loading of Support for Destination Sustainability Strategies of Residents

Item Description	Factor Loading[b]
Factor 1: Destination Management Organizations and Practices (DMOP)[a]	
1. Establish crisis and disaster management units which include representatives from all tourism stakeholders	.773
2. Provide workshop on crisis and disaster management for tourism stakeholders	.744
3. Develop crisis and disaster strategies to limit the severity of rapid change	.599
4. Respond quickly to demands of the media and public when destinations are affected by emergency situations	.592
5. Set up a department dealing with tourist complaints	.537
6. Promote a cluster of tourism businesses that are strongly linked together	.502
7. Establish the cost of providing different levels of quality for various types of tourists	.475
8. Activate local government and agencies' roles as facilitators for tourism development.	.45
Variance Explained = 14.14 % Alpha = 0.853	
Factor 2: Information Technology Provision and Development (ITPD)[a]	
1. Develop software infrastructure for E-tourism that will improve databases	.749
2. Establish websites providing comprehensive information that allow tourism stakeholders to upload their individual packages	.738
3. Undertake promotion of public relation campaigns that will help tourism stakeholders realize how important know-how of E- tourism is	.722
4. Promote and link websites with popular search engines and tourism websites	.657
5. Develop attractive, clear, fast and easy ways to navigate related websites	.643
6. Establish comprehensive information systems on tourism industry to serve tourism stakeholders	.586
7. Establish information systems on competing countries and alliances	.531
Variance Explained = 14.51 % Alpha = 0.865	
Factor 3: Standardization of Service Facilities Development (SSFD)[a]	
1. Develop safety programs for tourists	.657
2. Establish standards for tourism services and facilities	.656
3. Improve roads, transportation, infrastructure and access facilities	.635
4. Set up standards for efficient operation of tourism government agencies	.551

5. Develop education and training programs for tourism industry personnel	.515
Variance Explained = 12.76% Alpha = 0.814	
Factor 4: Sustainable Management and Practices (SMP) [a]	
1. Introduce urgent measures to control environment quality through the use of various kinds of taxes.	.685
2. Explore environmental considerations in marketing and in tourism strategies	.678
3. Disseminate appropriate knowledge to tourism stakeholders' on sustainable tourism	.504
4. Expand carrying capacities of tourism sites by recognizing tourism needs.	.502
Variance Explained = 9.09 % Alpha = 0.74	
Factor 5: Marketing Efforts and Activities (MFA) [a]	
1. Increase tourists' expenditure per person per day	.761
2. Increase tourists' length of stay	.636
3. Select appropriate target markets (tourist groups)	.555
Variance Explained = 6.06 % Alpha = 0.71	

Note: a Indicators extracted from the summated scales.
b Total variance explained by Residents= 56.56 % ; Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin KMO) = 0.930 ; Bartlett's test of sphericity = 5,472.387, df = 378, p =0.000

The first factor explained 14.51 percent of the variance with an alpha of .865. This factor was termed "Information Technology Provision and Development (ITPD)," since all of the variables loading on this factor were related to information technology, such as "develop software infrastructure for e-tourism", "establish websites providing comprehensive information", and "establish comprehensive information systems".

The second factor explained 14.14 percent of the variance with an alpha of .853. This factor was termed "Destination Management Organizations and Practices (DMOP)".The item having the highest loading was "establish crisis and disaster management units which include representatives from all tourism stakeholders", while the lowest loading item was "activate local government and agency roles as facilitators for tourism development." Basically, all items in this construct were associated with destination management organizations' role in terms of how to develop and market tourism destinations.

The third factor explained 12.76 percent of the variance with an alpha of .814. This factor was termed "Standardization of Service Facilities Development (SSFD)." The item having the highest loading, similar to results with tourism experts, was "develop safety programs for tourists", followed by the item "establish standards for tourism services and facilities". The lowest loading item was "develop education and training programs for tourism industry personnel."

The fourth factor explained 9.09 percent of the variance with an alpha of .74. This factor was termed "Sustainable Management and Practices (SMP)" because all of the items loading on this factor were related to sustainable tourism management, such as, "introduce urgent measures to control environment quality", "explore environmental considerations in tourism strategies", "disseminate appropriate knowledge to tourism stakeholders on sustainable tourism", and "expand carrying capacities of tourism sites".

The fifth and last factor explained 6.06 percent of the variance with an alpha of .71. This factor was termed "Marketing Efforts and Activities (MFA)." The included items were "increase tourist expenditures per person per day", "increase tourists' length of stay", and "select appropriate target markets (tourist groups)".

Subsequently, the identified items within each factor were calculated to extract the summated scales. Afterward, summated scales in the factors were utilized as observed variables to measure the SDSS construct of the resident group in subsequent analysis.

5.3.6 The preliminary assessment of convergent and discriminant validities of residents

After the assessment of the unidimensionality and reliability of each construct, 33 of 46 items qualified for further analysis. These items were then put into a common factor analysis with principal axis factoring extraction and an eigenvalue of 1 as a criterion (Conway and Huffcutt, 2003).The results in Table 5.17 show that six factors were extracted. To test the appropriateness of the factor analysis, two measures were used. First, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was .863, which fell within the acceptable range. Second, the Bartlett's test of sphericity was 6582, significant at p=0.000, which showed a significant correlation among the variables (Hair et al., 1998). Of the 33 items, none loaded highly on more than one factor and each item loaded substantially on one single factor. This result supports a preliminary justification of the discriminant and convergent validity of the scales of six constructs. The final validation of these scales would be further examined by using Confirmatory Factor Analysis with the LISREL program.

Table 5.17 Results of Joint Factor Analysis of Residents

Items	1	2	3	4	5	6
SDSS						
SSFD	.805					
ITPD	.772					
DMOP	.786					
SMP	.777					
MFA	.558					
TDNI						
TDNI7		.818				
TDNI5		.821				
TDNI2		.812				
TDNI3		.791				
TDNI8		.726				
TDNI6		.686				
TDNI4		.660				
TDNI1		.534				
TDPI						
TDPI6			.755			
TDPI7			.692			
TDPI2			.645			
TDPI8			.602			
TDPI4			.587			
TDPI5			.564			
TDPI3			.540			
STAD						
STAD8				.830		
STAD7				.766		
STAD9				.700		
STAD6				.679		
STAD4				.518		
STAD5				.503		
SOC						

SOC5					.728	
SOC1					.710	
SOC12					.607	
SOC4					.751	
SUSATT						
SSE						.912
SLTP						.710
SCP						.634
Cronbach alpha	.850	.902	.816	.822	.786	.725
Eigenvalues	4.716	4.835	4.102	4.171	2.236	3.124

Common factor analysis also resulted in the factor correlation matrix in Table 5.18. Consequently, TDPI and STAD have significant correlation with the other factors. Also, none of the remaining factors has a non-significant correlation with any other factor. This data supports further verification, analysis, and testing of the hypothetical models.

Table 5.18 Factor Correlation Matrix of Residents

	SUSATT	SOC	TDPI	TDNI	STAD	SDSS
SUSATT	1.00					
SOC	-0.02	1.00				
TDPI	0.17	0.08	1.00			
TDNI	0.04	-0.10	-0.29	1.00		
STAD	0.31	0.19	0.33	-0.14	1.00	
SDSS	0.56	0.06	0.40	0.04	0.48	1.00

5.4 Measurement Model-Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

After the assessment using Cronbach alpha and EFA, this step begins the application of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) by LISREL 8.54 software for the validation of the key properties of measures including unidimensionality, which is defined as the existence of one latent trait underlying the data. Linear Structural Relationship (LISREL) program is a comprehensive model-fitting program that can analyze the full range of standard structural equation models. With the graphical feature interface, it allows models to be specified by drawing them on the screen. After the drawing is complete, the program automatically interprets the specified model and begins the analysis. Similar to other programs (Amos, EQS), it provides various fit indices.

To support unidimensionality, construct validity, including convergent validity (the degree to which two measures of the same concept are correlated) and discriminant validity (the degree to which two conceptually similar concepts are distinct), is also used to evaluate the structural equation modeling process.

CFA is an analysis that specifies the posited relation of the observed variables to the causal latent constructs. In CFA, the unidimensionality of a latent construct is judged by the overall fit of the model including of the latent construct and its measurement items.

Convergent validity is assessed by observing the factor coefficient of each item of a construct given its unidimensionality. This type of validity can be assessed in the measurement model by estimating t-tests of factor loadings, as well as the corresponding significance (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). When all factor loadings for the indicators in the same construct are statistically significant in the CFA, it may be said that evidence of the supporting convergent validity of the construct is present.

Across-construct discriminant validity is applied in this study because all investigated constructs are conceptually defined as unidimensional. Discriminant validity is defined as a measure of the indicators of dissimilar constructs that theoretically and empirically should not be related to each other (Hair et al., 1998). With the CFA, items from one factor should neither load nor converge too closely with items from another factor. Different latent variables that correlate too highly may be measuring the same construct rather than different constructs. Discriminant validity is achieved when the model including all constructs receives a satisfactory level of fit and the correlation between any two latent constructs is less than unity (<.85) (Kline, 1998).

In the validation process each construct is subject to the CFA to evaluate its unidimensionality and convergent validity. For unidimensionality in this research, items with a t-value lower than ±1.96 at the .05 significant level, low factor loading (<.50), low squared multiple correlation (<.30), and high standard error (> .70) were deemed unqualified and deleted (Hair et al., 1998; Bollen, 1989; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Subsequently, the full overall measurement model including six constructs together was subject to the CFA to evaluate across-construct discriminant validity.

To estimate parameters in CFA, the commonly used method is Maximum Likelihood –ML (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). ML estimation is the default method in many model-fitting programs. This method has several important properties, such as being asymptomatically unbiased, efficient, consistent, and scale free (Bollen, 1989).

In addition, according to the LISREL program, the modification indices (MI) also show how the fitness of the model could be improved through re-specification of the model, such as deleting or adding parameters, and adjusting error-correlated indicators. According to Yoon (2002),

"in adjusting the error-correlated indicators (error covariances), there are three options that can be followed to improve the model fit: 1) one of the correlated indicators can be deleted, 2) the estimation of two error-correlated indicators can be performed by estimating the error covariances, and 3) the summate scales from two error-correlated indicators can be used to recreate the covariance matrices. However, the specification of correlated errors or the deleting or adding of parameters for the purpose of improving the model fit should be done based on a theoretical or empirical justification"

5.4.1 Goodness of fit

When the LISREL program is calculated, three types of model fit measures are demonstrated: absolute fit measures, incremental fit measures, and parsimonious fit measures. Among the absolute model fit measures commonly used to evaluate the model are the chi-squares test ($\chi 2$), the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), and the root mean square error approximation (RMSEA). The first indicator of goodness-of-fit is the chi-square value. It is interpreted as a test of significance of the difference in fit between the tested model and a just-identified version of it; a low $\chi 2$ ought to be desired. However, two problems when using the chi-square statistic as a fit index should be considered (Kline, 1998):

- Although the chi-square's lower bound is always zero, theoretically, it has no upper bound. Its values, thus, are not interpretable in a standard way.
- The chi-square statistic is very sensitive to sample size. A large sample size ($\geq$ 200) produces a chi-square statistic that is almost always significant ($p < 0.05$), even though differences between observed and model-implied covariance are slight.

To overcome these shortcomings, this study complements the chi-square measure with other goodness-of-fit measures which are more standardized and less sensitive to sample

size. To select a set of fit indices, this study follows the goodness-of-fit measures for the structural model recommended by Hair et al. (1998). Three types of goodness-of-fit measures are taken into account, including absolute model fit measures, incremental fit measures, and parsimonious fit measures (Table 5.19).

Table 5.19 Goodness-of-Fit

Measures	Acceptable fit
Absolute model fit measures:	
Chi-square statistic	Non significance
Goodness of fit index – GFI	Higher values indicate better fit, however, Recommended level ≥ .90
Root mean square error approximation-RMSEA	Acceptable values ≤.05
Incremental model fit measures:	
Nonnormed fit index – NNFI	Recommended level ≥ .90
Adjusted goodness-of –fit index (AGFI)	Higher values indicate better fit, however, Recommended level ≥ .90
Comparative fit index (CFI)	Higher values indicate better fit , no established thresholds
Parsimonious fit measure:	
Normed chi-square (chi-square/dF)	≤5.0

As another absolute fit index, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI) represents the overall degree of fit, indicating a non-statistical measure ranging in value from zero (poor fit) to 1.0 (perfect fit). Thus, a higher score indicates a better fit. The root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) represents a close approximation of fit relative to the degrees of freedom that could be expected if the model is estimated from the population, not just from the sample drawn for the estimate. The acceptable values of RMSEA are lower than .05 (Hair et. al., 1998).

From the second class of measures provided by LISREL, the incremental fit can be evaluated in order to compare the proposed model to other baseline models. The adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), as an extension of the GFI, is adjusted by the ratio of degrees of freedom for the proposed model to the degrees of freedom for the null model. The normed fit index (NFI), which ranges from zero (poor fit) to 1.0 (perfect fit), is also used for a relative comparison of the proposed model to the null, or independent, model. It is recommended in both measures that larger values indicate higher levels of fit.

The third class of measures, the parsimonious fit, includes normed chi-square (chi-square/dF). It is suggested that a good fitting model will obtain a value lower to or equal to 5.0. Thus, smaller values indicate higher levels of goodness-of-fit.

5.5 Testing Unidimensionality and Convergent Validity for Each Construct (Tourism Experts)

This section presents the results of application of the LISREL program to the data set of tourism experts. In the validation process, each construct is subject to the CFA to evaluate its unidimensionality and convergent validity. The test of unidimensionality and convergent validity of all constructs resulted in three scales that were fully qualified and three others which needed refinement.

The qualified scales include the SUSATT, the SOC, and the SDSS. The entire construct was qualified because the model fit indices and the t-test result of each item in every construct achieved a satisfactory result. The results of model fit indices and

coefficients are presented in Table 5.20. Consequently, all items of these scales were acceptable and kept for further analysis.

Table 5.20 Scales with All Acceptable Items (Tourism Experts)

Item	coefficients	Model fit indices
SUSATT		
SSE	0.89	The model is saturated, the fit is perfect
SLTP	0.75	
SCP	0.58	
SOC		
SOC 1	0.63	Chi-square =4.49 dF= 2 p=0.105
SOC 5	0.65	GFI = 0.99 AGFI = 0.97 CFI =0.99
SOC10	0.56	RMSEA = 0.05 NNFI =0.98
SOC 12	0.73	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 2.245
SDSS		
DMOP	0.89	Chi-square =7.14 dF= 4 p=0.13
ITPD	0.70	GFI = 0.99 AGFI = 0.97 CFI = 1
SSFD	0.76	RMSEA = 0.044 NNFI =0.99
SMP	0.78	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 1.785
MFA	0.54	

As noted earlier in section 5.10, for unidimensionality, items in this research with t-values lower than ±1.96 at the .05 significance level, low factor loading (<.50), low squared multiple correlation (<.30), and high standard error (> .70), were deemed unqualified and deleted.

Concerning the TDPI, some items indicated by model fit indices such as the RMSEA (.12>.05) were disqualified. The modification index from the CFA result (see Table 5.21) indicated that the error term of item "TDPI3" was disqualified because the coefficient value and squared multiple correlations are lower than the threshold. Moreover "TDPI3" and "TDPI9" also had high covariance with the other items. These two items were deleted from the model and, consequently, the model fit indices improved.

The TDNI scale has been refined in the same way. The model fit indices of the TDNI had an RMSEA (.17>.05) and an AGFI (.78<.90). The modification index indicates that the error terms of three items "TDNI3", "TDNI6", and "TDNI8" have high covariances with other items. They were thus deleted from this scale. With the refined scale comprised of the 4 remaining items, this model achieved a satisfactory level of the goodness-of-fit model.

The scale of the STAD was also refined in the same way. The goodness-of-fit indices showed an RMSEA (.16>.05), an AGFI (.84<.90), and a normed chi-square of 11.76>5. An examination of MI revealed that in this model of the STAD, the error term of "STAD5" highly covaried with the other error terms. Moreover, this item also had factor loading values which were too short. It was subsequently deleted from the model. As a result, the model fit indices improved significantly.

The results of the refined scales and model fit indices of these constructs are presented in Table 5.21. The model fit indices of these three constructs has been improved significantly.

Table 5.21 Scales Refined With Better Model Fit Indices (Tourism Experts)

Items	Coefficients	Model fit indices
TDPI		

TDPI 2	.60	Chi-square = 91.46 dF= 14 p= .00
TDPI 3	.48	GFI = .94 AGFI = .88 CFI = .94
TDPI 4	.60	RMSEA = .12 NNFI = .92
TDPI 6	.76	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 6.53
TDPI 7	.75	
TDPI 8	.67	
TDPI 9	.59	
Refined scale		
TDPI 2	.61	Chi-square = 8.04 dF= 5 p= .15
TDPI 4	.60	GFI = .99 AGFI = .98 CFI = 1.00
TDPI 6	.79	RMSEA = .03 NNFI = .99
TDPI 7	.77	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 1.61
TDPI 8	.64	
TDNI		
TDNI 2	.75	Chi-square = 183.15 dF= 14 p= .00
TDNI 3	.70	GFI = .89 AGFI = .78 CFI = .94
TDNI 4	.67	RMSEA = .17 NNFI = .91
TDNI 5	.80	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 13.07
TDNI 6	.74	
TDNI 7	.82	
TDNI 8	.73	
Refined scale		
TDNI 2	.74	Chi-square = 4.36 dF= 2 p= .11
TDNI 4	.68	GFI = .99 AGFI = .97 CFI = 1.0
TDNI 5	.84	RMSEA = .05 NNFI = .99
TDNI 7	.74	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 2.18
STAD		
STAD 5	.46	Chi-square = 58.80 dF= 5 p= .00
STAD 6	.60	GFI = .95 AGFI = .84 CFI = .95
STAD 7	.88	RMSEA = .16 NNFI = .91
STAD 8	.88	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 11.76
STAD 9	.72	
Refined scale		
STAD 6	.61	Chi-square = 4.45 dF= 2 p= .11
STAD 7	.87	GFI = .99 AGFI = .97 CFI = 1.0
STAD 8	.89	RMSEA = .05 NNFI = .99
STAD 9	.71	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 2.17

At this point in the research, the scales of six constructs were refined. Referring back to the criteria described in the previous section, it could be concluded that after refining, all scales in each construct achieved unidimensionality because their re-specified models had satisfactory levels of overall fit (Garver and Mentzer, 1999). Moreover, an examination of the t-value of factor loading of each of the 25 items in relation to its target construct showed that they were statistically significant (t-value greater than ≥ 1.96). This is evidence of the supporting convergent validity of all 6 constructs. Now, the 25 remaining items measuring the six constructs were ready to be tested for the discriminant validity of the scales presented in the following sections.

5.6 Testing Discriminant Validity in Tourism Experts

Discriminant validity is verified in this section by examining the correlations between any two constructs which are free to correlate with one another provided that the model receives a satisfactory level of fit. Discriminate validity is achieved when all correlations are ≤.85 (Kline, 1998).

Thus, the full measurement model (the saturated model) consists of six constructs linked to one another by double-headed arrows. It has 15 pairs of correlations to be estimated. The LISREL results (see Table 5.22) show the following fit indices: a chi-square =440.28, a dF=260, a GFI=.92, an AGFI=.90, a CFI=.98, an RMSEA=.04, an NNFI of .97, and a normed chi-square=1.69. As explained in Section 5.9, a significant chi-square value obtained when the sample size is larger than 200 is not a critical violation. Other fit indices are satisfactory. These figures indicate that the full measurement model has achieved a satisfactory fit to the data. Consequently, the final measurement model is comprised of 25 measurement items for 6 constructs.

Table 5.22 Overall Measurement Model Fit Indices (Tourism Experts)

Goodness-of-fit measures	Results
Absolute fit measures:	chi-square =440.28; dF = 260; GFI =.92; RMSEA =.04
Incremental fit measures:	AGFI = .90; CFI = .98; NNFI .97
Parsimonious fit measure:	normed chi-square = 1.69.

The application of the CFA to the model subsequently resulted in an estimate of the standardized correlation between 15 pairs of constructs forming the 6 constructs under investigation. The figures in Table 5.23 show that all correlations are less than .85. Thus, the scales for all 6 constructs have achieved discriminant validity.

Table 5.23 Standardized Correlations between Each Construct (Tourism Experts)

Standardized correlation between			Estimate
SUSATT	↔	TDPI	.19
SUSATT	↔	TDNI	.10
SUSATT	↔	STAD	.36
SUSATT	↔	SDSS	.74
SUSATT	↔	SOC	.02
SOC	↔	TDPI	.16
SOC	↔	TDNI	-.07
SOC	↔	STAD	.10
SOC	↔	SDSS	.02
TDPI	↔	TDNI	-.16
TDPI	↔	STAD	.23
TDPI	↔	SDSS	.27
TDNI	↔	STAD	.02
TDNI	↔	SDSS	.04
STAD	↔	SDSS	.60

In addition, as seen in Table 5.24, the estimated standardized coefficient of the factor loadings on their posited underlying construct yielded statistically significant results at the level of .05. Each observed item exceeded the recommended level of a t-value (±1.96). The twenty-five items of standardized factor loading ranged from .47-.84. Therefore, it can be concluded that the overall measurement scale achieved convergent validity of the constructs.

Table 5.24. Standardized loading and t-values (Tourism Experts)

	Standardized loading	t-values
TDPI2	.51	10.25
TDPI4	.60	12.40
TDPI6	.78	17.14
TDPI7	.78	17.02
TDPI8	.64	13.42
TDNI2	.74	16.45
TDNI4	.68	14.74
TDNI5	.84	19.52
TDNI7	.77	17.30
SOC1	.64	12.31
SOC5	.64	12.41
SOC10	.56	10.63
SOC12	.73	14.28
STAD6	.60	12.76
STAD7	.88	21.55
STAD8	.88	21.85
STAD9	.71	16.14
SSE	.82	18.09
SCP	.47	9.23
SLTP	.81	17.75
DMOP	.84	20.45
ITPD	.69	15.30
SSFD	.80	18.88
SMP	.79	18.47
MFA	.62	13.37

5.7 Testing Unidimensionality and Convergent Validity for Each Construct (Residents)

This section presents the results of the application of the LISREL program to the data set of residents. The test of unidimensionality and convergent validity of all constructs resulted in three scales that were fully qualified and three other scales in need of refinement.

As with the tourism experts, a similar procedure was followed and similar results were obtained. The scales of the SUSATT, the SOC, and the SDSS were qualified because the model fit indices and t-test results of each item in every construct achieved a satisfactory result. All items in each construct were statistically significant (t-value ≥ 1.96). The results of model fit indices and coefficients are presented in Table 5.25. As a result, all items of these scales were acceptable and kept for further analysis.

Table 5.25 Scales with All Acceptable Items (Residents)

Item	Coefficients	Model fit indices
SUSATT		The model is saturated, the fit is perfect
SSE	.94	
SLTP	.70	
SCP	.62	
SOC		
SOC 1	0.72	Chi-square =3.03 dF= 2 p=0.22
SOC 4	0.78	GFI = 0.99 AGFI = 0.93 CFI =0.98
SOC 5	0.69	RMSEA = 0.034 NNFI =0.95
SOC 12	0.60	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 1.515
SDSS		
DMOP	0.77	Chi-square =7.40 dF= 4 p=0.12
ITPD	0.78	GFI = 0.99 AGFI = 0.97 CFI = 1.0
SSFD	0.76	RMSEA = 0.044 NNFI =0.99
SMP	0.79	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 1.85
MFA	0.58	

The scale for the TDPI disqualified items which were indicated by the RMSEA=.11 and the AGFI = 0.89. The examination of the MI revealed that, in this model for the TDPI, the error term of "TDPI3" highly co-varied with the error term of other items. This item was deleted from the model. Moreover, according to the results of the MI, the error terms of "TDPI4" had extremely high co-variances with the error terms of "TDPI5". Looking at the items TDPI4 ("encourages a variety of cultural activities") and TDPI5 ("promotes more cultural exchanges between tourists and residents"), it is noted that they were conceptually and empirically associated with tourism's cultural impact (Yoon, 2001) Thus, for this study, the summated scales between TDPI4 and TDPI5 were calculated and used to re-specify the model of the CFA. This procedure is beneficial in that the original items are not ignored so that information related to these items could be interpreted for practical purposes (Yoon, 2002). However, as noted in section 5.10, the re-specification of the correlated error for the purpose of improving the model fit should be done based on a theoretical or empirical justification. Subsequently, the model fit indices improved.

As shown in Table 5.26, the scale of the TDNI was refined in the same way. The model fit indices of the TDNI had an RMSEA=.16, a GFI=.87, and an AGFI=.77. "TDNI1" was a disqualified item because it had a high standard error and low squared multiple correlations (R^2). The modification index also indicated that error terms of the two items, "TDNI6" and "TDNI8", had high co-variances with other items. Thus, they were deleted from this scale. Moreover, the error terms of "TDNI2" had remarkably high covariances with the error terms of "TDNI3".

Looking at items TDNI2 (increases rate of crime) and TDNI3 (encourages prostitution), we can see that the two items are conceptually and empirically associated with tourism social impacts. The summated scales between TDPI4 and TDPI5 were then calculated and the items recreated for estimating the refined scale.

The refined scale comprising the 4 remaining items and the re-specified model resulted in a chi-square of 5.02 with 2 degrees of freedom that is not significant at a level of .05. All other fit indices also showed that the data fit the model with the GFI=.99, the AGFI=.97, and the RMSEA=.048. Consequently, this model achieved a satisfactory level of goodness-of-fit model.

The STAD scale presented (see Table 5.26) disqualified items which were indicated by a RMSEA (.19>.05), an AGFI (.77<.90), and a normed chi-square

(16.01>5.0), which is greater than the threshold (5.0). Based on an examination of the MI to improve the fitness of the model, it was noted that the error term of "STAD9" was highly correlated with the error term of other items. Subsequently, STAD9 was eliminated. Additionally, the error terms between "STAD4" and "STAD5", and "STAD7" and "STAD8" were highly correlated with each other. After examining items STAD4 ("cultural and folk events and activities") and STAD5 ("sports and outdoor recreation facilities, activities and events"), it was concluded that these two items could be combined into one, so that the statement would read "cultural, folk, sports and outdoor recreation facilities, activities, and events". Accordingly, the summated scales between these items were calculated in order to create a new item to utilize in the refined scale. In addition, since every correlated error covariance must be justified and substantially interpreted, the correlated error between "STAD7" (hotels and resorts) and "STAD8" (restaurants, food and beverages), could be justified on the basis of studies done by Yoon (2002). Those studies indicated that the respondents supported both "hotel and resort", and "restaurant, food, and beverages" as tourism attractions, and these indicators successfully measured the construct of supporting tourism attraction development. Consequently, covariance between these two items was deemed acceptable.

After this refinement, the model fit indices improved. Overall, the model is satisfactory and fits the data well, having a chi-square value of 1.78 with 2 degrees of freedom (p= .18) and other appropriate goodness-of-fit indices (a GFI = 1.00, an AGFI=.98, and an RMSEA=.04).

Table 5.26 The Scales Refined With Better Model Fit Indices (Residents)

Items	Coefficients	Model fit indices
TDPI		
TDPI 2	.64	Chi-square = 87.90 dF= 14 p= .00
TDPI 3	.53	GFI = .94 AGFI = .89 CFI = .95
TDPI 4	.63	RMSEA = .11 NNFI = .93
TDPI 5	.61	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 6.27
TDPI 6	.75	
TDPI 7	.69	
TDPI 8	.61	
Refined scale		
TDPI 2	.60	Chi-square = 8.34 dF= 5 p= .12
TDPI 4_5	.61	GFI = .99 AGFI = .98 CFI = 1.0
TDPI 6	.79	RMSEA = .04 NNFI = .99
TDPI 7	.71	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 1.66
TDPI 8	.64	
TDNI		
TDNI 1	.54	
TDNI 2	.81	Chi-square = 249.63 dF= 20 p= .00
TDNI 3	.79	GFI = .87 AGFI = .77 CFI = .94
TDNI 4	.66	RMSEA = .16 NNFI = .92
TDNI 5	.82	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 12.48
TDNI 6	.70	
TDNI 7	.81	
TDNI 8	.72	

Refined scale		
TDNI 2_3	.83	Chi-square = 5.02 dF= 2 p= .05
TDNI 4	.67	GFI = .99 AGFI = .97 CFI = 1.0
TDNI 5	.83	RMSEA = .048 NNFI = .99
TDNI 7	.78	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 2.5
STAD		
STAD 4	.69	
STAD 5	.63	Chi-square = 144.14 dF= 9 p= .00
STAD 6	.63	GFI = .90 AGFI = .77 CFI = .91
STAD 7	.81	RMSEA = .19 NNFI = .85
STAD 8	.85	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 16.01
STAD 9	.69	
Refined scale		
STAD 4_5	.67	Chi-square = 1.78 dF= 2 p= .18
STAD 6	.81	GFI = 1.00 AGFI = .98 CFI = 1.0
STAD 7	.64	RMSEA = .04 NNFI = .99
STAD 8	.63	Normed chi-square (Chi-square/dF) = 0.89

5.8 Testing Discriminant Validity in Residents

The same procedure was employed to evaluate discriminant validity in residents as in tourism experts. The full measurement model (saturated model) consists of six constructs linked to one another by double-headed arrows. It has 15 pairs of correlations to be estimated. The LISREL results (see Table 5.27) show the following fit indices: a chi-square =440.28, a dF=260, a GFI=.92, an AGFI=.90, a CFI=.98, an RMSEA=.04, an NNFI=.97, and a normed chi-square=1.69. The fit indices were satisfactory, aside from a significant chi-square value (when the sample size is larger than 200, this result isn't a critical violation). All these figures indicate that the full measurement model achieves a satisfactory fit to the data. Consequently, the final measurement model is comprised of 25 measurement items for 6 constructs.

Table 5.27 Overall Measurement Model Fit Indices (Residents)

Goodness-of-fit measures	Results
Absolute fit measures:	chi-square =498.70; dF = 259; GFI =.92; RMSEA =.046
Incremental fit measures:	AGFI = .90; CFI = .97; NNFI .96
Parsimonious fit measure:	normed chi-square = 1.91.

The application of the CFA to the model resulted in an estimate of the standardized correlation between 15 pairs of constructs forming the 6 constructs under examination. Consequently, the scales for all 6 constructs achieved discriminant validity since all standardized correlations between each construct were less than .85 (see Table 5.28).

Table 5.28 Standardized Correlations between Each Construct (Residents)

Standardized correlation between			Estimate
SUSATT	↔	TDPI	.21
SUSATT	↔	TDNI	.04
SUSATT	↔	STAD	.36
SUSATT	↔	SDSS	.66
SUSATT	↔	SOC	.05
SOC	↔	TDPI	.14
SOC	↔	TDNI	-.12
SOC	↔	STAD	.19
SOC	↔	SDSS	.10
TDPI	↔	TDNI	-.28
TDPI	↔	STAD	.37
TDPI	↔	SDSS	.39
TDNI	↔	STAD	-.19
TDNI	↔	SDSS	-.02
STAD	↔	SDSS	.54

As shown in Table 5.29, each item in every construct had an estimated coefficient standardized factor loading which exceeded the recommended level of a t-value (±1.96). Twenty-five items of the standardized factor loading ranged from .55-.87. Therefore, it was concluded that the overall measurement scale attained convergent validity of the constructs.

Table 5.29 Standardized loading and t-values (Residents)

	Standardized loading	t-values
TDPI2	.61	12.72
TDPI4_5	.63	13.33
TDPI6	.77	17.26
TDPI7	.71	15.53
TDPI8	.63	13.33
TDNI2_3	.83	19.99
TDNI4	.67	14.84
TDNI5	.83	20.09
TDNI7	.78	18.31
SOC1	.72	15.45
SOC4	.79	17.09
SOC5	.68	14.34
SOC12	.60	12.37
STAD4_5	.70	14.51
STAD6	.77	16.19
STAD7	.55	10.78
STAD8	.63	12.82
SSE	.87	20.26
SCP	.62	13.21
SLTP	.76	17.00
DMOP	.74	20.45
ITPD	.83	17.32
SSFD	.83	20.44

SMP	.75	17.43
MFA	.55	11.71

5.9 Summary

This chapter first described sample characteristics. It then reported the procedure and results of the EFA and CFA to assess and refine measurement scales of the six constructs composing the overall measurement model.

The application of the EFA consisted of two steps, using the SPSS programs. First, the EFA and the reliability analysis were applied to assess and refine each of six original scales between tourism experts and residents. Through this process, 15 items were deleted from the original 46 in tourism experts and 13 items were deleted from the original 46 in residents.

The remaining items for tourism experts and residents, 31 and 33 respectively, were subjected to a common factor analysis for preliminary assessment of unidimensionality, convergent and discriminant validity. This process resulted in a set of 6 satisfactory constructs.

Subsequently, the application of the CFA by using the LISREL program consisted of two further steps. First, the CFA was applied to each of 6 constructs to affirm unidimensionality and convergent validity. This resulted in 6 more items from tourism experts and 8 more from residents being eliminated from further analyses. Overall, the 6 constructs consisting of the 25 remaining items in both groups achieved a satisfactory level of unidimensionality and convergent validity. Second, the CFA was applied to the overall measurement model where all possible correlations between any pairs of eight constructs were less than .85. Thus, the discriminant validity of the 6 scales in the overall measurement model was supported by the data set for both tourism experts and residents.

In conclusion, the unidimensionality, reliability, and convergent and discriminant validity of the 6 constructs in tourism experts and residents were confirmed by the data set. For both groups, the 25 indicators for the 6 constructs are acceptable for further analyses.

CHAPTER VI
TESTING THE MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

6.1 Introduction

As indicated in the previous chapter, all measurements of the examined construct were acceptable after refinements were made. They represented the results of the first step of a two-step approach to Structural Equation Modeling (Hair et al., 1998). This chapter continues with the second step, which involves the application of the LISREL to estimate the proposed hypothetical model.

The organization of this chapter will begin with the introduction (6.1) and will be followed by reports in section 6.2 concerning the statistical estimation and assessment of the proposed hypothetical model and the subsequent analysis which will lead to separate model re-specification of tourism experts and residents. Section 6.3 provides a test of hypotheses and a discussion of the results. Section 6.4 summarizes this chapter.

6.2 Testing the Structural Model

6.2.1 Testing: structural model for tourism experts

This section presents the application of the Structural Equation Modeling approach to test the model through the LISREL program for tourism experts. Table 6.1 shows the results of standardized regression weights among constructs that have been hypothesized.

Table 6.1 Standardized Regression Weights of Hypothesized Model (Tourism Experts)

Hypotheses	Standardized regression weights	Estimate
H1	TDPI → STAD	.18***
H2	TDNI → STAD	.01
H3	STAD → SDSS	.63***
H4	SUSATT → TDPI	.19***
H5	SUSATT → TDNI	.09
H6	SUSATT → STAD	.37***
H7	SOC → TDPI	.16***
H8	SOC → TDNI	-.08

Note: *:p≤.10, **:p≤.05, ***p≤.01

The full statistical estimation of the model fit indices is in Table 6.2. The overall model fit does not achieve a satisfactory level because the RMSEA indices are more than the threshold values of .05 and the AGFI indices are less than the threshold values of .90. An examination of the modification indices (MI) in the LISREL results shows that the model fit could be improved by re-specification of the structural paths among the constructs (adding parameters between the no-hypotheses construct).

Table 6.2 Hypothetical Model Fit Indices (Tourism Experts)

Goodness-of-fit measures	Results
Absolute fit measures:	chi-square =561.75; dF = 266; GFI =.90; RMSEA =.052
Incremental fit measures:	AGFI = .88; CFI = .96; NNFI .95
Parsimonious fit measure:	normed chi-square = 2.11

Thus, it is a necessary prerequisite to undertake a post-hoc analysis to re-specify the structural model so that it achieves an acceptable level of fit (Byrne, 2001) when testing the hypotheses.

6.2.2 Post hoc analysis–model re-specification (tourism experts)

The re-specification of the hypothesized model was based on the following information:

- The results of the modification index (MI) in the LISREL outputs identified further possible relationships among the constructs in the model.
- For each possible relationship, if there is potential theoretical support, the re-specification is made to support such a relationship.

A close examination of the modification indices shows that there are significant covariances between the SUSATT and the SDSS (MI=120.01). According to studies done by Choi (2003), the environmental attitudes, the community participation, and the long-term planning, which were included in the sustainability attitudes construct in this study, have a relationship of support for tourism. Furthermore, as these factors are the key issues of previous studies which examined sustainable development in tourism (Gursoy et al. 2002; Tosun, 2002; Ritchie and Crouch, 2003), it would be reasonable to assume that respondents who have more sustainability attitudes are more likely to support tourism development. It may be noted as well that support for tourism development in this study is much more specifically defined –concerning level of acceptability of types of tourism attraction and destination sustainability strategies-than it has been in the past. As a result, it is reasonable to propose a direct relationship between the SUSATT and the SDSS. Although this relationship is not covered by the hypotheses, the recognition of its existence would make the model fit better with the data set.

After adding it to the original model, the LISREL was applied again to test the re-specified structural model. The results are in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3 Goodness-of-Fit Indices: Proposed and Re-specified Models (Tourism Experts)

Goodness-of-fit measures	Proposed hypothetical model	Respecified model
Absolute fit measures:		
Chi-square	561.75	459.32
dF	266	265
P	.00	.00
GFI	.90	.92
RMSEA	.052	.042
Incremental fit measures:		
CFI	.96	.98
NNFI	.95	.97
AGFI	.88	.90
Parsimonious fit measure:		
Normed chi-square	2.11	1.73

The results of the analysis showed that there was a significant improvement in the fitness of the model, i.e., it had better χ^2 results and goodness-of-fit indices. The re-specified model achieved good fit indices, except for a significant chi-square value. However, as noted by many researchers (Hair et al., 1998), $\chi 2$ is almost always significant with large sample sizes. Thus, the re-specified model fit is acceptable. Subsequently, the

proposed hypothetical model was rejected and the re-specified model (see Figure 6.1) was adopted in its place.

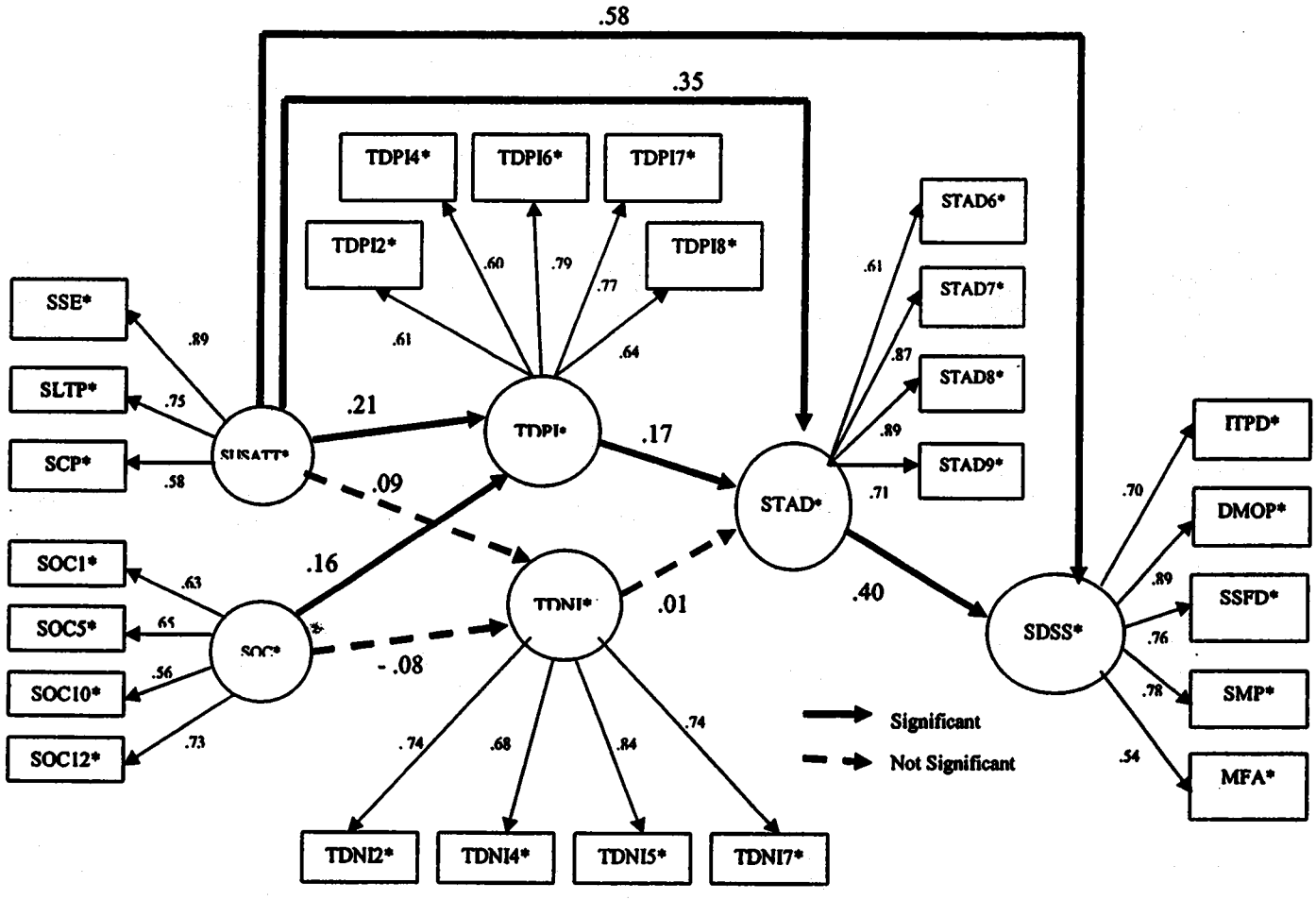

Figure 6.1 Re-specified Model (Tourism Experts)

The re-specified model generated an χ^2 (265)=459.32 (p<.00). As stated earlier, because the χ^2 tests are sensitive to sample sizes, supplementary measures were used. Other goodness-of-fit indices also indicated a good level of fit: GFI= 0.92; RMSEA= 0.042; AGFI=0.90; CFI= 0.98; NNFI= 0.97; normed chi-square = 1.73. Therefore, it was concluded that the re-specified model (see Figure 6.1) was suitable for the hypotheses testing presented in the next section.

Table 6.4 presents the statistical estimates for both the original and re-specified models. It is noted that the values for path coefficients are different in some relationships when shifting from the proposed hypothetical model to the re-specified model. These changes showed that although one additional relationship was not hypothesized in this study, the re-specification of the model in order to achieve overall fit was necessary as a prerequisite to hypothesis testing. Otherwise, the results of hypothesis testing would have been misleading.

Table 6.4 the Statistical Estimates for Proposed and Re-specified Model of Tourism Experts

Hypotheses	Standardized regression weights	Proposed Hypotothetical model	Re-specified model

		Estimate	Estimate
H1	TDPI → STAD	.18***	.17***
H2	TDNI → STAD	.01	.01
H3	STAD → SDSS	.63***	.40***
H4	SUSATT → TDPI	.19***	.21***
H5	SUSATT → TDNI	.09	.09
H6	SUSATT → STAD	.37***	.35***
H7	SOC → TDPI	.16***	.16***
H8	SOC → TDNI	-.08	-.08
Added relationship			
SUSATT → SDSS			.58***

Note: *:p≤.10, **:p≤.05, ***p≤.01

6.2.3 Testing: structural model for residents

This section presents the application of the Structural Equation Modeling approach to test the model through the LISREL program for residents. Table 6.5 shows the results of standardized regression weights among constructs that have been hypothesized

Table 6.5 Standardized Regression Weights of Hypothesized Model (Residents)

Hypotheses	Standardized regression weights	Estimate
H1	TDPI → STAD	.26***
H2	TDNI → STAD	-.07
H3	STAD → SDSS	.49***
H4	SUSATT → TDPI	.19***
H5	SUSATT → TDNI	.04
H6	SUSATT → STAD	.32***
H7	SOC → TDPI	.14***
H8	SOC → TDNI	-.13

Note: *:p≤.10, **:p≤.05, ***p≤.01

The goodness-of-fit indices of the proposed hypothetical model were shown in Table 6.6. However, as with the group of tourism experts, the overall model fit did not achieve a satisfactory level because the RMSEA indices were more than the threshold values of .05, and the GFI and the AGFI indices were also less than the threshold values of .90.

Table 6.6 Hypothetical Model Fit Indices (Residents)

Goodness-of-fit measures	Results
Absolute fit measures:	chi-square =779.41; dF = 266; GFI =.87; RMSEA =.067
Incremental fit measures:	AGFI = .85; CFI = .93; NNFI .92
Parsimonious fit measure:	normed chi-square = 2.93

An examination of the modification indices (MI) in the LISREL results indicated that the model fit could have been improved by re-specification of the structural paths

among the constructs. Therefore, it was a necessary prerequisite to undertake a post hoc analysis to re-specify the structural model so that it achieved an acceptable level of fit (Byrne, 2001) when testing the hypotheses.

6.2.4 Post hoc analysis: model re-specification for residents

Utilizing the same procedure as tourism experts concerning post-hoc analysis, a close examination of the modification indices showed that there were significant covariances between the "SUSATT" and the "SDSS" (MI=120.01), and the error covariances between "STAD7" and "STAD8" (MI=171.1). As discussed earlier in the studies done by Gursoy et al., 2002, environmental attitude had a positive relationship to support for tourism. As environmental attitudes were one of the key issues of sustainability attitudes, it would be reasonable to assume that respondents who had more sustainability attitudes are more likely to support tourism development, with support for tourism development in this study much more specifically defined (level of acceptability of types of tourism attraction and destination sustainability strategies) than it has been in the past. As a result, it is reasonable to propose a direct relationship between the SUSATT and the SDSS. Although this relationship is not covered by the hypotheses, the recognition of its existence would make the model fit better with the data set.

Furthermore, following the recommendation of the MI, where every correlated error covariance must be justified and interpreted substantially, the correlated error covariances between the "STAD7" (hotels and resorts) and the "STAD8"(restaurants, food, and beverages) could be justified on the basis of studies done by Yoon (2002). His study indicated that the respondents supported "hotel, resorts", and "restaurants, food and beverages" as tourism attraction development, which explained the correlation between the indicators in the same construct. Consequently, the covariance between these two items was determined to be acceptable.

After adding these two to the original model, the LISREL was applied again to test the re-specified structural model. The results are presented in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7 Goodness-of-fit Indices: Proposed and Re-specified Model of Residents

Goodness-of-fit measures	Proposed hypothetical model	Respecified model
Absolute fit measures:		
Chi-square	779.41	539.62
dF	266	264
P	.00	.00
GFI	.87	.91
RMSEA	.067	.049
Incremental fit measures:		
CFI	.93	.96
NNFI	.92	.96
AGFI	.85	.90
Parsimonious fit measure:		
Normed chi-square	2.93	2.04

The results of the analysis showed that there was a significant improvement in the fitness of the model-it had better χ^2 results and goodness-of-fit indices. The re-specified

model achieved good fit indices, except for a significant chi-square value. However, as noted by many researchers (Hair et al., 1998), the $\chi 2$ are almost always significant with large sample sizes. Thus, the re-specified model fit is acceptable. Consequently, the proposed hypothetical model was rejected and the re-specified model (see Figure 6.2.) was instead adopted.

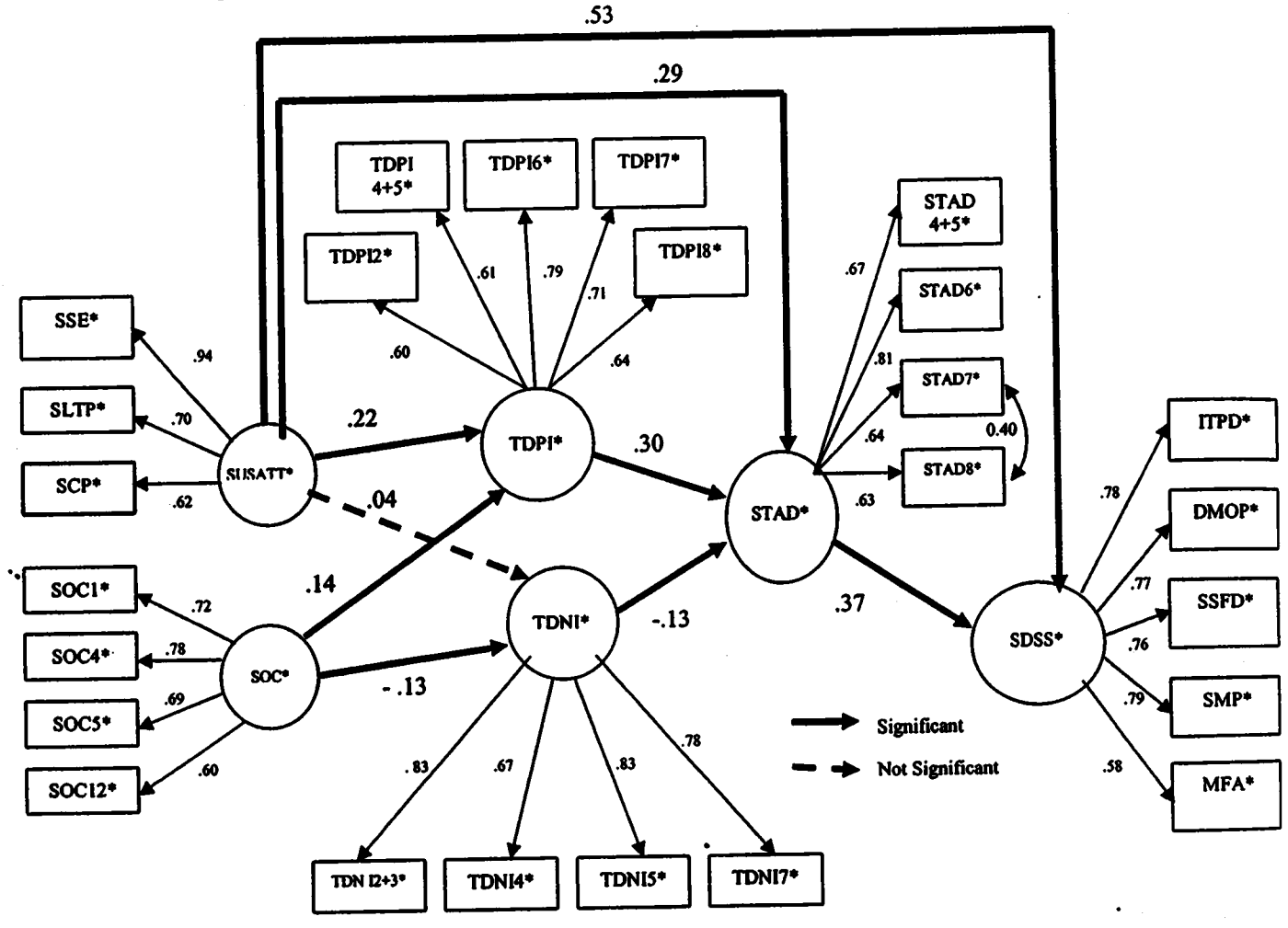

Figure 6.2 Re-specified Model (Residents)

The re-specified model generated χ^2 (264) = 539.62 ($p<.00$). As stated earlier, because the χ^2 tests are sensitive to sample sizes, supplementary measures were used. Other goodness-of-fit indices also indicated a good level of fit: GFI= 0.91; RMSEA= 0.049; AGFI=0.90; CFI= 0.96; NNFI = 0.96; Normed chi-square = 2.04. Thus, it was concluded that the re-specified model is suitable for the hypotheses testing presented in the next section.

Table 6.8 the Statistical Estimates for Proposed Hypothetical and Re-specified Model of Residents

Hypotheses	Standardized regression weights	Proposed Hypothetical model	Re-specified model
		Estimate	Estimate
H1	TDPI → STAD	.24***	.30***
H2	TDNI → STAD	-.07	-.13**

H3	STAD → SDSS	.51***	.37***
H4	SUSATT → TDPI	.20***	.22***
H5	SUSATT → TDNI	.04	.04
H6	SUSATT → STAD	.31***	.29***
H7	SOC → TDPI	.14***	.14***
H8	SOC → TDNI	-.13**	-.13**
Added relationship			
SUSATT → SDSS			.53***

Note: *:p≤.10, **:p≤.05, ***p≤.01

Table 6.8 presents the statistical estimates for both proposed hypothetical model and re-specified models. It is noted that the values for path coefficients differ significantly in some relationships when shifting from the proposed hypothetical model to the re-specified model. For example, the coefficient between the "TDNI" and the "STAD" has changed from non-significant (-.07, t=1.31) to significant (-.13, t=2.42).

These changes demonstrate that although two additional relationships are not hypothesized in this current study, the re-specification of the model in order to achieve overall fit is necessary as a prerequisite to hypothesis testing. If otherwise, the results of the hypothesis testing would be misleading. This is shown, for example, by the case of the relationship among "TDNI" and "STAD" and "TDNI" and "STAD". Thus, it was concluded that the re-specified model was suitable for hypotheses testing.

6.3 Results and Discussion

The hypothesized structural model was tested using the SEM, which included a test of the overall model as well as individual tests of the relationships among the latent constructs. This study tested a structural model to determine the tourism stakeholders' (residents and tourism experts) attitudes towards tourism attraction development and destination sustainability strategies using critical factors that were found to influence the tourism stakeholders' reaction, such as sustainability attitudes and a sense of community. Drawing from current literature and theories, a model with a series of hypotheses involving eight paths was proposed. The measurement model was determined first. Then, the proposed hypothetical model among constructs was investigated. Because the results suggested that the re-specified model is more appropriate than the proposed hypothetical model for both groups, the re-specified model was adopted.

Table 6.9 Summary Results of Hypotheses Testing between Tourism Experts and Residents

Hypotheses	Tourism Experts			Residents		
	Regression coefficients	t-stat	Result	Regression coefficients	t-stat	Result
Hypothesis 1: The positive impact of tourism is positively related to support for specific tourism attraction development.	.17	2.91	Accepted	.30	4.70	Accepted
Hypothesis 2: The negative impact of tourism is inversely related to support for specific tourism attraction development.	.01	0.20	Rejected	-.13	-2.42	Accepted
Hypothesis 3: Support for tourism	.40	7.57	Accepted	.37	6.50	Accepted

attraction development is positively related to support for destination sustainability strategies.						
Hypothesis 4: Attitudes toward sustainability are positively related to the positive impact of tourism.	.21	3.42	Accepted	.22	3.69	Accepted
Hypothesis 5: Attitudes toward sustainability are inversely related to the negative impact of tourism.	.09	1.48	Rejected	.04	0.73	Rejected
Hypothesis 6: Attitudes toward sustainability are positively related to residents' support for tourism attraction development.	.35	5.22	Accepted	.29	4.88	Accepted
Hypothesis7: The sense of community is positively related to the perceived positive impacts of tourism.	.16	2.62	Accepted	.14	2.39	Accepted
Hypothesis8: The sense of community is inversely related to the perceived negative impacts of tourism.	-.08	-1.36	Rejected	-.13	-2.23	Accepted
Add Relationship						
Attitudes toward sustainability are positively related to support for destination sustainability strategies.	.58	11.58	Accepted	.53	9.67	Accepted

As shown in the statistical estimates in Table 6.9, five and seven of the eight hypothesized paths from the original eight hypotheses are statistically significant in the direction predicted at the 0.05 probability level in tourism experts and residents. The three exceptions in tourism experts is the relationship between 1) "sense of community" and "perceived negative impact of tourism", 2) "sustainability attitudes" and "perceived negative impact of tourism", and 3) "perceived negative impact of tourism" and "support for tourism attraction development". For residents, the one exception is the relationship between "sustainability attitudes" and "perceived negative impact of tourism". This link was not supported at the $p<.05$ level. Moreover, in both groups, one new significant path, i.e., "sustainability attitudes" to "SDSS" is added into the re-specified model. This path also generated significant relationships at the 0.05 levels. Detailed results are given below.

6.3.1 Community perception and support for tourism development

Path hypothesis 1 (i.e., "perceived positive impact of tourism" is positively related to "support for tourism attraction development") was supported at t=2.91 and β=0.17 in tourism experts and t= 4.70 and β=0.30 in residents. However, path hypothesis 2 (i.e., "perceived negative impact of tourism" is negatively related to "support for tourism attraction development") was not supported at t=0.20 and β=0.01 in tourism experts, but supported at t=-2.42and β=-0.13 in residents. The results of this study indicated that the community benefits of tourism as perceived by residents in an urban area have a direct and positive relationship to support for tourism development. It should be noted that support for tourism development in this study was much more specifically defined–i.e., level of acceptability of types of tourism attraction and SDSS-than it had been in the past. As well, the perceived negative impact of tourism had a negative effect on residents' support for tourism development, but no effect on tourism experts. These findings in resident groups

are similar to previous studies done for small, rural, or resort-type communities such as Yoon et al.'s study in the Virginia area (2001); Gursoy et al.'s study in five counties surrounding Virginia (2002); McGehee and Andereck's study in a dozen Arizona communities (2004); Perdue et al.'s study in several small Colorado communities (1987); Lankford and Howard's study in the Gorge region (1994); Tomljenovic and Faulkner's study in the Australia Gold Coast (1999); Dyer, et al.'s study in the Australian Sunshine Coast (2007). In contrast to residents, with no statistical significance, tourism experts who have strongly perceived the negative impact of tourism are more likely to have slightly positive attitudes (β=0.01) of support for tourism attraction development. The finding that there is no significant relationship between the negative impact of tourism and support for tourism in the tourism expert group was consistent with the study of Gursoy and Ratherford (2004). Insignificant relations between the cost and the support for tourism may be explained by the importance tourism experts place on economic benefits. Evidence suggests that locals are likely to place more importance on such gains than any other impacts (Akis et al., 1996). Thus, because of the significant emphasis placed on economic gains, tourism experts may underestimate the negative impact of tourism.

Rather than looking at the environmental or physical benefits from tourism development discussed in other research (Getz, 1994; Lankford and Howard, 1993), this study shed light on the notion that the more tourism experts and residents in urban areas become aware of the cultural and economic benefits from tourism development, the more they are likely to support future tourism attraction. For instance, positive perceptions in terms of cultural identity, image of the destination, and standard of living encourage tourism stakeholders to support more tourism attraction development. Those attractions they would like to develop included Meeting, Incentive, Conventions and Exhibition (MICE), hotels and resorts, and restaurant, food and beverages. These results may be due to the abundant tourism attractions and resources in the study site (Bangkok) related to the presence of heritage and culture in such a cosmopolitan city. Subjects in this study may have received more cultural and economic benefits from urban tourism attractions. These attractions may have preserved cultural identity and created employment, as well as attracted more investment, so that tourism may have brought cultural and economic benefits to stakeholders' destination.

It is worth noting that most previous research has examined the perceived positive and negative impact of tourism by residents. This study, however, by comparing impacts between the groups of tourism stakeholders which were examined in this research, could be a means to help obtain more generalized information in future work, especially in the sustainable tourism development field. Research such as this study may also be useful for policy makers to broaden their understanding of similar or dissimilar perceptions of tourism impact, and support for tourism development between key tourism stakeholders (tourism experts and residents).

Path hypothesis 3 investigated the relationship between support for tourism attraction development and support for destination sustainability strategies. The SDSS construct in both groups, which came from factor analysis in this study, was measured by destination management organization and practices, information technology provision and development, standardization of service facilities development, sustainable management and practice, and marketing efforts and activities. The coefficient and t-value of both groups associated with these five items were positively significant. Accordingly, path hypothesis 3 (i.e., "support for tourism attraction development" is positively related to "SDSS") was supported at a significant level of 95% at t=7.57 and β=0.40 for tourism experts and t=6.50 and β=0.37 for residents. This research examined attitudes in an urban area and confirms a more limited prior study in rural areas by Yoon (2002) and (McGehee

and Andereck, 2004), which states that when tourism stakeholders such as residents support the development of a specific tourism attraction, they would also be likely to support tourism planning. Specifically, the findings in this study indicated that the greater the tourism stakeholders' support for tourism attraction development in terms of Meeting, Incentive, Conventions and Exhibition (MICE), hotels and resorts, and restaurant, food and beverages, the more they support destination sustainability strategies. Particularly, stakeholders are more likely to support destination management organization and practices, information technology provision and development, standardization of service facilities development, sustainable management and practice, and marketing efforts and activities in order to enhance destination sustainability.

6.3.2 Community attitudes and sustainability in tourism

Many studies have proposed the importance of sustainable tourism and a number of studies have investigated stakeholder relationships using qualitative methods, employing different meanings of sustainable tourism in different areas. Yet, few studies quantified the relationship between sustainability attitudes related to tourism, especially in urban areas like those examined in this work, with key tourism stakeholders research variables. This study hypothesized that sustainability attitudes have a positive relationship with the perceived positive impact of tourism, while this attitude is inversely related to the perceived negative impact of tourism. Path hypothesis 4 showed that attitudes toward tourism sustainability have a positive relationship to perceived positive impact of tourism in both stakeholder groups. Path hypothesis 4 (i.e., that "sustainability attitudes" are positively related to the "perceived positive impact of tourism") was supported at β=0.21 and t=3.42 for tourism experts and β=0.22 and t= 3.69 for residents. This result suggests that when tourism stakeholders have a strong and positive attitude towards sustainability, they would be more likely to have a positive view of the impacts of tourism.

Furthermore, similar results were noted between tourism experts and residents in hypothesis 5. The results of tourism experts (β=0.09, t =1.48) and residents (β=0.04, t =-0.73) in path hypothesis 5 (i.e., "sustainability attitudes are negatively related to the perceived negative impact of tourism") was not statistically significant with a positive relationship at p value of .05. Findings suggest that regardless of their attitude towards sustainability, neither group is concerned about the perceived negative impacts of tourism. This insignificance may be partly explained by events local people in Bangkok experienced in the economic downturn in 1997. During that period, people in Bangkok saw tourism as a means of improving their economic position, and believed that whatever costs tourism required, the benefits would far outweigh them. However, it is interesting to note that, although tourism experts and residents were not concerned about sustainability, the direction of the effect was found to be contrary to the predicted direction. The result of this study showed that even if tourism experts and residents had strong attitudes toward sustainability, they were just as strongly opposed to the negative impacts of tourism. This may be explained by considering that the attitudes of tourism experts and residents toward sustainability in tourism may reflect their past experiences.

Path hypothesis 6 (i.e., "sustainability attitudes" are positively related to "support for tourism attraction development") was supported with a t=5.22 and β=0.35 for tourism experts and a t=4.88 and β=0.29 for residents. This finding indicated that tourism stakeholders who have strong sustainability attitudes in tourism are more likely to support tourism attraction development. Furthermore, the new proposed path relationship from "sustainability attitudes" to "SDSS" showed a statistically significant result, β=0.58, t=11.58, for tourism experts and β=0.53, t=9.67) for residents. Therefore, "sustainability

attitudes" had a positive direct relationship with "SDSS". The magnitude of coefficient scores of both groups indicated that "sustainability attitudes" had the largest influence on "SDSS" when compared to all other constructs. This finding showed that socio-environment, long-term planning, and community participation are three major components of sustainability attitudes toward tourism. These are critically related to support for tourism and the positive and negative impacts of tourism. These findings suggest a number of critical implications that policy makers should consider when developing sustainable tourism strategies.

6.3.3 Community attitudes and sense of community

This study examined the concept of "sense of community" while past studies utilized the concept of community attachment. As noted earlier, the results of previous studies on the relationship between community attachment and key tourism variables are inconclusive (Gursoy et al., 2002; Yoon, 2002; McCool and Martin, 1994).

Path hypothesis 7 (i.e., "sense of community" is positively related to "perceived positive impact of tourism") was supported in tourism experts and residents at t=2.62 and β=0.16 and t=2.39 and β=0.14, respectively. These findings suggest that people who are highly attached to their community are more likely to view tourism as having positive economic and social impacts. However, path hypothesis 8 (i.e., "sense of community" is negatively related to "perceived negative impact of tourism") was supported at t =-2.23 and β=-0.13 in residents, but not accepted by the tourism experts group (t =-1.36 and β=-.08). This non-significant, although negative, relationship in the tourism experts may be partly explained by the notion that experts are not concerned with the perceived negative impacts of tourism. This non-significant relationship may be further clarified by what tourism experts receive from their tourism business. Tourism experts may have a sense of community just as residents do; however, they may see tourism as a means of increasing their wealth more than residents, and believe that however great their sense of community, profits far outweigh the costs.

While these findings are for an urban area, the relationship between these constructs is similar to the results from those obtained for a rural area in Texas, as reported by Choi (2003). However, these findings also contrast with other research (McCool and Martin, 1994; Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004), indicating that the relationship between community attachment and support for tourism is inconclusive and varies among studies. This contradictory finding suggests that the more comprehensive definition of community attachment with key impact variables, as used in this study, could be a means to help obtain more consistent results in future research. Moreover, while most previous studies use residents as respondents, other tourism stakeholders, such as the tourism experts included in this study, have attitudes that are also of interest for further study.

6.4 Summary

This chapter presents the results of the proposed hypothetical model and re-specified model, hypothesis testing, and a discussion of their interpretation. As shown in Table 6.9 (tourism experts), of the original eight hypotheses, five of the hypothesized paths are statistically significant in the direction predicted at the 0.05 probability level. The hypothesis (H1) indicating the relationship between "perceived positive impact of tourism" and "support for tourism attraction development" is supported. However, the relationship between "perceived negative impact of tourism" and "support for tourism attraction development" (H2) is rejected. Hypothesis (H3) shows that tourism expert support for

tourism attraction development has a significant positive relationship with their support for destination sustainability strategies. The results also support that "attitudes toward sustainability" has a significant positive relationship with "perceived positive impact of tourism" (H4), and with "support for tourism attraction development" (H6). In contrast, the relationship between "attitudes toward sustainability" and "perceived negative impact of tourism" (H5) is rejected. Hypothesis 7 which demonstrates the relationship between "sense of community" and "perceived positive impact of tourism" is supported; however, the relationship between "sense of community" and "perceived negative impact of tourism" in H8 is rejected. Moreover, one new significant path, i.e., "sustainability attitudes" to "support for destination sustainability strategies", was added to the re-specified model and generated significant relationships with the highest coefficient values in tourism expert results (β= 0.58).

Concerning residents, of the original eight hypotheses, seven of the eight hypothesized paths are statistically significant in the direction predicted at the 0.05 probability level. Hypotheses H1 and H2, indicating the relationship between "perceived positive impact of tourism" and "support for tourism attraction development" (H1), and "perceived negative impact of tourism" and "support for tourism attraction development" (H2), are supported. The results also indicate that "support for tourism attraction development" has a significant positive relationship with "support for destination sustainability strategies" (H3). Concerning Hypotheses H4 and H6, the results support that "attitudes toward sustainability" has a significant positive relationship with "perceived positive impact of tourism" (H4), and with "support for tourism attraction development" (H6). In contrast, the relationship between "attitudes toward sustainability" and "perceived negative impact of tourism" (H5) is rejected. In the case of sense of community, both hypotheses are supported: (H7) "sense of community" is positively related to "perceived positive impacts of tourism", and (H8) "sense of community" is inversely related to "perceived negative impacts of tourism". Furthermore, as with the tourism expert result, one new significant path, i.e., "sustainability attitudes" to "support for destination sustainability strategies" was added to the re-specified model and also generated significant relationships with the highest coefficient values in resident outcome (β=0.53).

Basically, with the social exchange theory, the empirical results revealed that each of the proposed factors (sustainability attitudes and sense of community) had a significant effect for tourism expert and resident perceived positive and negative impacts of tourism development and their support for sustainable tourism development. This finding provides a more detailed insight into comparisons between similar and dissimilar relationship results as well as tourism expert and resident attitudes, perceptions, and support for sustainable tourism development. Moreover, the re-specified model brought to light other relationships that should be taken into account. Particularly, "sustainability attitudes" has a significant positive relationship with "support for destination sustainability strategies" with the highest coefficient values from both tourism expert and resident groups.

CHAPTER VII
CONCLUSIONS

7.1 Introduction

The overall objective of this study was the investigation of the structural relationship between the attitudes, perception and support for STD of two groups of key tourism stakeholders (tourism experts and residents). Based on a literature review, a proposed hypothetical model of STD was developed. In addition, eight hypotheses were proposed based on a theoretical explanation.

The survey was conducted with 416 participants in the tourism expert group and 432 participants in the resident group. The main statistical method used in this study was Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), using the LISREL software. The assessment and refinement of the scales using the EFA and the CFA were done before testing the proposed hypothetical model. Based on the goodness-of-fit indices, the original hypothetical model was re-specified for better goodness of fit. The re-specified model was then used for testing the hypotheses in this study.

This final chapter summarizes the findings and draws implications from the study. A summary of the findings is first presented. Following that, the contributions and implications of the study are outlined. The final sections present the limitations and suggestions for possible further study.

7.2 Summary of Findings

The LISREL results show that the overall fit of the proposed hypothetical model was not sufficiently achieved for either tourism experts or residents. This model was then re-specified by adding one more path of relationships, "sustainability attitudes" to "support for destination sustainability strategies". The re-specified model for both groups then achieved acceptable model fit indices. Findings from the re-specified models are discussed below.

First, related social exchange theory argues that residents are likely to support tourism development as long as they believe that the expected benefits exceed the costs. The results show that the community benefits of tourism perceived by both tourism experts and residents in an urban area have a direct and positive relationship to support for tourism development, with support for tourism development in this study much more specifically defined (level of acceptability of types of tourism attraction and SDSS) than it has been in the past.

However, the perceived negative impact of tourism has a negative effect on resident support for tourism attraction development, but not on that of tourism experts. The results also show that tourism expert and resident support for tourism attraction development has a significant positive relation to their support for destination sustainability strategies.

Furthermore, two other hypotheses based on "sustainability attitudes", "perceived positive impact of tourism", and "support for tourism attraction development" show similar results when the two groups, tourism experts and residents, are compared. The research suggests that when both groups have a strong and positive attitude towards sustainability, they will be more likely to have a positive view of the impacts of tourism and also support tourism attraction development. Nevertheless, "sustainability attitudes" from tourism experts and residents has no relationship with "perceived negative impact of tourism". The reason why tourism experts and residents in Bangkok are not likely to have a negative

view of tourism impacts, although they have a positive attitude towards sustainability in tourism, is that they continue to view tourism as "Common Property Resources" until they earn a profit. They don't appear to consider the future viability of their businesses.

Moreover, one new relationship was added in the final model to better capture both tourism experts and residents' attitudes in urban tourist destinations. This additional relationship indicated that tourism stakeholders, who have attitudes toward sustainability, are likely to support enhancement strategies for destination sustainability. Particularly, the magnitude of coefficient scores indicates that "sustainability attitudes" has the greatest influence on the "SDSS" construct. These are the relationships which, if understood properly, will provide positive support for destination sustainability strategies. When policy-makers encourage appropriate attitudes toward sustainability in tourism, which includes socio-environment, long-term planning, and community participation, the key actors of tourism stakeholders, which include tourism experts and residents, will be more likely to have a positive view of the impacts of tourism and also support tourism attraction development and destination sustainability strategies.

Concerning relationships, "sense of community" has a significant positive relationship to "perceived positive impact of tourism" in both tourism stakeholder groups. Additionally, "sense of community" has a significant negative relationship to "perceived negative impact of tourism" in residents, but not in the tourism experts group. The fact that "sense of community" is only significant to residents' perceived negative impact of tourism may be explained by the different attachments to the community between tourism stakeholders in an urban area, especially in a developing country. Although both tourism experts and residents at the research site may have attachments within their communities with the positive impact of tourism, residents may have expressed more attachment to their community with negative impact of tourism than the tourism experts. It may be said that while residents who have expressed more attachment to their community are less likely to perceive the negative impact of tourism, tourism experts wouldn't necessarily feel the same way. This result indicates that "sense of community" may be a critical determinant of tourism stakeholders' perceived positive impact of tourism; however, it may helpful to examine only the residents group concerning the relationship between "sense of community" and "perceived negative impact of tourism".

7.3 Contributions

This section addresses the theoretical and methodological contributions of the current study and suggests implications for managing and planning. In summary, this study focused on an investigation of the structural relationship between tourism stakeholder attitudes, perceptions, and support for STD. Theoretically, although contextualized in an urban area, the results of this study between the key actors of tourism stakeholders (tourism experts and residents) are similar to those previously done for rural areas. This research confirms the validity of using social exchange theory to analyze the relationships between tourism stakeholder attitudes and their support for STD. In terms of methodologies, this study contributes additional empirical research with a sample survey including different key actors of tourism stakeholders for the field of STD, which has seen limited empirical research, especially in urban areas in developing countries. Practically, this study will suggest positive and negative directions to policymakers in their effort to develop tourism planning and strategies for STD in Bangkok.

7.3.1 Theoretical contribution

This study makes contributions to understanding the key actors of tourism stakeholder (tourism experts and residents) attitudes, perceptions, and support for STD. The first contribution to the body of literature was confirmation of social exchange theory. As applied to tourism stakeholder attitudes toward tourism, social exchange theory suggests that local people are likely to support tourism development as long as they believe that the expected benefits exceed the costs. Unlike economic exchange, social exchange does not operate according to any rules or agreements when interactions arise. People, therefore, often rely on their own perceptions and intentions will vary from person to person. Thus, social exchange within the context of tourism should be regularly examined as a subjective indicator if policy makers need to know how people in an area act in response to it. The finding from this study also indicates that, taken together, the "sustainability attitudes", "sense of community", and "perceived positive and negative impact of tourism" can provide a strong foundation on which to conduct further examination to measure tourism stakeholder attitudes, perceptions, and support for STD (with support for tourism development in this study at a much more specifically defined-level of acceptability of types of tourism attraction and SDSS-than it has been in the past).

Secondly, the measurement and understanding of tourism stakeholder attitudes, especially residents, in tourism development literature have become an important priority concerning tourism issues since the 1980s, as indicated by the growing body of literature on the subject. Few studies have examined the tourism stakeholder, or compared the similarities and differences between tourism expert and resident attitudes toward tourism within the sustainability concept. The important finding of this study demonstrates that the three components of sustainability attitudes in tourism (i.e., socio-environment, long-term planning, and community participation) might be important predictors to understand tourism stakeholder attitudes, perceptions, and behavioral intensions. Moreover, as the sense of community in this study shows that highly attached tourism stakeholders have greater perceived positive tourism impacts and have more support for STD than those less attached, future research is needed to adapt better-defined and tested place attachment as the "sense of community" that was investigated in this research.

7.3.2 Methodological contribution

As stated previously, empirical research to compare relationship similarities and differences between tourism stakeholder attitudes and support for STD with the Structural Equation Model (SEM) is still limited. This study is a much needed contribution to empirical research on tourism stakeholder attitudes, perceptions, and support for STD (which is more specifically defined (in terms of level of acceptability of types of tourism attraction and destination sustainability strategies) than it has been in the past.

Secondly, in the study of tourism stakeholder attitudes and support for STD, a difficulty has emerged for those who conduct empirical research. This is due to the lack of generalized scales for the latent constructs in tourism stakeholder attitudes, perceptions, and support for STD, especially measurement of sustainability attitudes, sense of community, tourism development impact, support for tourism attraction development, and support for sustainability strategies in urban areas in developing countries, such as Bangkok, Thailand. This study, although undertaken in one specific research setting, aims to contribute to the literature by providing reliable and valid scales of the related constructs. These scales have been developed, refined, and validated carefully through the

various steps stated in this study. Thus, they will provide a helpful formulation for further research in this field.

7.4 Implications

A number of managerial implications can be drawn from the results of this study. As "sustainability attitudes" and "sense of community" can provide a strong foundation on which to conduct further examination to measure tourism stakeholder attitudes and support for STD, Thai policy-makers need to recognize how sustainability attitudes (e.g. socio-environment, long term planning, and community participation) and sense of community may be enhanced especially when developing tourism attraction and STD strategies.

Furthermore, tourism stakeholder perceptions of tourism impacts were determined to be the strongest predictor of their support for STD. The more tourism impacts on the community were positively perceived by the respondents, the more supportive they were to sustainable tourism. As the results of this research also show a significant relationship among perceived positive and negative tourism impacts to support for attraction development and SDSS in both tourism experts and residents, Thai policy-makers need to be informed about the positive and negative impact tourism has on the community and ways of controlling or reducing the negative impacts. This approach will give the tourism stakeholders in communities a better understanding of the relationship tourism has with the community, which should increase positive perceptions (and reduce negative ones) of impacts on the community.

Particularly, from the results of this study, Thai policy-makers must make an effort to maximize the perceived economic and cultural benefits of tourism activities as well as to minimize the perceived negative social, cultural, and environmental impacts. These efforts may include improving standard of living and community safety for residents and tourists, encouraging a variety of cultural activities, preserving cultural identity, enhancing the image of the destination, and improving park and recreation areas by developing a number of tourism projects. By doing this, tourism development can be conducted in a more sustainable manner. If the tourism stakeholders do not support tourism development, there is a higher chance for failure because tourism stakeholders, especially tourism experts and residents, are the key actors of stakeholders that are involved directly or indirectly with the development of future destinations.

In addition, the derivation of key factors (see Tables 5.8 and 5.16) that contribute to understanding tourism stakeholder (tourism experts and residents) support for destination sustainability strategies was another finding of this study. These strategies may include good management of tourism destination organizations, the upgrading of information technology, the development of service facilities, the expansion of creative marketing efforts and activities, and enhancing sustainable management and practices. Thai policy-makers should give due consideration to these strategies in tourism planning for STD. Once these strategies are accomplished, the conflicts between tourism stakeholders, such as those between policy-makers and residents, could be reduced in order to promote STD in the community.

More specific implications supported by research into tourism stakeholders in this study were determining those areas that key tourism players such as tourism experts and residents prefer to develop as tourism attractions and to plan and implement successful destination sustainability strategies.

It could be said from the findings of this study that destination sustainability strategies supported by tourism stakeholders may be associated with good management of tourism destination organizations, upgrading of information technology, development of

service facilities, expansion of creative marketing efforts and activities, and enhancing sustainable management and practices. These strategies can be implemented based on the tourism attraction of hosting seasonal cultural and folk events, sports and outdoor recreation facilities and activities, offering Meetings, Incentives, Conventions, and Exhibitions (MICE) programs, and supporting tourist services (e.g. hotels, restaurants, shopping centers, and souvenir shops). These results are likely to help policy-makers and marketers to collect information and plan appropriate sustainability strategies based on tourism attractions they want to develop.

7.5 Limitations and Further study

Finally, limitations of the study should be discussed to provide direction for future research. As "sustainability attitudes" and "sense of community" may be useful concepts for the study of tourism stakeholder attitudes, perceptions, and support for STD as demonstrated in this study, further study along these lines is needed for better understanding of STD. Furthermore, since this study was directed at only the tourism stakeholders of Bangkok, further research on tourism stakeholders of other urban areas should be carried out to assess whether or not the magnitude and direction of the relationships are different. Moreover, the differences of development, the types of resources a community has, socio-demographical characteristics (e.g. gender, ethnicity, disability), and the proximity to tourism development are some issues that merit further investigation.

An additional limitation to this study is related to the choice of respondents. The key actors of tourism stakeholders include residents, tourism experts, and tourists. A more comprehensive understanding of STD should include other stakeholders in addition to residents and tourism experts. This limitation could be addressed in future research.

This study focused on quantitative research, which played an important role in testing hypotheses. There is also a need for qualitative research in this area to identify important issues for future quantitative research and to discover other participants in the community exchange experience concerning sustainable tourism development.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX 1A

Dear Participant

My name is Virut Kitnuntaviwat, a Ph.D. candidate at School of Management, Asian Institute of Technology (AIT). I am now working on my dissertation on the subject of 'Tourism Development and Destination Sustainability in Bangkok, Thailand'.

The attached questionnaire is an important survey designed to assess your opinions about general issues related to the tourism development and destination sustainability. The answer will only be used for academic research. All information you provide will be strictly confidential.

I would very much appreciate if you would answer all of the questions carefully.

Should you have any questions regarding the questionnaire or research, please feel free to ask me or my assistant.

Thanks for your time and help.

Sincerely yours,

Virut Kitnuntaviwat
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Part I: Tourism Development Positive Impacts

Please read each item carefully and circle the appropriate number that indicates **how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the Tourism Development Positive Impact statements.**

(1= Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral: neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree)

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1. Creates jobs and attracts investment	1	2	3	4	5
2. Improves standard of living	1	2	3	4	5
3. Gives economic benefit to local residents	1	2	3	4	5
4. Encourages a variety of cultural activities	1	2	3	4	5
5. Promotes more cultural exchanges between tourists and residents	1	2	3	4	5
6. Preserves the cultural identity of the destination	1	2	3	4	5
7. Improves the image of the destination	1	2	3	4	5
8. Improves the park and recreation areas	1	2	3	4	5
9. Stimulates incentives for the restoration of ancestral buildings	1	2	3	4	5

Part II: Tourism Development Negative Impacts

Please read each item carefully and circle the appropriate number that indicates **how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the Tourism Development Negative Impact statements.**

(1= Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral: neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree)

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1. Increases cost of living	1	2	3	4	5
2. Increases rate of crime	1	2	3	4	5
3. Encourages prostitution	1	2	3	4	5
4. Disrupts traditional and local cultures	1	2	3	4	5
5. Stimulates increased traffic congestion, noise, and pollution	1	2	3	4	5
6. Leads to overcrowding in destination	1	2	3	4	5
7. Destroys nature and the environment	1	2	3	4	5
8. Influences entry of negative practices in the residents' way of life	1	2	3	4	5

Part III: Sense of Community

In this section, **we would like to ask you about your feeling about Bangkok as tourism destination. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each item by circling an appropriate number**
(1= Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral: neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree).

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1. I think my destination is a good place for me to live.	1	2	3	4	5
2. People on this destination do not share the same values.	1	2	3	4	5
3. My neighbors and I want the same things (environment) from the destination.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I can recognize most of the people who live on my destination.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel at home on this destination.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Very few of my neighbors know me.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I care about what my neighbors think of my actions.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I have no influence over what this destination is like.	1	2	3	4	5
9. If there is a problem on this destination, people who live here can solve it.	1	2	3	4	5
10. It is very important for me to live on this particular destination.	1	2	3	4	5
11. People on this destination generally don't get along with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I expect to live on this destination for a long time.	1	2	3	4	5

Part IV: Sustainability Attitude

Please read each item carefully and circle the appropriate number that indicates **how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following Sustainability Attitude statements.**

(1= Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral: neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree)

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
Socio-Environment					
1. Tourism development must enhance the preservation of the environment.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The diversity of nature must be valued and protected.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Community environment must be protected and improved for the current and for future generations.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Proper tourism development requires that natural habits be protected at all times.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Tourism must be developed in harmony with the natural and cultural environment.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Tourism development must promote positive environmental ethics among all members of the community.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Tourism developers should be strengthening efforts for environmental conservation.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Tourism must improve the environment for future generations	1	2	3	4	5
9. Regulatory environmental standards are needed to reduce the negative impacts of tourism development.	1	2	3	4	5
Long Term Planning					
1. I believe tourism development requires well-coordinated planning.	1	2	3	4	5
2. When planning for tourism, we cannot be shortsighted, but needs to take a long term view of its impacts.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I believe that successful management of tourism requires advanced planning.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Tourism development plans should be continuously improved.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The tourism industry must plan and develop manuals for operation for use in the future.	1	2	3	4	5

Community Participation					
1. Tourism decisions must be made by all in the community regardless of a person's background.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Community residents should have the opportunity to be involved in tourism decision-making.	1	2	3	4	5
3. It is acceptable to exclude community residents from tourism development decision in some situations.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Everyone in the community must be involved in the processes related to tourism development for sustainable tourism development.	1	2	3	4	5

Part V: Support for Tourism Attraction Development

In this section, **we would like to ask you to rate level of support for tourism attraction development. Please indicate how much you support the development of each of the following tourism attractions in Bangkok by circling an appropriate number** (1= Not at all Support, 2 Not Support, 3 = Neutral: neither Support nor no Support, 4 = Support, 5 = Highly Support.)

	Not at all Support				Highly Support
1.Nature-based tourism attraction (e.g. garden, public parks, zoo)	1	2	3	4	5
2.Cultural or historical-based attraction (e.g. Museums, Palace, Historic sites)	1	2	3	4	5
3.Attractions designed for large numbers of tourists (e.g. Theme parks, Casino)	1	2	3	4	5
4.Cultural and folk events and activities (e.g. Concerts, Art and crafts, Festivals)	1	2	3	4	5
5.Sports and outdoor recreation facilities, activities and events (e.g. Asian game, Thai boxing, Golf or Tennis Tournament)	1	2	3	4	5
6.Meetings, incentives, conventions, and exhibitions	1	2	3	4	5
7. Hotels and resorts	1	2	3	4	5
8. Restaurants, food and beverages	1	2	3	4	5
9. Shopping centers, retail and Souvenirs shop	1	2	3	4	5

Part VI: Support for Destination Sustainability Strategies

In this section, **we would like to ask you to rate level of support for destination sustainability strategies and tourism development. Please indicate how much you support the strategies of each of the following items by circling an appropriate number** (1= Not at all Support, 2 Not Support, 3 = Neutral: neither support nor no support, 4 = Support, 5 = Highly Support.)

	Not at all Support				Highly Support
1. Develop a strong destination image	1	2	3	4	5
2. Select appropriate target markets (tourist groups)	1	2	3	4	5
3. Overcome seasonality (peak and off-season) in tourists 'visits.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Increase tourists' length of stay	1	2	3	4	5
5. Increase tourists' expenditure per person per day	1	2	3	4	5
6. Improve roads, transportation, infrastructure and access facilities	1	2	3	4	5
7. Establish standards for tourism services and facilities	1	2	3	4	5
8. Develop safety programs for tourists	1	2	3	4	5
9. Develop education and training programs for tourism industry personnel	1	2	3	4	5
10. Set up standards for efficient operation of tourism government agencies	1	2	3	4	5
11. Set up a department dealing with tourist complaints	1	2	3	4	5
12. Establish the cost of providing different levels of quality for various types of tourists	1	2	3	4	5
13. Activate local government and agencies' roles as facilitators for tourism development.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Develop crisis and disaster strategies to limit the severity of rapid change	1	2	3	4	5
15. Respond quickly to demands of the media and public when destinations are affected by emergency situations	1	2	3	4	5
16. Provide workshop on crisis and disaster management for tourism stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5
17. Establish crisis and disaster management units which include representatives from all tourism stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5
18. Promote a cluster of tourism businesses that are strongly linked together	1	2	3	4	5
19. Expand carrying capacities of tourism sites by recognizing tourism needs.	1	2	3	4	5
20. exploit natural resources sensible	1	2	3	4	5

21. Explore environmental considerations in marketing and in tourism strategies	1	2	3	4	5
22. Disseminate appropriate knowledge to tourism stakeholders' on sustainable tourism	1	2	3	4	5
23. Introduce urgent measures to control environment quality through the use of various kinds of taxes	1	2	3	4	5
24. Improve and provide tourism information for tourists (e.g. brochure, handbook, map)	1	2	3	4	5
25. Establish information on destination's products and services.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Establish information on tourism stakeholders' perception and satisfaction.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Establish information systems on competing countries and alliances	1	2	3	4	5
28. Establish comprehensive information systems on tourism industry to serve tourism stakeholders.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Develop attractive, clear, fast and easy ways to navigate related websites	1	2	3	4	5
30. Establish websites providing comprehensive information that allow tourism stakeholders to upload their individual packages	1	2	3	4	5
31. Undertake promotion of public relation campaigns that will help tourism stakeholders realize how important know-how of E- tourism is	1	2	3	4	5
32. Promote and link websites with popular search engines and tourism websites	1	2	3	4	5
33. Develop software infrastructure for E-tourism that will improve database	1	2	3	4	5

Part VII: Demographic Information

Please check the mark (/) into the ☐

- What is your gender?

  ☐ Male ☐ Female

- In which of the following age group you are?

  ☐ Up to 20 years ☐ 21-30 years ☐ 31-40 years

  ☐ 41-50 years ☐ 51-60 years ☐ 61 years and over

- What is your highest level of education?

  ☐ Primary school ☐ Secondary school ☐ Technical or Vocational

  ☐ Diploma or Certificate ☐ University graduate ☐ Post- graduate

- Were you born in Bangkok? ☐ Yes ☐ No
- Is your name registered in household registration in Bangkok?
  ☐ Yes ☐ No
- How long have you lived in Bangkok?
  ☐ Less than a year ☐ 1-10 years ☐ 11-20 years
  ☐ 21-30 years ☐ More than 30 years
- What district are you living in Bangkok? _____
- Are you employed in tourism or a tourism related job?
  ☐ Yes ☐ No
- Present organization for which you work.
  ☐ Government Official & Council ☐ College & university
  ☐ Hotel ☐ Tourism operators/ Tourist guide
  ☐ Non-profit organization & association
  ☐ Private Business (not directly related to tourism)
  ☐ Other (please specify): _____

If we have not covered things that you consider important, please use the space below for additional comments.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank You Millions

APPENDIX 1B

เรียน ท่านผู้มีส่วนเกี่ยวข้องทุกท่าน

ผมนายวิรุจ กิจนันทวิวัฒน์ นักศึกษาปริญญาเอก คณะการจัดการ (School of Management) สถาบันเทคโนโลยีแห่งเอเชีย (Asian Institute of Technology) อยู่ในระหว่างการทำวิทยานิพนธ์หัวข้อ 'การพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวของกรุงเทพมหานครให้เป็นการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวอย่างยั่งยืน'(Tourism Development and Destination Sustainability in Bangkok, Thailand).

เอกสารที่แนบมาพร้อมกับจดหมายฉบับนี้คือแบบสอบถามที่ถูกออกแบบขึ้นเพื่อสอบถามความคิดเห็นโดยทั่วไปของผู้ตอบในเรื่องที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวอย่างยั่งยืน คำตอบทั้งหมดของแบบสอบถามฉบับนี้ ผู้วิจัยจะใช้เฉพาะสำหรับการทำวิจัยของผู้วิจัยเท่านั้น คำตอบทั้งหมดของท่านผู้ตอบจะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับ และไม่นำมาเปิดเผยไม่ว่าด้วยเหตุผลใดๆทั้งสิ้น

ผมขอขอบคุณอย่างสูงหากท่านผู้ตอบจะกรุณาพิจารณาคำถามและตอบคำถามในแบบสอบถามฉบับนี้อย่างละเอียดถี่ถ้วน หากท่านผู้ตอบมีคำถามหรือข้อสงสัยประการใดที่เกี่ยวกับแบบสอบถามหรืองานวิจัยนี้ โปรดสอบถามผู้วิจัยหรือผู้ช่วยวิจัย

ขอขอบคุณในความอนุเคราะห์ของท่านที่ได้เสียสละเวลาอันมีค่าเพื่อตอบคำถามในแบบสอบถามฉบับนี้

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

นายวิรุจ กิจนันทวิวัฒน์
นักศึกษาปริญญาเอก
คณะการจัดการ
สถาบันเทคโนโลยีแห่งเอเชีย
โทร: 0-9200-7910
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ส่วนที่ I: ผลกระทบของการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวในทางบวก (Tourism Development Positive Impact)

โปรดวงกลมล้อมรอบคำตอบที่เหมาะสมที่สุด โดยคำถามต้องการถามว่า **ท่านเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยมากน้อยเพียงใดต่อผลกระทบต่างๆที่เกิดขึ้นในแง่บวกจากการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยว**

(1= ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง, 2 = ไม่เห็นด้วย, 3 = เฉยๆ, 4 = เห็นด้วย, 5 = เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง)

	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง				เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
1. สร้างงานและดึงดูดการลงทุน	1	2	3	4	5
2. พัฒนามาตรฐานการดำรงชีพของคนในพื้นที่	1	2	3	4	5
3. สร้างผลประโยชน์ทางเศรษฐกิจให้แก่ประชาชนในพื้นที่	1	2	3	4	5
4. ส่งเสริมสนับสนุนความหลากหลายทางวัฒนธรรมประเพณี	1	2	3	4	5
5. มีการแลกเปลี่ยนวัฒนธรรมระหว่างคนในพื้นที่และนักท่องเที่ยว	1	2	3	4	5
6. สงวนรักษาไว้ซึ่งวัฒนธรรม และเอกลักษณ์ของท้องถิ่น	1	2	3	4	5
7 พัฒนาภาพลักษณ์ (image) ของพื้นที่	1	2	3	4	5
8. พัฒนาสวนสาธารณะ ที่พักผ่อนหย่อนใจแก่คนในพื้นที่	1	2	3	4	5
9. ส่งเสริมให้มีการซ่อมแซม บูรณะ สถานที่สำคัญทางประวัติศาสตร์	1	2	3	4	5

ส่วนที่ II: ผลกระทบของการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวในทางลบ (Tourism Development Negative Impact)

โปรดวงกลมล้อมรอบคำตอบที่เหมาะสมที่สุด โดยคำถามต้องการถามว่า **ท่านเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยมากน้อยเพียงใดต่อผลกระทบต่างๆที่เกิดขึ้นในแง่ลบจากการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยว**

(1= ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง, 2 = ไม่เห็นด้วย, 3 = เฉยๆ, 4 = เห็นด้วย, 5 = เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง)

	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง				เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
1. มีค่าครองชีพในพื้นที่เพิ่มสูงขึ้น	1	2	3	4	5
2. เพิ่มจำนวนอาชญากรรมต่างๆ ในพื้นที่	1	2	3	4	5
3. เพิ่มจำนวนโสเภณีในพื้นที่	1	2	3	4	5
4. ทำลายวัฒนธรรมและประเพณีที่ล้ำค่าในท้องถิ่น	1	2	3	4	5
5. สร้างมลภาวะทางเสียง น้ำ อากาศ รวมไปถึงปัญหาการจราจรติดขัด	1	2	3	4	5
6. ทำให้พื้นที่มีความแออัดยัดเยียด	1	2	3	4	5
7. ทำลายธรรมชาติและสิ่งแวดล้อม	1	2	3	4	5
8. ทำให้วิถีทางการดำรงชีวิต(way of life) ของคนในพื้นที่เปลี่ยนไปในทางลบ	1	2	3	4	5

ส่วนที่ III: จิตสำนึกความเป็นชุมชน (Sense of Community)

โปรดวงกลมล้อมรอบคำตอบที่เหมาะสมที่สุด โดยคำถามต้องการถาม<u>ความรู้สึกของท่านต่อกรุงเทพมหานครในฐานะที่ท่านอาศัยอยู่ในกรุงเทพมหานครและกรุงเทพมหานครถูกจัดให้เป็นเมืองแห่งการท่องเที่ยว</u>

(1= ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง, 2 = ไม่เห็นด้วย, 3 = เฉยๆ, 4 = เห็นด้วย, 5 = เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง)

	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง				เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
1. ท่านคิดว่าเมืองนี้เป็นเมืองที่ดีสำหรับท่านในการอยู่อาศัย	1	2	3	4	5
2. ผู้คนในเมืองนี้ไม่นำเอาค่านิยม (Values) ของตนเองไปแลกเปลี่ยนกับผู้อื่น	1	2	3	4	5
3. ท่านและเพื่อนบ้านของท่านต้องการสภาพแวดล้อม กิจกรรมและสิ่งต่างๆ จากเมืองนี้ เหมือนๆกัน	1	2	3	4	5
4. ท่านสามารถนึกถึง (recognize) และรู้จักผู้คนจำนวนมากที่อาศัยในเมืองนี้	1	2	3	4	5
5. ท่านรู้สึกเหมือนอยู่บ้านเมื่อท่านอาศัยอยู่ในเมืองนี้	1	2	3	4	5
6. ท่านเป็นที่รู้จักน้อยมากในหมู่เพื่อนบ้านของท่าน	1	2	3	4	5
7. ท่านรู้สึกกังวลว่าเพื่อนบ้านของท่านจะคิดอย่างไรต่อการกระทำของท่าน	1	2	3	4	5
8. ท่านไม่ได้มีอิทธิพลหรือมีส่วนเกี่ยวข้องใดๆ ต่อเมืองนี้	1	2	3	4	5
9. เมื่อมีปัญหาต่างๆ เกิดขึ้นผู้คนที่อาศัยในเมืองนี้สามารถแก้ปัญหาได้	1	2	3	4	5
10. มันเป็นสิ่งสำคัญต่อท่านอย่างมากที่ได้อาศัยอยู่ในเมืองนี้	1	2	3	4	5
11. ผู้คนที่อาศัยอยู่ในเมืองนี้โดยทั่วๆ ไปไม่สามารถเข้ากับคนอื่นๆได้	1	2	3	4	5
12. ท่านหวังว่าจะอาศัยอยู่ในเมืองนี้ให้นานที่สุด	1	2	3	4	5

ส่วนที่ IV: ทัศนคติเกี่ยวกับความยั่งยืน (Sustainability Attitude)

โปรดวงกลมล้อมรอบคำตอบที่เหมาะสมที่สุดโดยคำถามต้องการถามว่า <u>ท่านเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยมากน้อยเพียงใดต่อทัศนคติที่เกี่ยวข้องกับความยั่งยืนกับการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยว</u>

(1= ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง, 2 = ไม่เห็นด้วย, 3 = เฉยๆ, 4 = เห็นด้วย, 5 = เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง)

	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง				เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
<u>ทัศนคติเกี่ยวกับสังคมสิ่งแวดล้อม</u> (Socio-Environment)					
1. การพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวจะต้องปกป้องและอนุรักษ์สิ่งแวดล้อม	1	2	3	4	5
2. ความหลากหลายของธรรมชาติจะต้องได้รับการประเมินคุณค่าและได้รับการปกป้อง	1	2	3	4	5
3. สิ่งแวดล้อมในชุมชนต้องได้รับการปกป้องและพัฒนาทั้งในปัจจุบันต่อไปจนถึงอนาคต	1	2	3	4	5

4. การพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวที่เหมาะสมจำเป็นต้องคำนึงถึงการปกป้องธรรมชาติควบคู่ไปด้วยเสมอ	1	2	3	4	5
5. การท่องเที่ยวจะต้องถูกพัฒนาให้มีความกลมกลืนระหว่างธรรมชาติ วัฒนธรรมและสิ่งแวดล้อม	1	2	3	4	5
6. การพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวจะต้องส่งเสริม ให้ความรู้กับทุกๆคน ในเรื่องเกี่ยวกับจริยธรรมต่อสิ่งแวดล้อม	1	2	3	4	5
7. ผู้ที่ลงทุนเกี่ยวกับการท่องเที่ยวควรจะมีความพยายามอย่างแรงกล้าในการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวที่มีการอนุรักษ์สิ่งแวดล้อมควบคู่ไปด้วย	1	2	3	4	5
8. การท่องเที่ยวมีส่วนในการพัฒนาสิ่งแวดล้อมเพื่อคนในยุคต่อไปได้	1	2	3	4	5
9. ระเบียบ ข้อบังคับ เกี่ยวกับมาตรฐานทางสิ่งแวดล้อมเป็นสิ่งจำเป็นในการลดผลเสียที่เกิดขึ้นจากการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยว	1	2	3	4	5
<u>การวางแผนระยะยาว</u> (Long Term Planning)					
1. ท่านเชื่อว่าการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวจำเป็นต้องมีการร่วมมือกัน อย่างดีในการวางแผน	1	2	3	4	5
2. เมื่อมีการวางแผนสำหรับการท่องเที่ยว จะต้องไม่วางแผนในระยะสั้นๆ แต่จำเป็นต้องวางแผนในระยะยาวๆ โดยพิจารณาถึงผลกระทบในแง่ต่างๆ	1	2	3	4	5
3. ท่านเชื่อว่าการจะจัดการการท่องเที่ยวให้ประสบความสำเร็จจำเป็นจะต้องมีการวางแผนแบบก้าวหน้า(Advance Planning)	1	2	3	4	5
4. แผนการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวควรจะมีการพัฒนาอย่างต่อเนื่อง	1	2	3	4	5
5. อุตสาหกรรมการท่องเที่ยวจะต้องมีการวางแผนงาน และจัดทำคู่มือสำหรับการนำเอาไปปฏิบัติในอนาคต	1	2	3	4	5
<u>การมีส่วนร่วมในชุมชน</u> (Community Participation)					
1. การตัดสินใจเกี่ยวกับการท่องเที่ยวจะต้องได้รับการตัดสินใจจากทุกๆ คนในพื้นที่โดยไม่คำนึงถึงพื้นฐานของแต่ละคน	1	2	3	4	5
2. ประชาชนในพื้นที่ควรจะมีโอกาสในการเข้าไปมีส่วนร่วมในการตัดสินใจเกี่ยวกับการท่องเที่ยว	1	2	3	4	5
3. ในบางสถานการณ์การตัดสินใจเกี่ยวกับการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวอาจไม่ต้องให้คนในพื้นที่เข้ามามีส่วนร่วมในการตัดสินใจ	1	2	3	4	5
4. ทุกๆคนในพื้นที่ต้องมีส่วนร่วมในการปฏิบัติการพัฒนาการการท่องเที่ยวเพื่อการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวอย่างยั่งยืน	1	2	3	4	5

ส่วนที่ V: การสนับสนุนเพื่อพัฒนาสถานที่ท่องเที่ยว (Support for Tourism Attraction Development)

โปรดวงกลมล้อมรอบคำตอบที่เหมาะสมที่สุด โดยคำถามต้องการ**ให้ท่านพิจารณาถึงระดับของการสนับสนุนในการพัฒนาสถานที่ท่องเที่ยวประเภทต่างๆ ของกรุงเทพมหานคร**

(1= ไม่สนับสนุนอย่างยิ่ง, 2 = ไม่สนับสนุน, 3 = เฉยๆ, 4 = สนับสนุน, 5 = สนับสนุนอย่างยิ่ง)

	ไม่สนับสนุนอย่างยิ่ง				สนับสนุนอย่างยิ่ง
1. แหล่งท่องเที่ยวทางธรรมชาติ(เช่น สวนสาธารณะ สวนสัตว์)	1	2	3	4	5
2. แหล่งท่องเที่ยวทางประวัติศาสตร์ วัฒนธรรมประเพณี โบราณคดี (เช่น พระบรมหาราชวัง พิพิธภัณฑ์ ศาสนสถาน)	1	2	3	4	5
3. แหล่งท่องเที่ยวที่สร้างขึ้นเพื่อดึงดูดนักท่องเที่ยวจำนวนมาก (เช่น สวนสนุก กาสิโน)	1	2	3	4	5
4. กิจกรรม และ เทศกาลงานประเพณีต่างๆของคนพื้นเมืองและนานาชาติ(เช่น คอนเสริต งานศิลปะหัตถกรรม เทศกาลต่างๆ)	1	2	3	4	5
5. กิจกรรม และ มหกรรมการแข่งขันที่เกี่ยวกับกีฬาและสันทนาการ(เช่น กีฬาเอเชียนเกมส์ มวยไทย เทนนิส กอล์ฟ)	1	2	3	4	5
6. การประชุม การส่งเสริมให้มาท่องเที่ยว นิทรรศการและงานแสดงสินค้า (MICE)	1	2	3	4	5
7. ธุรกิจที่พัก และโรงแรม	1	2	3	4	5
8. ธุรกิจร้านอาหารและเครื่องดื่ม	1	2	3	4	5
9. ศูนย์การค้า ร้านจำหน่ายสินค้า และของที่ระลึก	1	2	3	4	5

ส่วนที่ VI: การสนับสนุนกลยุทธ์เพื่อการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวอย่างยั่งยืน (Support for Destination Sustainability Strategies)

โปรดวงกลมล้อมรอบคำตอบที่เหมาะสมที่สุด โดยคำถามต้องการ**ให้ท่านพิจารณาถึงระดับของการสนับสนุนในการวางแผนกลยุทธ์ในการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวของกรุงเทพมหานครให้เป็นไปอย่างยั่งยืน**

(1= ไม่สนับสนุนอย่างยิ่ง, 2 = ไม่สนับสนุน, 3 = เฉยๆ, 4 = สนับสนุน, 5 = สนับสนุนอย่างยิ่ง)

	ไม่สนับสนุนอย่างยิ่ง				สนับสนุนอย่างยิ่ง
1. พัฒนาภาพลักษณ์ (image) ของเมือง	1	2	3	4	5
2. เลือกและทำการแบ่งกลุ่มตลาดนักท่องเที่ยวให้เหมาะสม	1	2	3	4	5
3. ส่งเสริมให้นักท่องเที่ยวสามารถท่องเที่ยวได้ตลอดทุกฤดูกาล	1	2	3	4	5
4. เพิ่มระยะเวลาที่นักท่องเที่ยวพักค้างคืนให้เพิ่มขึ้น	1	2	3	4	5
5. เพิ่มรายจ่ายของนักท่องเที่ยวต่อคนต่อวัน	1	2	3	4	5

6. พัฒนาระบบสาธารณูปโภคต่างๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการท่องเที่ยว (ถนน, ระบบขนส่ง, สิ่งอำนวยความสะดวก แก่นักท่องเที่ยว)	1	2	3	4	5
7. สร้างมาตรฐานการให้บริการ และสิ่งอำนวยความสะดวกต่างๆ ของการท่องเที่ยว	1	2	3	4	5
8. ส่งเสริม ความปลอดภัยให้แก่นักท่องเที่ยว	1	2	3	4	5
9. ส่งเสริมให้ความรู้และการฝึกอบรมแก่บุคคลที่อยู่ในอุตสาหกรรมท่องเที่ยวทั้งในปัจจุบันและอนาคต	1	2	3	4	5
10. จัดตั้งมาตรฐานเพื่อการปฏิบัติงานที่มีประสิทธิภาพของตัวแทน/องค์กรรัฐบาลที่เกี่ยวข้องกับอุตสาหกรรมท่องเที่ยว	1	2	3	4	5
11. จัดตั้งหน่วยงานโดยเฉพาะเพื่อรับฟังและแก้ปัญหาให้กับนักท่องเที่ยว	1	2	3	4	5
12. สร้างความหลากหลายของสินค้าและบริการทางการท่องเที่ยวเพื่อตอบสนองต่อความต้องของนักท่องเที่ยวในแต่ละกลุ่ม	1	2	3	4	5
13. ส่งเสริมให้องค์กร และตัวแทนของรัฐบาลในพื้นที่มีบทบาทในการอำนวยความสะดวกในการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยว	1	2	3	4	5
14. สร้างและพัฒนากลยุทธ์ที่เกี่ยวกับการจัดการวิกฤตและมหันตภัยต่างๆไว้เพื่อหลีกเลี่ยงหรือลดความรุนแรงที่จะเกิดขึ้น	1	2	3	4	5
15. มีความพร้อมและตอบสนองอย่างรวดเร็วในการแถลงข่าว ตอบคำถาม ต่อสื่อประเภทต่างๆ เมื่อมีสถานการณ์ฉุกเฉินเกิดขึ้น	1	2	3	4	5
16. จัดให้มีการฝึกอบรมเชิงปฏิบัติการเกี่ยวกับการจัดการกับวิกฤตและมหันตภัย สำหรับทุกๆฝ่ายที่มีส่วนเกี่ยวข้องกับการท่องเที่ยว	1	2	3	4	5
17. พัฒนาหน่วยงานซึ่งประกอบด้วยตัวแทนจากทุกๆ ฝ่ายที่มีส่วนเกี่ยวข้องกับการท่องเที่ยวในการจัดการกับวิกฤตและมหันตภัยต่างๆ	1	2	3	4	5
18. ส่งเสริมให้ธุรกิจท่องเที่ยวต่างๆ รวมกลุ่มและร่วมมือกันอย่างเข้มแข็ง	1	2	3	4	5
19. นำเอาความสามารถในการรองรับ (Carrying capacity) ของพื้นที่ในแต่ละพื้นที่มาใช้โดยคำนึงถึงความต้องการของการท่องเที่ยว	1	2	3	4	5
20. ส่งเสริมให้มีการใช้ทรัพยากรธรรมชาติอย่างสมดุล	1	2	3	4	5

21. พิจารณาและกำหนดให้ธรรมชาติและสิ่งแวดล้อมเป็นส่วนหนึ่งในการกำหนดกลยุทธ์แผนการตลาดการท่องเที่ยว	1	2	3	4	5
22. เผยแพร่และให้ความรู้เกี่ยวกับการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวอย่างยั่งยืนแก่ทุกๆ ฝ่ายที่มีส่วนเกี่ยวข้องกับการท่องเที่ยว	1	2	3	4	5
23. นำเอามาตรการต่างๆทางภาษีที่เกี่ยวกับสิ่งแวดล้อมมาใช้เพื่อใช้วัดและควบคุมคุณภาพของสิ่งแวดล้อม	1	2	3	4	5
24. พัฒนาและจัดหาข้อมูลทางการท่องเที่ยวให้กับนักท่องเที่ยว (แผ่นพับ คู่มือ แผนที่)	1	2	3	4	5
25. สร้างและรวบรวมข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับสถานที่ท่องเที่ยวและการบริการในพื้นที่	1	2	3	4	5
26. สร้างและรวบรวมข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับทัศนคติ การรับรู้และความพึงพอใจของทุกๆ ฝ่ายที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการท่องเที่ยว	1	2	3	4	5
27. สร้างและรวบรวมระบบข้อมูลสารสนเทศทางการท่องเที่ยวของประเทศคู่แข่ง พันธมิตร	1	2	3	4	5
28. สร้างและรวบรวมระบบข้อมูลสารสนเทศให้ครอบคลุมทุกๆ ด้านที่เกี่ยวข้องกับอุตสาหกรรมท่องเที่ยวเพื่อให้บริการแก่ทุกๆ ฝ่ายที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการท่องเที่ยว	1	2	3	4	5
29. พัฒนาเว็ปไซท์การท่องเที่ยวให้น่าสนใจ เข้าใจง่ายและมีความรวดเร็วในการเข้าชม	1	2	3	4	5
30. สร้างเว็ปไซท์ที่ให้ข้อมูลครอบคลุมทุกๆ ด้านทางการท่องเที่ยว เช่น ให้ทุกๆ คนที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการท่องเที่ยวสามารถกำหนดแพ็คเกจการเที่ยวของตนเองได้	1	2	3	4	5
31. ดำเนินการส่งเสริมประชาสัมพันธ์เพื่อให้ทุกๆฝ่ายที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการท่องเที่ยวตระหนักถึงความสำคัญของการท่องเที่ยวอิเล็กทรอนิกส์(E-tourism)	1	2	3	4	5
32. ประชาสัมพันธ์และนำเอาเว็ปไซท์ไปโฆษณาในเว็ปไซท์ที่มีชื่อเสียงและ เว็ปที่มีชื่อเสียงทางการท่องเที่ยวระดับโลกอื่นๆ	1	2	3	4	5
33. พัฒนาโครงสร้างซอฟต์แวร์ เครือข่าย และความปลอดภัยเพื่อใช้ในการพัฒนาฐานข้อมูลของการท่องเที่ยวอิเล็กทรอนิกส์	1	2	3	4	5

<u>ส่วนที่ VII: ข้อมูลส่วนตัว (Demographic Information)</u>

กรุณาใส่เครื่องหมาย (/) ในช่อง ☐

- เพศ ☐ ชาย ☐ หญิง
- อายุ

☐ น้อยกว่าหรือเท่ากับ 20 ปี ☐ 21-30 ปี ☐ 31-40 ปี

☐ 41-50 ปี ☐ 51-60 ปี ☐ 61 ปีขึ้นไป

- ระดับการศึกษาสูงสุด

  ☐ ประถมศึกษา ☐ มัธยมศึกษา ☐ อาชีวศึกษา

  ☐ ประกาศนียบัตร/อนุปริญญา ☐ ปริญญาตรี ☐ สูงกว่าปริญญาตรี

- ท่านมีภูมิลำเนาเกิดในกรุงเทพมหานครใช่หรือไม่ ☐ ใช่ ☐ ไม่ใช่

- ท่านมีชื่ออยู่ในทะเบียนบ้านที่อาศัยในกรุงเทพมหานครใช่หรือไม่ ☐ ใช่ ☐ ไม่ใช่

- ท่านอาศัยอยู่ในกรุงเทพมหานครมาแล้วเป็นเวลากี่ปี

  ☐ น้อยกว่า 1 ปี ☐ 1-10 ปี ☐ 11-20 ปี

  ☐ 21-30 ปี ☐ มากกว่า 30 ปี

- ท่านอาศัยอยู่ในเขตใดในกรุงเทพมหานคร? _____

- ท่านทำงานทางด้านการท่องเที่ยวหรือเกี่ยวข้องกับการท่องเที่ยวหรือไม่

  ☐ ใช่ ☐ ไม่ใช่

- หน่วยงาน, องค์กร หรือบริษัทประเภทใดในปัจจุบันที่ท่านกำลังทำงานอยู่

  ☐ หน่วยงานรัฐบาล ข้าราชการ(กระทรวง/ กรม/ กอง/ หน่วยบริหารส่วนท้องถิ่น)

  ☐ มหาวิทยาลัย และสถาบันการศึกษา ☐ โรงแรม

  ☐ บริษัทนำเที่ยว/ มัคคุเทศน์ ☐ สมาคม/ องค์กรไม่แสวงหาผลกำไร (NGO)

  ☐ บริษัทเอกชน (ไม่ได้ทำงานที่เกี่ยวข้องโดยตรงกับธุรกิจหรืออุตสาหกรรมการท่องเที่ยว)

  ☐ อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ): _____

หากท่านมีคำแนะนำเพิ่มเติมนอกเหนือจากแบบสอบถามฉบับนี้ กรุณาเขียนคำแนะนำของท่านได้ในช่องว่างข้างล่างนี้

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_____

ขอขอบคุณในความอนุเคราะห์ของท่านเป็นอย่างสูง